

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

For
Senior Secondary School

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EDUBASE

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SS1

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

FIRST TERM

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Week 1

Topic: Review of Word Class (Parts of Speech); Oral: Review of Vowel and Consonant Sounds

Introduction

The indispensable aspect of a language you cannot ignore if you want to be an authority in the language are the Parts of Speech.

A part of speech is a category into which words are placed according to the work they do in a sentence. Every word that makes up a sentence, phrase or clause belongs to a part of speech. The eight parts of speech are presented to you on a platter of gold, with their definitions, types, functions, examples and how to use them. Just click on the links to see everything you want to know about the different part of speech.

Parts of Speech

Grammar Clinic: Part Of Speech (Noun)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Pronoun)

Grammar Clinic: Parts of Speech (Adjective)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Verb)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Adverb)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Preposition)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Conjunction)

Grammar Clinic: Part of Speech (Interjection)

Oral: Review of Vowel and Consonant Sounds

A vowel is a speech sound made by allowing breath to flow out of the mouth, without closing any part of the mouth or throat (although the lips may move to create the

correct sound, as in creating the sound “o”). Letters of the English alphabet that represent vowels: *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *y*.

A consonant is a speech sound made by partially or completely blocking the flow of air through the mouth (using the lips, teeth, tongue, and palate). Letters of the English alphabet that represent consonants include all the letters that are not vowels. Examples: *b, d, k, s*. The letter “*y*” makes a consonant sound when it appears at the beginning of words (examples: *yellow, yacht*), and it makes a vowel sound when it appears at the end of words (examples: *valley, fairy*). This dual role explains why the letter *y* is considered as only sometimes a vowel. Once students know that vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *y*, and that consonants make up all the other letters, they can usually easily group the letters of the alphabet into vowels and consonants. However, there are vowels and consonants that sound like each other in certain words in English. Students speaking or hearing these vowels and consonants can sometimes find it difficult to distinguish between them, and that makes these vowels and consonants especially challenging as well as interesting. Here are some examples:

What happens when what looks like a vowel does not sound like a vowel? For example, the *u* in “unicorn” makes a consonant sound and is usually preceded by “*a*,” not “*an*,” in the English language— people say “*a unicorn*,” not “*an unicorn*.” An even more interesting example is the word “ununium” (an artificially produced radioactive element, pronounced *yoonyoon-yoo-nee-um*, with the accent on the “*yoo*”). In addition, the *o* in “one,” “ouananiche” (a type of landlocked salmon, pronounced *wan-an-ish*, with the emphasis on the “*ish*”), and “Ouija” (a trademark for a spiritual and telepathic game board, pronounced *wee-jee*, with the emphasis on the “*wee*”), makes a consonant sound. The “*w*” sound in *ouananiche* and *Ouija* is actually made by the combination of the letters *o* and *u*.

What happens when what looks like a consonant does not sound like a consonant? For example, the *h* in “hour” is silent, so the word “hour” begins with a vowel sound and is usually preceded by “*an*,” not “*a*,” in the English language — people say “*an hour*,” not “*a hour*.” Other examples: *honorary, honesty*.

Exercise

1. What is a part of speech?
2. Write short notes on each of the parts of speech.
3. What do you understand by vowels?
4. Differentiate between vowels and consonants.

Week 2

Topic: Nouns: and Spoken English: Monothongs

What is a Noun?

A noun is often defined as a word which names a person, place or thing. Here are some examples of nouns: boy, river, friend, Mexico, triangle, day, school, truth, university, idea, John F. Kennedy, movie, aunt, vacation, eye, dream, flag, teacher, class, grammar. John is a noun because it is the name of a person; Mexico is a noun because it is the name of a place; and boy is a noun because it is the name of a thing. Noun has different forms and functions.

Types of Noun Forms and Functions

Abstract Noun: A noun (such as *courage* or *freedom*) that names an idea, event, quality, or concept. (e.g *Love* is an irresistible *desire* to be irresistibly desired)

Concrete Noun: A noun (such as *chicken* or *egg*) that names a material or tangible object or phenomenon—something recognizable through the senses. (e.g A little *babysleeping* in a *cot*)

Note: an *abstract noun* refers to an action, concept, event, quality, or state (*love, conversation*), whereas a *concrete noun* refers to a touchable, observable person or thing (*child, tree*)

Animate Noun and Inanimate Noun

Animate Noun: A category of noun, referring to a person, animal, or other creature. (e.g The *European* hunted for presents for his *wife* and the *women* on his *staff* back home)

Inanimate Noun: A semantic category of noun that refers to a place, thing, or idea—not a person, animal, or other creature. (e.g Boluwatife loves to shop. On a *March day* in an elegant *crafts store* in *Lima*, the Peruvian *capital*, he hunted for *presents* for his wife and the women on his staff back *home*. He had given a *speech* at a *university* earlier and just came from a *ceremony* kicking off a *program* to help impoverished Peruvians. Now he was eyeing a *necklace* with a green *stone amulet*.)

Attributive Noun: A noun that modifies another noun and functions as an adjective. (e.g King Tutankhamun is known as the “*boyking*” because he became the pharaoh of Egypt at the age of nine) *Boy* in this sentence is modifying the noun *king*.

Collective Noun: A noun (such as *team*, *committee*, or *family*) that refers to a group of individuals. (e.g. The *minority* is sometimes right; the *majority* always wrong, A group of crows is called a *murder*)

Common Noun and Proper Noun

Common Noun: A noun that's not the name of any particular person, place, or thing. A common noun represents one or all of the members of a class, and it can be preceded by the definite article (*the*). (e.g. The *tree* has been stripped of its leaves during the *winter*)

Proper Noun: A noun belonging to the class of words used as names for unique individuals, events, or places. Contrast with common noun. (e.g. *Fred*, *New York*, *Mars*, *Coca Cola*)

Countable Noun and Uncountable Noun

Countable Noun: A noun that refers to an object or idea that can form a plural or occur in a noun phrase with an indefinite article or with numerals. (e.g. The creation of a thousand *forests* is in one *acorn*)

Uncountable Noun: A noun (such as *advice*, *bread*, *knowledge*, *luck*, *spaghetti*, and *work*) that names things that in English cannot usually be counted.

Many nouns have both countable and non-countable uses, such as the countable "dozen *eggs*" and the non-countable "*egg* on his face."

Denominal Noun: A noun that is formed from another noun, usually by adding a suffix—such as *villager* (from *village*), *New Yorker* (from *New York*), *booklet* (from *book*), *limeade* (from *lime*), *lectureship* (from *lecture*), and *librarian* (from *library*).

Deverbal and Verbal Noun

Deverbal Noun: A word (usually a noun or an adjective) that is derived from a verb. Also called *derivative noun* and *derivative adjective*. Put another way, a deverbal is a verb that has been converted to a noun or an adjective by the addition of an appropriate morpheme. (e.g. . . . *baker*, a noun derived from a verb by attaching the suffix *-er*.)

Verbal Noun: A noun that is derived from a verb (usually by adding the suffix *-ing*) and that exhibits the ordinary properties of a noun. (e.g. The *building* with a blue roof.)

Plurale Tantum: A noun that appears only in the plural and does not have a singular form. Plural, *pluralia tantum*. (A noun that appears only in the singular form—such as *dirt*—is known as *singulare tantum*.)

What is a Monophthong?

A monophthong is simply a vowel. Derived from the old Greek language (with *Mono* meaning *one/single* and the *-phthong* meaning *sound/tone* and the basic word *phthalein* which means *to speak/create sound with the voice*), the word monophthong shows that a vowel is spoken with exactly one tone and one mouth position. Take for example when you say “teeth”; while you are creating the sound of the “ee”, nothing changes for that sound.

A monophthong can be a lexeme of a language and as such it can as well be a syllable. There is no shorter syllable than a single monophthong.

Exercise

1. What is a noun?
2. List and discuss the different noun forms and their functions.
3. What do you understand by the word monophthong? Discuss.

Week 3

Topic: Adjectives and Adverbs; Oral: Triphthong

What are Adjectives?

Adjectives are the part of speech (or word class) that modify a noun or a pronoun. They are added to nouns to state *what kind, what colour, which one or how many*. In this light therefore, it is important to note however that adjectives do not just modify nouns, but are also necessary to make the meanings of sentences clearer and more exact.

In addition to their basic (or positive) forms (for example, *big* and *beautiful*), most descriptive adjectives have two other forms: comparative (*bigger* and *more beautiful*) and superlative (*biggest* and *most beautiful*).

Adjectives are classified into different categories as you can see below-

Absolute Adjective: An adjective, such as “supreme” or “infinite,” with a meaning that is generally not capable of being intensified or compared.

Examples: In a world of prayer, we are all equal in the sense that each of us is a *unique* person, with a *unique* perspective on the world, a member of a class of one.

As in ‘his unique son,’ no degrees of uniqueness are possible, as unique in this sentence means one, so it cannot be said as, ‘his more unique son’.

Appositive Adjective: A traditional grammatical term for an adjective (or a series of adjectives) that follows a noun and, like a nonrestrictive appositive, is set off by commas or dashes. Appositive adjectives often appear in pairs or groups of three (tricolons).

Examples: William was a big boy, *tall, strong, and broad-shouldered*. The trees, *forlorn and bare, sigh on,*
And shiver in the northern blast.

Attributive Adjective: An adjective that usually comes before the noun it modifies without a linking verb. Contrast with predicative adjective. Attributive adjectives are direct modifiers of nominals.

Examples: Go to sleep, *little* baby. In a rush of pity—sympathy, affection, hope—I said the *most stupid* thing ever.

Predicative Adjective: A traditional term for an adjective that usually comes after a linking verb rather than before a noun. (Contrast with attributive adjective.) Another term for a predicative adjective is *subject complement*.

Examples: The Earth was *small, light blue*, and so touchingly *alone*, our home that must be defended like a holy relic. The most guileful amongst the reporters are those who appear *friendly* and smile and seem to be *supportive*.

Compound Adjective: Two or more words (such as *part-time* or *high-speed*) that act as a single idea to modify a noun (a *part-time* employee, a *high-speed* chase). Also called *phrasal adjective* or *compound modifier*.

As a general rule, the words in a compound adjective are hyphenated when they come before a noun (a *well-known* actor) but not when they come after (The actor is *well known*). Also, compound adjectives formed with an adverb ending in *-ly* (such as *rapidly changing*) are usually not hyphenated.

Examples: If nothing else works, a total *pig-headed* unwillingness to look facts in the face will see us through.

Classifying Adjectives: An adjective used to divide people or things into particular groups, types, or classes. Unlike qualitative adjectives, classifying adjectives are not usually gradable—that is, they don't have comparative or superlative forms.

Examples: After our retreat from St. Louis, Momma gave us a *weekly* allowance. *Weekly* cannot be written as *weeklier*, or *more weekly*. I had a *wooden* coin that my future husband had given me

Qualitative Adjectives: An adjective used to identify the qualities or features of a person or thing. In contrast to classifying adjectives, qualitative adjectives are usually gradable—that is, they have positive, comparative and superlative forms.

Examples: He told us of the *wonderful* changes we children in Stamps had in store. Pilots who flew over him saw a *long, slim* figure while observers on the ground, their visual aspect impaired by the slope and thus foreshortening the figure, saw him *assquat* and *stocky*.

Cumulative Adjectives: Two or more adjectives that build on one another and together modify a noun. Unlike *coordinate adjectives* (which can be joined by *and* and whose order can be reversed), cumulative adjectives are generally *not* separated by commas.

Example: Charlie bent slowly and took hold of the *bright red rubber* globe and arose slowly, a secretive look in his eyes. He looked north and south and then up at Odd's *bony pale brown* face.

Denominal Adjective: An adjective formed from a noun, usually with the addition of a suffix—such as *hopeless, earthen, cowardly* and *childish*.

Example: A 10-month-old baby, swept out to sea by a *tidal* wave, was saved from a *watery* grave when he was carried safely back to shore—in the jaws of a dolphin. *Tidal* is derived from the noun *tide*.

Participial Adjective: A traditional term for an adjective that has the same form as the participle of a verb (that is, a verb ending in *-ing* or *-ed/-en*) and that usually exhibits the ordinary properties of an adjective. Also called a *verbal adjective* or a *deverbal adjective*.

Examples: What kind of a man was he to fall in love with a *lying* thief?. Bruce Catton believed that the removal of Johnston and the appointment of Hood in his place was perhaps the gravest mistake made by either administration during the entire war. This is a *sweeping* judgment.

Demonstrative Adjectives: These adjectives have a special, simple function within the English language: they help indicate a noun and are within close proximity of that noun in a sentence. They are especially helpful when you want to make it clear which noun (which thing) you would like to talk about. With these adjectives, you can be sure that the listener knows that you want to talk about “this cat with the stripes, not that one with the spots” and that you want to wear “this hat with the plaid, and not that one with the brim.” You can even just use them to emphasize which object you are talking about: “that pie was delicious!”

The primary singular form of these adjectives are as follows: This, That, Yonder, Yon, Former and Latter. The plural demonstrative adjectives include: These, Those

Examples: These shoes fit me very well. (these). Those shoes are too expensive. (those). The latter option will cost us a lot less money. (latter).

Adverbs

An adverb is the part of speech (or word class) that is primarily used to modify a verb, adjective, or other adverb. Adverbs can also modify prepositional phrases, subordinate clauses, and complete sentences.

Position of Adverbs

An adverb that modifies an adjective (“*quite sad*”) or another adverb (“*very carelessly*”) appears immediately in front of the word it modifies. An adverb that modifies a verb is generally more flexible: it may appear before or after the verb it modifies (“*softly sang*” or “*sang softly*”), or it may appear at the beginning of the sentence (“*Softly she sang to the baby*”). The position of the adverb may have an effect on the meaning of the sentence.

FUNCTIONS OF ADVERB

Temporal Adverb – An adverb (such as *soon* or *tomorrow*) that describes *when* the action of a verb is carried out. It is also called a *time adverb*. An adverb phrase that answers the question “when?” is called a *temporal adverb*. *e.g* I always thought that the river was deep, but *now* I see that deep down it’s shallow.

Manner Adverb – An adverb (such as *quickly* or *slowly*) that describes or *shows* the way an action is carried out. In most cases, the comparative and superlative of manner adverbs are formed with *more* (or *less*) and *most* (or *least*) respectively. A manner adverb most often appears *after* a verb or at the end of a verb *e.g* Ade spoke *sharply*, and brought his head around towards me. Plantings that had been *carefully* arranged to frame natural or architectural features were *carelessly* cleared away.

Place Adverb – An adverb (such as *here* or *inside*) that describes *where* the action of a verb is carried out. Also called an *adverb of place* or a *spatial adverb*. *e.g* Television programmes produced in New York and Hollywood are seen *worldwide*.

Many adverbs—especially adverbs of manner—are formed from adjectives by the addition of the ending *-ly* (*easily*, *dependably*). But many common adverbs (*just*, *still*, *almost*, *not*) do *not* end in *-ly*, and not all words that end in *-ly* (*friendly*, *neighborly*) are adverbs.

TYPES OF ADVERB

Adverb of Emphasis – A traditional term for an intensifier (such as *certainly*, *obviously*, *undoubtedly*) used to give added force or a greater degree of certainty to another word in a sentence or to the sentence as a whole. *e.g* Deterrence, *obviously*, is one of the aims of punishment, but it is surely not the only one.

Conjunctive Verb – An adverb that indicates the relationship in meaning between two independent clauses. Unlike a conventional adverb, which usually affects the meaning of only a single word or phrase, the meaning of a conjunctive adverb (or *conjunct*) affects the entire clause of which it is a part. *e.g* They were not sleeping on board the brig. *On the contrary*, they were talking, singing, laughing.

Relative Adverb – An adverb (*where, when, or why*) that introduces a relative clause, which is sometimes called a *relative adverb clause*. e.g The reason *why worry kills more people than work* is that more people worry than work.

Speech-act Adverb – An adverb (such as *frankly, briefly, or seriously*) that identifies how a speaker intends to speak (or perform the speech act). e.g I prepared a rough draft several months ago, but, *frankly*, she hasn't been inclined to sign it.

Flat Adverb – A traditional term for an adverb—such as *high, fast, and hard*—that has the same form as its corresponding adjective. Unlike most adverbs in English, flat adverbs (also known as *plain adverbs*) do not end in *-ly*.

A few adverbs have both a plain form and an *-ly* form: *slow* and *slowly*, *loud* and *loudly*, *fair* and *fairly*. The plain form is most commonly used in informal speech and in short sentences, especially short imperative sentences: “Go *slow*”; “Play *fair*”. e.g Drive *slow* and enjoy the scenery. Drive *fast* and join the scenery.

Prepositional Adverb – An adverb that can also function as a preposition. Unlike an ordinary preposition, a prepositional adverb is not followed by an object. Prepositional adverbs (also called *adverbial particles*) are used to form **phrasal verbs**. e.g We're all tumbled *down*. He ran up a *bill*.

Triphthong

A *Triphthong* is a monosyllabic vowel combination involving a quick but smooth movement of the articulator from one vowel quality to another that passes over a third. While “pure” vowels, or monophthongs, are said to have one target articulator position, diphthongs have two, and triphthongs three.

In British Received Pronunciation, (monosyllabic triphthongs with R are optionally distinguished from sequences with disyllabic realizations)

- [aʊə] as in *hour* (compare with disyllabic “shower” [aʊ.ə])
- [aɪə] as in *fire* (compare with disyllabic “higher” [aɪ.ə])
- [ɔɪə] as in “loir” (compare with final disyllabic sequence in “employer” [ɔɪ.ə])

As [eɪ] and [əʊ] become [ɛə] and [ɔ:] respectively before /r/, all instances of [eɪ.ə] and [əʊ.ə] are words with the suffix “-er”.

Diphthongs

A diphthong is a combination of two vowel sounds, one after the other. There is movement or “glide” between the two parts of the sound. For example, to say the /eɪ/ diphthong, like in the word “cake” (/keɪk/) first say /e/, then say /ɪ/ without stopping. Your mouth will move from the /e/ shape to the /ɪ/ shape. This is the “glide”.

Diphthongs of English

/ɪə/ as in *beer*

/eɪ/ as in *same*

/ʊə/ as in *tour*

/ɔɪ/ as in *coin, boy*

/əʊ/ as in *nose*

/eə/ as in *hair*

/aɪ/ as in *fly*

/aʊ/ as in *mouse*

Comprehension

A Successful Farming Family

I shall always remember my old friend, Tanko. Tanko's father, Alhaji Ibrahim Nuhu was the District Head of Yandaka District in Katsina. Tanko was the eldest of three sons and he and his brothers all worked on Alhaji's farm.

The Alhaji had six hectares of manured farmland near the village. On this farm he grew groundnuts, cowpeas, cassava and early millet. In addition, he had a bush farm of about five hectares, about three kilometres from the village. On this farm, he grew late millet, more groundnuts, cowpeas and guinea corn. Every year, the Alhaji paid some Cattle Fulani to bring their cattle to the bush farm to manure it.

Tanko worked hard on his father's farm, and when he was about twenty-four years old, his parents helped him to marry. His new wife came and joined him on his father's compound, and Tanko continued to work hard. He helped to cultivate his father's land; he was very good with the ox plough. During the dry season he worked hard as a labourer, and also began to sell groundnuts. So when his first child was born, his parents did not have to pay all the naming ceremony expenses: he paid for some of these himself.

Tanko also found out that he could make more money by selling boiled cassava in the nearby market. After a time, he and his family moved to another house in the village. His father lent him some money to help. Tanko's wife began to trade from the new house, selling roasted groundnuts and groundnut oil, different kinds of cake and tuwo. Tanko too became a well known trader in grains, groundnuts and cowpeas. He usually bought these at harvest time and stored them for some months before selling.

On the death of Alhaji, about three years ago, Tanko and his brothers each inherited some of the Alhaji's land. But by then Tanko was rich enough to buy his own farmland.

Last year, I went to visit Tanko in his village. 'Tell me, what are the reasons why you are so successful?' I asked.

'All things are possible by the will of Allah,' and a good wife also help!'

Exercise

1. What are adjectives?
2. List and explain the different types of adjective that you know.
3. What do you understand by adverbs?
4. List the different types of adverb.
5. Based on the comprehension passage above, choose the best answers for each of the following questions

1. Alhaji Ibrahim Nuhu had----?

- a) Four sons
- b) three sons
- c) four brothers
- d) two wives
- e) three brothers

2. The Alhaji owned-----?

- a) six hectares of land
- b) eleven hectares of land
- c) fourteen hectares of land
- d) nineteen hectares of land
- e) nine hectares

3. How did Tanko manage to pay some of the naming ceremony expenses?

- a) his father paid for them
- b) his wife's family paid for them
- c) he paid with money that he earned
- d) his parents paid for him
- e) he paid with the money made by his wife

4. Later on, Tanko became a successful

- a) farmer
- b) farmer and trader
- c) food merchant
- d) trader and food merchant
- e) business man

Week 4

Vocabulary: Words Associated with Fishing; Structure: Kinds of Sentence

Words Associated with Fishing and Animal Husbandry

Here is a list of words associated with fishing-

1.Hooks, 2.Nets, 3.Fish 4.Traps, 5.Season, 6.Buoys, 7.Cables, 8.Industries, 9.Small-scale, 10.Coastlines, 11.Economy, 12.Sophisticated, 13.Mesh, 14.Refrigerator, 15.Trawler, 16.Bait, 17.Stocks, 18.Catch.

Countries with long ..1.. and good harbours are usually those that have the best developed fishing ..2., and fishing makes an important contribution to the Nigerian ..3..

There is a great deal of ..4.. fishing along Nigeria's coast, using traditional methods such as ..5., spear-fishing and hand-held fishing ..6..

However, deep water fishing requires quite ..7.. fishing boats. The commonest type of fishing boat is called a ..8.. These boats drag long nets along the sea bed to collect the fishes in their path. The net is like a huge somewhat flattened, cone-shaped bag attached to the boat by steel towing....

Many modern trawlers have a large ..9.. so that the ..10.. can be deep frozen. Another method is LINING. Several kilometres of lines with baited ..11.. are laid on the sea bed. Their position is marked by ..12.. floating on the water. The fishes are removed from the hooks and new ..13.. is put on. For drifting, shoals of fish swim into the nets and are caught in the ..14..

Nigerian Navy's main job is to protect Nigeria's territorial waters from the fishermen catching fish out of ..15... When fishing nets are too long, this can badly affect fish ..16.. for future generations.

Sentence: Kinds of Sentences (Simple, Multiple and Compound)

What is a Sentence?

A Sentence contains a group of words put together. A sentence must have a main clause or more than one main clause. There are as many clauses as there are finite verbs in a sentence. (The finite verb is the verb that changes with the person or number of the subject.). A Sentence is the largest independent unit of grammar: it begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation

point. Sentence is defined as a group of words that expresses a complete idea and that includes a subject and a verb.

To learn more about sentences:

Qualities of a Sentence

A Sentence:

- must begin with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (period), a question mark, or an exclamation mark.
- must meet the requirements for a sentence such as being able to stand by itself, and making sense. To ensure it does, the following point is important: The subject-predicate agreement must be observed:

E.g.: That small shoe. (This is a subject but there is no predicate, so it is not a complete sentence.) Complete sentence: That small shoe must fit **my brother's leg**. (= predicate in bold)

- can be made a negative sentence using -ing form of the verb, we put not in front of it.

E.g.: Not finding a place to sit, I decided to go elsewhere.

- can also be a combination of two or more clauses. One of the clauses must be an independent clause, and the other clause can either be an independent or a dependent clause. It is important to know about clauses in order to construct complete sentences.
- has two parts: a subject (noun or pronoun) and a predicate (a verb or a phrase) as explained below.
- can be one word or two words, and as long it can stand alone, its meaning is clear, and does make sense, it is accepted as a sentence.
- expresses a complete idea as a statement or asks a question.

E.g.:

One-word sentence: Wait! Come!

Two-word sentence: Over there!

One-clause sentence: I am weak.

Two-clause sentence: She washes and I sweep. (Joined by conjunction and)

The last sentence is made up of two clauses: She washes; I sweep. Each has a subject and a verb (subject: She / I; verb: washes / sweep) which most sentences must have.

E.g.: The car runs fast. / What is the model of his car?

- may be a word or short sentence used to express a strong feeling such as surprise, excitement or anger.

E.g.: You made it!

The forms of a Sentence

There are four forms of a sentence as follow:

A statement: He is in the bathroom.

A question: What do you want to eat?

A command: Don't just stand there. Do something.

An exclamation: I can't believe this!

Kinds of Sentences

Simple Sentence: A sentence is simple when it has just one noun phrase as subject and one verb phrase as predicate. A simple sentence contains one main clause and a finite verb. It can also be said in another way as consisting of a subject (NP) and a predicate (VP).

The subject is the thing or person which the sentence focuses attention on while the predicate is the remaining part of the sentence which is commented upon. It usually consists of a verb phrase, sometimes elements such as adjuncts which give additional detail about the subject.

Examples:

- John bought a new car
- Our English teacher is smart
- Okon sleeps very often
- Basse has paid her external debts
- Dapo cooks very well all the time

Examples:

Subject	Predicate
Noun Phrase	Verb Phrase

He laughed
She smiled
They ran

In this case, the verb to *laugh* is not followed by any other words. It is the kind of verb we call **Intransitive**, because it can stand on its own without an object or complement of any kind following it.

The verb to *pick* on the other hand is **transitive** because it must be followed by an object. *He picked* is not a complete sentence. The verb must be followed by an object. In the predicate, there must be

a) verb

may also contain:

b) one or more objects or complements

c) one or more adjuncts

Practice:

Example: We ate the bread hungrily

We – subject, ate – verb, the beans – object, hungrily – adjunct.

Which of these sentences is a complete one?

1. There many shops in Minna
2. The dog at my house
3. Killed the goat and cooked it
4. For example, tea, coffee and cotton.
5. They replied immediately.

Compound Sentence: This contains two or more simple sentences. A compound sentence consists of two independent clauses joined together by co-ordinators.

Like: but or yet

And nor while etc

Each part of the compound sentence is called a clause each clause is independent because it can stand on its own.

Examples:

- He bought the class but did not wear it
- Tobi travelled but came back quietly
- You may watch ice film or leave it
- She cooked jollof rice while Jane asked fried rice
- Mrs Onumah was at the inter-house sports competition and end of the year party of the school.

Tolani arrived. He greeted Teniola

We could join them together using the word **and**.

Tolani arrived and greeted Teniola.

The technical word of each half of the sentence is called **CLAUSE**. A Clause is a group of words containing one subject and one predicate which is the definition of a simple sentence.

It therefore means that a compound sentence consists of two simple, sentences joined together by a co-ordinating conjunction.

This looks like the definition of a simple sentence. A simple sentence is a clause – just one main clause but a compound sentence has two or (more main clauses) and they are linked by conjunctions like *and, but, or* e.t.c.

Practice:

How many clauses are in each sentence?

1. Niyi fell ill, but quickly recovered.
2. Taiwo arrived, opened his bag, brought out some gifts and gave some to his twin brother.
3. Tolu washed the dishes, cleaned the guest room, swept the dining room, mopped the floor and slept off on the cushion.

Which conjunction can be used to combine the clauses. Use one of the following but, and, or.

4. Craig was reading. Cathy was reading.
5. Would you like yam? Would you prefer indomie?
6. The criminal has escaped. He can't be far away.

Complex Sentence: Two or more simple sentences can also be combine to form a complex sentence but this time only one of the simple sentences becomes the main clause; the others are dependent or subordinate clauses.

A complex contains one main clause (which is very important) and at least one subordinate or dependent clause (which is less important). The clauses in a complex sentence are not of equal state one is the main clause while other is dependent.

Examples

- We will start the examinations when the invigilator arrives.

Main clause: We will start the examination

Subordinate clause: when the invigilator arrives

- Daniel went to the party although he was not invited

Main clause: Daniel went to the party

Subordinate clause: although he was not invited

- Obi rescued the goat. The snake had got very close to it.

Obi rescued the got although the snake had got very close to it.

Obi rescued the goat – Main clause in the complex sentence, ‘The snake had got very close to it’ is less important so it becomes the subordinate or dependent clause. It is linked to the main clause by the word although.

There are different types of subordinate clauses. The three main types are Adjectival or Relative clause, Noun clause and Adverbial clause.

Spoken English: Selected Consonant Sounds /ʃ/ and /tʃ/

These two sounds are both unvoiced but they are often confused. They occur in such words like:

/ʃ/

washing
machine
special
station

/tʃ/

church
chalk
watch
fetch

Both sounds are pronounced with the front of the tongue pressing against the alveolar ridge (the area behind your upper teeth).

The /tʃ/ sound can be spelt in three ways

ch – chicken, search

tch – watch, kitchen

tu – nature, mixture

Pronounce these words and you will notice the difference.

/ʃ/

sheet
share
wash
shoes

/tʃ/

cheat
chair
watch
choose

Identify the sounds in the following words

shake, chip, ship, chef, wish, rich, creche, teach, fish, wretch.

Tongue Twister

Try this tongue twister

Sheila sells sea shells by the sea shore

The shells she sells are surely seashells

So if Sheila sells on the seashore,

I'm sure she sells seashore shells.

Exercise

1. List about one hundred words that are related to fishing and animal husbandry.

2. Explain (with examples) the different kinds of sentence that you know.
3. What are the qualities of a sentence?

Week 5

Words Associated with Agriculture; Countable and Uncountable Nouns; Diphthong

Vocabulary Development: Words Associated with Agriculture

- A)** Acres, Advances, Affect, Agrarian, Agriculture, Ailment, Animals, Arable, Arid, Attitude
- B)** Barn, Bison, Brawn, Breed, Bureau, Business
- C)** Capital, Cattle, Chemicals, chickens, Chores, Climate, Collective, Commercial, coter, Compounds, Conditions, Conservation, Consume, Consumers, Cooperative, Cotton, Cows, Crocodiles, Crops, Cultivation, Culture
- D)** Dairy, Degree, Demands, Dependence, Development, Disease, Disk, Diversity, Domestication, Drainage, Drought, Ducks, edible
- E)** Effort, Emus, Environment, Equipment, Erosion, Experiment, Extensive
- F)** Farm, Farmers, Feed, Fertile, Fertilize, Fiber, Food, Forage, Fruit trees, Fungicide, Fungus, Fur, Furrow
- G)** Gather, Geese, Genetic modification, Goal, Grange, Graze, Ground, Grower
- H)** Hard, Harmful, Harness, Harvest, Hectare, Help, Heritage, Holdings, Homestead, Horses, Husbandry, Hybrid
- I)** Ideal, Impoverished, Improvement, Industry, Insects, Intensive, Irrigation
- J)** Jaded, Joyous
- K)** Kibbutz, Knowledge
- L)** Labor, Laborer, Land, Lease, Livestock, Llamas, loan, Location
- M)** Machinery, Manage, Manure, Market price, Materials, Migrants, Milk, Mink, Moisture, Money, Mulch
- N)** Nature, Nitrogen, No-till, Nutrient
- O)** Orchards, Organic, Organization, Ostriches, Output, Oxen
- P)** Pastoral, Pesticide, Pests, pineapples, Plantation, Planter, Planting, Plow, Poultry, Produce, Productive, Products, Provisions
- Q)** Quality, Quantity, Quest, Questions, rain
- R)** Raise, Ranch, Rancher, Reap, Reform, Region, Regional, Resistant, Rotation
- S)** Sales, Seedlings, Serf, Sharecropper, Sharing, Sheep, Skin, Slash-and-burn, Soil,

Sowing, Specialize, Spurt, Squatter, Sterilize, Strength, Stretch, Subsistence, Sugar cane, Sunshine, Supply, Surplus

T) Techniques, Tenant farmer, Terrain, Territory, Theory, Till, Time, Toil, Tract, Tractor, Truck farming, Turkeys

U) Undependable, Uprooting

V) Variety

W) Water, Weather, Whim, Willingness, Wool, Worker

X)

Y) Yeoman, Young, Youth

Z) Zeal

Countable and Uncountable Nouns

In your junior secondary school course, you have learned that there are two types of common noun – countable and uncountable. E.g. table, dog, house are countable nouns while electricity, water, sugar are uncountable nouns. Countable and uncountable nouns behave in different ways.

COUNTABLE NOUNS

They have two forms, singular and plural (student – students, girl – girls)

They can be preceded by a word of some kind. E.g. because the word horse is countable you cannot start a sentence with Horse, you have to start with A/AN/THE Horse

They can be preceded by a or an (a student, an aunt)

Types of uncountable nouns

Diseases/illnesses: malaria, typhoid, AIDS

Sports: football, basketball, badminton

Moral qualities: patience, greed, envy

Subjects of study: history, biology, law

Other abstractions: education, citizenship

Spoken English: Diphthongs

UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

They are used only in singular form. E.g. The milk is warm. The luggage is lost. (Milks or Luggages is wrong)

They are often not preceded by any word. E.g. patience is virtue. Uncountable nouns are preceded by The when a specific instance of the noun is referred to. E.g. The patience you have shown is commendable

They are often not preceded by any a or an. (Thus a bread or an information is wrong)

A diphthong is a combination of two vowel sounds, one after the other. There is movement or “glide” between the two parts of the sound. For example, to say the /eɪ/ diphthong, like in the word “cake” (/keɪk/) first say /e/, then say /ɪ/ without stopping. Your mouth will move from the /e/ shape to the /ɪ/ shape. This is the “glide”.

Diphthongs of English

/ɪə/ as in *beer*

/eɪ/ as in *same*

/ʊə/ as in *tour*

/ɔɪ/ as in *coin, boy*

/əʊ/ as in *nose*

/eə/ as in *hair*

/aɪ/ as in *fly*

/aʊ/ as in *mouse*

Exercise

1. Write a long list of words associated with agriculture and form sentences with each of them.
2. Differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns.
3. What is a diphthong?

Week 6

Topic: Structure – Phrases

Structure – Phrases

A phrase is a group of words that stand together as a single unit, typically as part of a clause or a sentence.

A phrase does not contain a subject and verb and, consequently, cannot convey a complete thought. A phrase contrasts with a clause. A clause does contain a subject and verb, and it can convey a complete idea.

Principal Types of Phrases

1. Adjective Phrase: A word group with an adjective as its head. This adjective may be accompanied by modifiers, determiners, and/or qualifiers. Adjective phrases modify nouns. They may be attributive (appearing before the noun) or predicative (appearing after a linking verb), but not all adjectives can be used in both positions.

Examples

Hanifah opened a sweet young coconut.

Humans can be fairly ridiculous animals.

Femmi thinks the Gala tastes awfully funny.

2. Adverbial Phrase: A word group with an adverb as its head. This adverb may be accompanied by modifiers or qualifiers. An adverb phrase can modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, and it can appear in a number of different positions in a sentence.

Examples

The Cheshire Cat vanished *quite slowly*, beginning with the end of its tail.

The players responded *surprisingly well* to all the pressures of the playoffs.

3. Noun Phrase: A word group with a noun or pronoun as its head. The simplest noun phrase consists of a single noun. The noun head can be accompanied by modifiers, determiners (such as *the, a, her*), and/or complements. A noun phrase (often abbreviated as *NP*) most commonly functions as a subject, object, or complement.

Examples

1. Panting, *Harry* fell forwards over *the hydrangea bush*, straightened up and stared around.
2. I would hold *my laugh*, bite *my tongue*, grit *my teeth*, and very seriously erase even *the touch of a smile* from *my face*.

Functions of a Noun Phrase

A Noun phrase can function in a sentence in various ways

a. As the subject of the sentence

The chief arrived late. The subject is to answer the question 'Who/What did something?'

b. As the object of a verb

Tolu bought a new pair of trousers. The object answers the question 'Who/What was affected by the action?'

c. As the complement of a linking verb (A verb that links the subject to something that describes the subject)

Segun is an engineer. The complement answers the question 'What is the subject described as?'

d. As the object or complement of the preposition.

She sent to the market.

Practice: Give the functions of the following Noun Phrases

- i. Some goats were eating my yams
- ii. Farming is a tiring occupation
- iii. That pharmacist does not deal in fake medicines
- iv. Jonathan is the next Nigerian President
- v. Everybody experiences misfortune at some point or other
- vi. The retired general became a commercial cyclist
- vii. She scattered the seeds in the long deep furrows

For more on Phrases, visit:

4. Participial Phrase: A word group consisting of a present participle (also known as an *-ing* form) or past participle (also known as an *-en* form), plus any modifiers, objects, and complements. A participial phrase commonly functions as an adjective.

Examples

1. *Driven by a steam engine*, the first dishwasher was invented by an Indiana housewife in 1889.

2. The great fish moved silently through the night water, *propelled by short sweeps of its crescent tail*

5. Verb Phrase: A word group that includes a main verb and its auxiliaries. Verb Phrases can be identified by . . . substitution procedures. Consider the sentence: Nimat *cried*, where *cried* constitutes the VP. Among many others, the following strings can substitute for *cried* in the slot Nimat _____. They thus fit the frame and are VPs (the verb in each VP is italicized):

Nimat *fell*.

Nimat *lost* the race

Other types of phrases are: gerund phrase, absolute phrase, infinitive phrase, prepositional phrase.

Descriptive Essay

The **Descriptive essay** is a genre of essay that asks the student to describe something—object, person, place, experience, emotion, situation, etc. This genre encourages the student's ability to create a written account of a particular experience. Descriptive essay helps you illustrate something in a way that your reader can see, feel, or hear whatever it is you're talking about. A **descriptive essay** allows a reader to understand the essay's subject using illustrative language.

When we write a story, our main concern is to describe a sequence of events in a way our readers can understand. Usually these events happen one after another and the order in which things happen is clearly seen.

When we write a description, we are concerned about how to convey information about something so that the reader can form a clear picture in his or her mind. In describing a farm, we will be able to signal clearly what we are describing by using phrases like *the main buildings, in the new building, on the bush farm, near the grape vine, in the grain stores, beside the yam barn* and so on.

These phrases help the reader to identify the places being described. We call these words 'Signal Words' or 'Signpost words' because they help the reader to identify the part being described.

Sometimes we want to describe a process. In describing how to mend a bicycle tube for example, one action automatically leads to the next. The tube has to be taken out, the puncture must be located e.t.c In this case, we will want the reader to be able to identify

clearly the order or sequence of events for mending the bicycle tube and we will use sign post such as firstly, secondly, thirdly and finally.

Practice: Write a clear description using sign post words.

How to make any dish of your choice.

Exercise

1. What is a phrase?
2. Mention and discuss the principal types of phrases.
3. Briefly discuss the main functions of a noun phrase.
4. What do you understand by a descriptive essay?
5. Write a one thousand worded essay describing your neighbourhood.

Week 7

Topic: Types and Functions of Clauses; Syllabic consonants: /l/ and /n/

Introduction to Clauses

A *clause* is a group of related words containing a subject and a verb or a subject and a predicate. A clause may be either a sentence (an independent clause) or a sentence-like construction within another sentence (a dependent or subordinate clause). A *clause* can be usefully distinguished from a phrase, which is a group of related words that does not contain a subject-verb relationship, such as “in the morning” or “running down the street” or “having grown used to this harassment.

1. Main Clause

The **main clause** is a group of words that include a subject and a finite verb. It is not a part of another clause, or dependent on another clause to form a sentence. It can stand independently as it makes a complete statement. A sentence must have a main clause. Each of the following is a group of words that does not qualify as a main clause as they are incomplete statements and so cannot stand on their own.

- That you are my closest friend.
- When all of us sat beneath the giant olive tree.

The following are complete statements and are therefore main clauses.

- You are my closest friend.
- All of us sat beneath a giant olive tree.

2. Subordinate Clause

A **subordinate clause** is a group of words, which include a finite or non-finite verb. The subordinate clause cannot stand independently as it is not complete as a statement, and thus remains a dependent clause. It has to join the main or independent clause to complete a sentence.

Each of the following shows a subordinate clause (in a different colour) that is a part of another clause, which is the main clause. Both clauses together form a complete sentence. A subordinate clause can be found at the beginning or end of a sentence.

- Everyone says **that you are my closest friend**.
- **When the rain started**, all of us sat beneath the giant olive tree.

The different forms of a Subordinate clause:

1. Adverbial Clause
2. Noun Clause
3. Relative Clause
4. Non-finite Clause

Adverbial Clause: The **Adverbial clause** contains a subject and a verb. It tells extra information such as the time, place, manner, etc about a sentence, and modifies the verb. As a dependent clause, it cannot stand on its own and must connect to the main clause or an independent clause to form a complete sentence. The adverbial clause may come before or after the main clause. When it comes before the main clause, a comma is used to separate the two clauses. When it comes after the main clause, no comma is necessary. The adverbial clause usually begins with a conjunction.

Examples of the adverbial clause

- He shook my hand **before he fainted**.
- He alone ate the big chicken **yet he said he was not satisfied**.
- Tolu now sleeps on the floor **because she wets the bed everyday**.

The adverbial clause performs different functions. For example, it shows the time, place, etc that something happens.

Clauses of Reason – These clauses show why something happens.

Conjunctions used include **as, because, now that, since**

- **As we are both tired**, we agreed to stop chasing after the ball.
- She got beaten **because she stole her friend's biscuit**.

Clauses of Time – These clauses show when something happens.

Conjunctions used include **after, as, as long as, as soon as, before, since, so long as, until, when, whenever, while**

- Study the painting carefully **before you draw**.
- **When she heard the news**, she fainted.

Clauses of Purpose – These clauses show the purpose of doing something.

Conjunctions used include **so that, in order that/to**

- I hold my gift up **so that everyone can see it**.
- He added more sugar **in order to make the tea taste good**, but the tea became sugary.

Clauses of Place – These clauses show where something is or happens.

Conjunctions used include **anywhere, everywhere, where, wherever**.

- **Wherever i go**, She goes.
- This is the farm **where he stole the Oranges**.

Clauses of Manner– These clauses show the way something is done.

Conjunctions used include **as, like**

- **As I have said severally**, always close the door when you step in.
- He treats his friend **like they are brothers**.

Clauses of Condition– These clauses show a possible situation.

Conjunctions used include **even if, if, in the event that, in case, only if, unless**

- **If he wasn't such a nuisance**, he would still be working with me.
- I'm going to take away your belongings **unless you pay me what you owe**.

The adverbial clause usually comes at the end of the sentence. It can also come at the beginning.

- The little girl cut her father's finger nails **while he was asleep**.
While her father was asleep, the little girl cut his finger nails.

For more notes on Clauses, visit:

ii. Noun Clause: A noun clause is a group of words that include a subject and a verb, and it functions as a noun. A noun clause is a subordinate clause, which means it is not a

complete statement. As a dependent clause, it must connect to an independent clause (main clause). Noun clauses usually begin with words such as **how, that, what, whatever, when, where, which, who, whoever, and why.**

Examples of noun clauses.

- **Why he said he would not eat the food,** nobody knows.
- He told me **that he had stolen a Mango.**
- Ask him **whether he took some of my sweets or yours.**

Noun clauses can be the subject, object, object of preposition, complement, etc. The noun clauses in the following examples are in bold.

- **That the sisters are quadruplets** is amazing. (Subject)
- We don't understand **what language she is speaking.** (Object)
- The book is about **how snakes give birth.** (Object of preposition)
- He is **what we would call an atheist.** (Complement)

A noun clause has its own subject and verb.

- They know **where I often buy my toys.**
The noun clause is **where I often buy my toys** with **I** being the **subject** of the noun clause, and **buy** is the **verb**.

iii. Relative Clause: A relative clause is never a complete statement as it is a dependent clause. It tells us something extra about the noun that it describes. The position of the noun is immediately before the relative clause. The relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun, which is one of the following: **that, which, who, whom, whose.**

Example: My old aunt is a spinster.

Let us have additional information about my old aunt.

- My old aunt is a spinster. She showed me a photo of her new boyfriend.

We can now use a relative clause to combine the two sentences.

- My old aunt **who showed me a photo of her new boyfriend** is a spinster.

As the relative pronoun always replaces a noun or pronoun, we have used the relative pronoun **who** to replace the pronoun **she** in the last sentence above.

- **Not:** My old aunt **who showed me a photo of her new boyfriend** she is a spinster.

As mentioned above, the noun **aunt** is positioned immediately before the relative clause **who showed me a photo of her new boyfriend** which is introduced by the relative pronoun **who**. **Aunt** is a person so we use **who**. We use the pronouns **who** and **that** for people.

- There is my old spinster aunt **who/that showed me a photo of her new boyfriend**.

We do not use **that** for a name or a **nonrestrictive (non-defining) clause**. A restrictive clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence while a nonrestrictive clause is not. We can remove a nonrestrictive clause from a sentence without affecting its meaning.

Prepositions used in relative clauses

Prepositions appear either at the beginning or at the end of relative clauses.

- This is the car, **for which he paid 10 million dollars**.
This is the car, **which he paid 10 million dollars for**.
- In that house lived my uncle **with whom I stayed for a year**.
In that house lived my uncle **whom I stayed with for a year**

When the preposition is at the end of a relative clause, we can replace **which** and **whom** with **that**.

- This is the car **that he paid 10 million dollars for**.
- In that house lived my uncle **that I stayed with for a year**.

So far, we have been talking about a relative clause describing a noun. We can also use a relative clause to describe the whole main clause.

- Look at the two old men fighting, **which is very childish**.

iv. Non-finite Clause: There are three types of non-finite clauses.

a) To-infinitive clause

In this clause, the verb comes after the word **to**.

- He gave up his job **to tour the world**.

b) -ing clause

In this clause, we use the **verb + -ing**.

- You are the only one capable of **finding a solution to this problem**.
- **Before becoming a painter**, he was a police officer.

c) Past participle clause

In this clause, we use the past participle form of the verb.

- **Taught acrobatics since young**, she has amazed audiences with her superb skills.
- He would like to be a banker **when asked what he would like to be when he grew up**.

LESSON 2

Syllabic Consonants: /l/ and /n/

Syllabic /l/

How many syllables has the word *table*?

The answer is two. Phonetically, the word is written /teɪbl/: the first syllable is /teɪb/ and the second is /l/. This /l/ sound is called a syllabic consonant because it is one syllable by itself. No vowel is supposed to come between the /b/ of table and /l/, and you must not put one in.

Practice saying the words below. As you do so, make sure that:

1. there is no /u/ (or any other vowel sound) between the /l/ and the consonant preceding it.
2. you stress the first syllable only in all cases. (Syllabic consonants are never stressed.)

trouble, Bible, noble, cattle, little, settle, ladle, cradle, giggle

The spelling of syllabic /l/ may be *l*, *-el*, *-al* or *le*.

Here are some words to practice:

label, funnel, local, final, pencil, evil.

The Syllabic /n/

The /n/ sound can also be a syllabic consonant. The spelling is usually -en, -an or -on. Repeat the words below. Once again:

1. sound the final /n/
2. avoid putting in a vowel before the /n/
3. stress the first syllable only:

open, frozen, sharpen, lengthen, organ, reason, nation, confusion, curtain

C. Writing Skill: Summary

When we are studying a text, perhaps with a view to writing notes or summary, the main point or idea in a paragraph is conveyed through the “topic sentence”. This is the sentence which states the main idea or topic of a paragraph.

All other sentences in the paragraph develop the idea or theme stated by the topic sentence. An important summary skill is the ability to identify topic sentences of paragraphs as a way of identifying the main points or ideas of individual paragraphs. You may never be asked to summarize a whole passage.

Read this passage carefully and summarize

REARING YOUR OWN RABBITS

Rabbits have many advantages, and could have an important role in Nigeria’s agricultural programme.

More efficient

In this first place, Rabbits can convert grass and other vegetable matter into meat more efficiently than any other livestock. For instance, a Rabbit needs about 7kilos of food to put on one kilo while a cattle needs about 30 kilos of food to put on one kilo.

Thus from one hectare of lush tropical vegetation, at least five times as much meat can be produced when the forage is fed to rabbits than to cattle.

Low Fat

Rabbit meat is highly nutritious. It consists of high protein, low fat and low cholesterol and thus is well suited for human diet. This meat contains less fat than that of chicken, beef or pork.

Labour Intensive

In addition, Rabbits require the attention of the farmer and a lot of time. They have to be fed and watered and their hutches need to be kept clean and unlike cattle they can not be driven to the bush or market.

For these reasons, commercial rabbit farming is still in its infancy in Nigeria. Even though it is clear that rabbits show great potential. They can efficiently convert low quality feeds into high quality meat and the rate of reproduction and growth are attractive.

In the second paragraph of the section of the passage headed ‘More efficient’, the central idea is the ability of the rabbit to multiply quickly.

Exercise

1. What is a clause?
2. Differentiate between a main clause and a subordinate clause.
3. Write short notes on the different types of clause that you know.
4. What are syllabic consonants? Give examples.
5. Having read the comprehension passage above, try now to summarize it.

Week 8

Topic: Introduction to Answering Comprehension Questions and Nominalization of Adjectives

Introduction to Answering Comprehension Questions

Comprehension reading requires that the reader understands a certain part of a passage or a paragraph. The main purpose of comprehension is to understand the meaning implied by any given passage and be able to answer the questions based on such passage; albeit accordingly. Comprehension reading is mainly used in schools and colleges where it is used to test the reading and understanding capability of the students. For students preparing to write their O-Levels and JAMB, comprehensions are inevitable. Students are therefore expected to read through the passages, understand the essay and try to answer questions based on the given paragraph or article. Below are some tips on how to effectively read, comprehend and answer questions based on comprehension passages.

How to Answer Comprehension Questions

1. Try to understand the reading passage:

- This is one of the most common reasons that many students complain about. Keep in mind that it is not expected of every student to understand all the lines and words of the given paragraph. No one is expecting you to study all the lines and paragraphs and understand each and every sentence.
- Try to understand the summary of the paragraph given and try to understand what meaning it is implying to. Though, it may seem contradictory but when simply put, just try to eliminate all the common words, sentences and phrases and understand the true meaning of the given paragraph. Try to keep focus and attention on the keywords and the turning points of the paragraph. This helps you to understand the questions even better and makes it easier for you to answer.

2. Utilise your strengths:

- One of the most important things that a student should do is to exploit their strengths while answering a comprehension question. This helps them to save time and answer questions more effectively.

- One of the many methods that most students use is to first read the passage completely. This allows them to get an idea what the passage is about and they can be familiarised with the meaning of the passage given. But this method is not comfortable for some students, as they get confused about which keywords they should focus on and there is a chance that they might even forget the important keywords and end up reading the whole passage again.
- Another method that one can use to save time is using the “down to top” method. Here, students can first read through the questions given and then read the paragraph so that this can allow them to get the necessary answers required for the given questions.
- This saves a lot of time, since the students are familiarised with questions first instead of diving into the passage itself. This also gives the students the fair advantage since they can know how to answer the questions. Try to select any one of these methods that suits your taste and requirements.

3. Managing the time given:

- Time is also an important factor while answering comprehension questions. One of the most said complaints by students is that they didn't get enough time to answer that they knew of.
- The main reason for this problem is because most of the students spend a lot of time reading through the passage questions, that they forget to allocate time for all the other sections of the exam paper.
- Keep in mind that competitive examinations not only test your knowledge but they also test your ability to manage time and they test your reading and writing skills when subjected to a time strict limit.
- To avoid panicking and struggling to answer the questions at the last minute, one of the best methods that a student can follow is to allocate a certain amount of time for each section of the exam.
- This can be done by dividing the total exam time given, depending on the difficulty level of each section provided in the exam.
- Also, to help you manage time even more, try to answer as many practice papers as you can. This also gives an idea on your performance and gives you an insight on how well you perform under pressure during an exam.

4. Practice more:

- To perform better at comprehension questions, one of the best methods that students can use is to practice a lot of mock questions and attempt to answer as many practice papers as possible.

- One of the main reasons why many students fail to perform better at answering comprehensive questions is that, a majority of them are reluctant to do practice papers at home. There might be many underlying factors such as the tough vocabulary and many students find themselves struggling to understand the meaning of the passage given.
- Through proper practice and hard work try to overcome your fears and turn them into your strengths. This will help you to face questions more confidently and effectively.

5. Upgrade your vocabulary:

- Having poor vocabulary can be very disadvantageous for you, especially when attending competitive exams, which are heavy based upon time management.
- If you do not have a good vocabulary or you do not have the sufficient knowledge about the words, then it might be hard for you while attempting a comprehensive question.
- The main reason being that, if you are not able to recognise and understand the word, then it might become difficult for you to understand the meaning of the passage given, and it can also interrupt your train of thought during the exam. Many students feel flustered and distracted due to this.
- Having a good vocabulary means that it becomes more easier for the student to understand the questions and it enables them to understand the meaning that the given passage is trying to imply.
- There are many ways in which one could improve and upgrade their vocabulary.

i. Try reading English newspapers daily and take notice of the various vocabulary and words that they use. This gives a basic idea about the meanings of the different words used by understanding the concept.

ii. Try to use flashcards or take help from various vocabulary books present in the market. Also, try to learn a given amount of words every day. This will increase your vocabulary and also encourages you to explore more new words.

iii. Always write down new words and terms that you come across during your daily life. This might be from, reading a book or while watching a film, listening to music and so on. Then try to revise and go through the words learned periodically for effective results.

6. Understand the level of the questions:

- While attending comprehensive questions, keep in mind that the level of comprehensive questions can vary a lot.

- Comprehensive questions used at school level vary between easy and intermediate level, while questions used for competitive exams such as GRE uses high level comprehensive questions and they have a high difficulty rate.
- We cannot compromise with the difficulty level of the question, but we compromise our understanding capability. So, to tackle such questions, there are various methods that we can follow. These include:

i. Improving one's vocabulary and understanding of words and terms

ii. Practice more and more comprehensive questions

iii. Try to read from a wide range of articles varying in fields such as arts, science, politics, general knowledge, sports and so on.

7. Try to have a good reading speed:

- One way to beat the clock while attending competitive exams, especially while attempting comprehensive questions, is to speedup reading thoroughly and effectively.
- For effective speed reading, try to understand all the important keywords and then focus on them while trying to understand the meaning of the given passage.
- This will give you an idea on what the passage is about and will also help you to provide satisfactory answers to the questions asked about the passage provided.
- While searching for keywords try to use a pen and mark the words that you find are important and are an essential part of the passage given.

8. Try not to rely on outside knowledge:

- While attending a reading comprehension try not to make answers and assumptions that are not included within the passage topic. If you fail to do so, you can easily lose marks during competitive exams.
- Just rely on whatever information is given in the passage and attempt questions by giving answers that are mentioned in the passage only.
- Don't jump into conclusions while answering questions, this gives off an impression that you have poorly understood the meaning of the passage.
- Try not to include your own version of answers; this can be marked wrong by the invigilator, thus leading to loss in marks. Try to stick with the information that is mentioned only in the passage itself and not on your knowledge and facts.

9. Try not to be flustered:

- Another factor that you should keep in mind while attending a comprehensive question is to have a relaxed state of mind and take your time in understanding the meaning of the passage given.
- When you come across an uncertain word or when you see a complex word, try not to get flustered and tensed just because you do not know its meaning.
- The best method in which you can control being tensed is to be well prepared with questions in accordance with the difficulty level of the questions being asked.
- Whenever you feel uncomfortable and tensed, try to close your eyes for a few minutes and concentrate on what you are doing. Try to keep your mind calm and silent for a while.
- This will help you to focus more on your task and hence provide you with the necessary encouragement and support needed to answer the questions.
- Practicing a lot of questions under a fixed time limit will also help you to perform better while answering comprehensive questions.

Structure: Nominalization of Adjectives and Verbs

Nominalisation is the use of a word which is not a noun (e.g. a verb, an adjective or an adverb) as a noun, or as the head of a noun phrase, with or without morphological transformation. The term can also refer specifically to the process of producing a noun from another part of speech via the addition of derivational affixes (e.g., *legalize* versus *legalization*). Some languages simply allow verbs to be used as nouns, while others require some form of morphological transformation. English has cases of both.

Two types of nominalisation are found in English. One type requires the addition of a derivational suffix to create a noun. In other cases, English uses the same word as a noun without any additional morphology. This second process is referred to as zero-derivation.

Examples of nouns formed from adjectives:

- applicability (from applicable)
- carelessness (from careless)
- difficulty (from difficult)
- intensity (from intense)

Examples of nouns formed from verbs:

- failure (from fail)
- nominalization (from nominalize)

- investigation (from investigate)
- movement (from move)
- reaction (from react)
- refusal (from refuse)

An especially common case of verbs being used as nouns is the addition of the suffix *-ing*, known in English as a gerund.

- swimming (from swim)
- running (from run)
- editing (from edit)

It is useful to expand your vocabulary and one way to do this is to know how to use suffixes to form new words. A suffix is something we add to the end of a word to change its meaning or grammatical status. The use of these suffixes to change the meaning of words is called Nominalization. Many nouns are derived from other words and these words may be adjectives or verbs.

E.g.

we can add the word *-hood* to some nouns to form an abstract noun: man – manhood, child – childhood.

In some other cases we can add *-ship* to form an abstract noun: leader – leadership, scholar – scholarship

More commonly nouns can be formed from adjectives. The commonest way is by adding *-ness*: good – goodness, kind – kindness

In linguistics, **nominalization** is the use of a word which is not a noun (e.g. a verb, an adjective or an adverb) as a noun, or as the head of a noun phrase, with or without morphological transformation. The term can also refer specifically to the process of producing a noun from another part of speech via the addition of derivational affixes (e.g., *legalize* versus *legalization*)

A “nominalized” sentence is one in which abstract nouns perform most of the work. Abstract nouns are things you can’t touch or easily visualize (such as “analysis” or “solution”). These vague nouns contain within them a hidden verb (“analyze” or “solve”); the process of turning a word from a verb into a noun is called “nominalization.”

Two types of nominalization are found in English. One type requires the addition of a derivational suffix to create a noun. In other cases, English uses the same word as a noun without any additional morphology. This second process is referred to as zero-derivation.

Derivational Nominalization

This is a process by which a grammatical expression is turned into a noun phrase. For example, in the sentence “Combine the two chemicals,” *combine* acts as a verb. This can be turned into a noun via the addition of *-ation*, as in “The experiment involved the *combination* of the two chemicals.”

Examples of nouns formed from adjectives:

- scarcity (from scarce)
- carelessness (from careless)
- kindness (from kind)
- intensity (from intense)

Examples of nouns formed from verbs:

- creation (from create)
- nominalization (from nominalize)
- investigation (from investigate)
- movement (from move)
- reaction (from react)
- approval (from approve)

An especially common case of verbs being used as nouns is the addition of the suffix *-ing*, known in English as a gerund.

- giving (from give)
- running (from run)
- editing (from edit)

Zero-derivation

Some verbs and adjectives in English can be used directly as nouns without the addition of a derivational suffix. Some examples include:

change

- *I need a change.* (*change* = noun)
- *I will change.* (*change* = verb)

murder

- *The murder of the man was tragic. (murder= noun)*
- *He will murder the man. (murder= verb)*

Forming Nouns from Adjectives

Suffix	Examples	Examples of use in sentences
-ness	Adj: Kind Noun: Kindness	My aunt is always kind. My aunt shows great kindness to my friends
-dom	Adj: Free Noun: Freedom	The slave was set free The slave has regained his freedom
-ity/-ty	Adj: Scarce Noun: Scarcity	Petrol has become very scarce There is scarcity of Petrol everywhere
-ce	Adj: Violent Noun: Violence	In war, soldiers must be prepared to be violent I dislike any kind of violence

Forming Nouns from Verbs

Suffix	Examples	Examples of use
-er	Verb: Play Noun: Player	I can play football I am a great player
-ant	Verb: Serve Noun: Servant	He served his master well I am not your servant
-(t)ion	Verb: Corrupt Noun: Corruption	Our nation is very corrupt Corruption is very widespread
-(e)ry	Verb: Rob Noun: Robbery	He robbed me of my money The robbery was done at midnight
-ment	Verb: Settle Noun: Settlement	Settle your disputes amicably The settlement was generally acceptable
-ance/-ence	Verb: Disturb Noun: Disturbance	You disturbed me last night He was arrested for disturbance of peace
-age	Verb: Cover Noun: Coverage	She always covers many topics Her coverage of that topic was poor

Irregular Forms

angry – anger: He was never angry – He never showed anger

proud – pride: Bola is too proud – Bola is full of pride

wide – width: It is four metres wide – It is four metres in width

long – length: It is two feet long – It is two feet in length

Exercise

1. What is the main purpose for reading comprehension passages?
2. List and discuss some of the best ways to answer comprehension questions.
3. Briefly discuss what you understand by nominalisation.

Week 9

Topic: Irregular Verbs

What Are Irregular Verbs?

Irregular verbs are **verbs** that don't take on the regular -d, -ed, or -ied spelling patterns of the past simple (V2) or past participle (V3). Many of the irregular V2 and V3 forms are the same, such as: cut – cut, had – had, let – let, hurt – hurt, fed- fed, sold-sold. Irregular verbs are also often described as strong verbs. Here are nine that are used more often than the rest. These nine irregular verb examples also happen to be among the most commonly used words in the English language. They are:

- Go
- Get
- Say
- See
- Think
- Make
- Take
- Come
- Know

Some of these examples show how irregular verbs are used in sentences. Some sentences contain more than one example.

1. ***Go get** your brother. It's time to **eat** dinner.*→ In this example, all three irregular verbs (go, get, and eat) are in base form.
2. *I want to **build** a sand castle like the one we **built** last year.*→ In this example, the irregular verb build is in base form. The irregular verb built is the past simple form of “build”. When you look at the complete list of examples, you'll notice that built is also the past participle of the irregular verb “build”.

3. *He **bet** me that I couldn't run five miles without stopping. I proved him wrong; I **ran** seven miles before I **had to catch** my breath.*→ In this example, bet is a past simple form. When you look at the complete list, you will see that all three forms of “bet” are the same. Next, in the same sentence, the irregular verb run is in base form. In the next sentence, ran is the past simple form of “run” and had is the past simple form of “have.” Meanwhile, catch is base form.
4. *I **awoke** to find that a spider had **bitten** me. Although the wound didn't **bleed**, it itched terribly.*→ In this example, the irregular verb awoke is the past simple form of “awake.” Bitten is past participle form of “bite” and bleed is base form.
5. *Let's **drink** some of this lemonade. I **drank** some yesterday and **found** it delicious.*→ In this example, the irregular verb drink is in base form. Drank is the past simple form of “drink,” and found is the past simple form of “find.”

For more examples, read our complete list of irregular verbs in the English language.

Exercises

1. What are irregular verbs?
2. Fill the blank spaces with the appropriate irregular verb.
 1. My dog jumped out of the swimming pool and _____ himself, causing water to spray everywhere. (shake, shook, shaken)
 2. You should have _____ Trish's face when she got her surprise. (saw, had seen, seen)
 3. We _____ the whole day lounging on the beach. (spend, spent, had spend)
 4. Let's _____ a hike on Saturday. (take, took, taken)
 5. My brother Mike _____ his stinky socks on the coffee table. (leave, left, leaving)
 6. This is the ninth time that pitcher has _____ a foul ball (throw, threw, thrown)
 7. The water balloon _____ when it hit its target. (burst, busted, broken)
 8. Jesse intentionally _____ gum in Jeff's hair. (stick, stuck, sticky)

Answers:

1 – shook, 2 – seen, 3 – spent, 4 – take, 5 – left, 6 – thrown, 7- burst, 8 – stuck

Week 10

Topic: Vocabulary Associated with Library and Figures of Speech

Vocabulary Associated with Library

Barcode Number: The 14-digit number appearing beneath the barcode found in the beginning or end papers of a book. Barcode numbers for Cornell library books begin with the numbers “3 1924” and are used to charge, discharge, and renew books.

Bibliography: A bibliography is a list of citations for books, periodical articles, articles in books, theses, and other materials. Published bibliographies on specific subjects are often found at the end of articles and entries in reference books. The presence of a bibliography is one of the signs of a work of scholarship as opposed to a popular work, for example.

Citation: Information which fully identifies a publication: a complete citation usually includes author, title, name of journal (if the citation is to an article) or publisher and place of publication (if to a book), and date. Often pages, volume numbers, and other information will be included in a citation.

Reference Assistant: Reference assistants are not professional librarians, but they have been trained to help you with many of your research needs. Some reference departments hire reference assistants to help answer reference questions and provide general information about the library.

Periodical Indexes and Abstracts: Periodical indexes are searchable databases or print serials of articles which have appeared in journals, magazines, or newspapers. They cite the author, title, name of periodical, volume, pages and date of publication. They often include abstracts—brief summaries of the content of the article.

Reference: A special department within a library where you can find librarians, reference assistants, and a collection of reference materials to help you with your research needs.

Reference Collection: A selection of networked, CD-ROM, and printed library materials used by reference librarians and reference assistants to help people find

information or to do research. Reference collections contain many sources of information, such as encyclopedias, dictionaries, almanacs, directories, or statistical compilations. They may also have bibliographies, indexes, and abstracts. Printed reference materials usually do not leave the library.

Reference Librarian: Reference librarians are specialists in the field of information retrieval. Generally they have a Masters degree in library science, and many have other graduate degrees as well. They are available at reference desks to help you find the information you are looking for

Bear Access: Computer software developed at Cornell that provides access to a large number of databases and services available on the campus computer network. Freestanding Bear Access software has migrated to the uPortal interface.

Call Numbers
Each item in a library collection is classified in a subject area by assigning it a call number. These call numbers are placed on the spine of the book or bound journal. These books or bound journals are shelved by these call numbers in the stacks.

Cross Reference: A term used in catalogs, thesauruses, reference books, and indexes to lead you from one form of entry to another (e.g., American poets *see* Poets–American).

Internet: A worldwide network of computers that can be accessed via the campus computer network. The Internet allows local computer users to find and use databases on computers of other academic institutions, research institutes, private companies and government agencies.

Keyword Searching: Keyword searching allows a user to construct a search by looking for a word or combination of words from the author, title, or subject fields of the

Library web site: An online site that provides access to a large number of library resources (indexes, journals, and reference materials, for example), library services, and information about the Cornell University Library.

Stacks: The stacks are the part of the library which houses the physical collection. Books and periodicals are arranged on shelves in the stacks.

Subject Headings: Words or phrases assigned to books and articles and used to index these items by topic. Determining the correct headings for a specific database or catalog is an important part of effective research. See also *Thesaurus*.

Thesaurus: A list of all the subject headings or descriptors used in a particular database, catalog, or index. The thesaurus for the Classic Catalog is called *Library of Congress Subject Headings*.

World Wide Web: Also known as “the Internet.” A client-server information system that uses the Internet to access computers containing hundreds of millions of web sites.

Periodicals: Publications which are issued at least twice a year, including journals, magazines, and newspapers. **Current** periodicals are those which have recently arrived and are usually kept in loose binders, or on open shelves.

Structure: Figures of Speech

Simile: A simile is a figure of speech that makes a comparison, showing similarities between two different things. Unlike a metaphor, a simile draws resemblance with the help of the words “like” or “as”. Therefore, it is a direct comparison.

We can find simile examples in our daily speech. We often hear comments like “John is as slow as a snail.” Snails are notorious for their slow pace and here the slowness of John is compared to that of a snail. The use of “as” in the example helps to draw the resemblance. Some more examples of common similes are given below. Below are some common examples of simile-

- Our soldiers are as brave as lions.
- Her cheeks are red like a rose.
- He is as funny as a monkey.
- The water well was as dry as a bone.
- He is as cunning as a fox.

Metaphor: Metaphor is a figure of speech which makes an implicit, implied or hidden comparison between two things that are unrelated but share some common characteristics. In other words, a resemblance of two contradictory or different objects is made based on a single or some common characteristics.

In simple English, when you portray a person, place, thing, or an action as *being* something else, even though it is not *actually* that “something else,” you are speaking metaphorically. “He is the black sheep of the family” is a metaphor because he is not a sheep and is not even black. However, we can use this comparison to describe an association of a black sheep with that person. A black sheep is an unusual animal and typically stays away from the herd, and the person you are describing shares similar characteristics.

Most of us think of a metaphor as a device used in songs or poems only, and that it has nothing to do with our everyday life. In fact, all of us in our routine life speak, write and think in metaphors. We cannot avoid them. Metaphors are sometimes constructed through our common language. They are called conventional metaphors. Calling a person a “night owl” or an “early bird” or saying “life is a journey” are common conventional metaphor examples commonly heard and understood by most of us. Below are some more conventional metaphors we often hear in our daily life:

- My brother was **boiling mad**. (This implies he was too angry.)
- The assignment was **a breeze**. (This implies that the assignment was not difficult.)
- It is going to be **clear skies** from now on. (This implies that clear skies are not a threat and life is going to be without hardships)
- The skies of his future began to **darken**. (Darkness is a threat; therefore, this implies that the coming times are going to be hard for him.)
- Her voice is **music to his ears**. (This implies that her voice makes him feel happy)

Irony: Irony is a figure of speech in which words are used in such a way that their intended meaning is different from the actual meaning of the words. It may also be a situation that may end up in quite a different way than what is generally anticipated. In simple words, it is a difference between the appearance and the reality.

Types of Irony

On the grounds of the above definition, we distinguish two basic kinds of irony i.e. verbal irony and situational irony. A verbal irony involves what one does not mean. When in response to a foolish idea, we say, “what a great idea!” it is a verbal irony. A situational irony occurs when, for instance, a man is chuckling at the misfortune of the other even when the same misfortune, in complete unawareness, is befalling him.

Difference between Dramatic Irony and Situational Irony

Dramatic irony is a kind of irony in a situation, which the writers frequently employ in their works. In situational irony, both the characters and the audience are fully unaware of the implications of the real situation. In dramatic irony, the characters are oblivious of the situation but the audience is not. For example, in “*Romeo and Juliet*”, we know much before the characters that they are going to die. In real life circumstances, irony may be comical, bitter or sometimes unbearably offensive.

Common Examples of Irony

Let us analyze some interesting examples of irony from our daily life:

- I posted a video on YouTube about how boring and useless YouTube is.
- The name of Britain's biggest dog was "Tiny".
- You laugh at a person who slipped stepping on a banana peel and the next thing you know, you slipped too.
- The butter is as soft as a marble piece.
- "Oh great! Now you have broken my new camera."

Exercise

1. Write and define about hundred words that are associated with the library.
2. What do you understand by figures of speech?
3. Discuss some of the figures of speech that you know.
4. Differentiate between dramatic and situational irony.

SS1

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SECOND TERM

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Week 1

Topic: Prefix and Suffix

Prefix

A prefix is a part of a word that appears at the beginning of a word and it sometimes changes the meaning of the word. Adding prefixes to existing words (the base or root) to form new words is common in academic English. A **prefix** is a group of letters placed before the root of a word. For example, the word “unhappy” consists of the prefix “un-” [which means “not”] combined with the root (stem) word “happy”; the word “unhappy” means “not happy.”

PREFIX MEANING

de-	from, down, away reverse, opposite
dis-	not, opposite, reverse, away
ex-	out of, away from, lacking, former
il-	not
im-	not, without
in-	not, without
mis-	bad, wrong
non-	not
pre-	before
pro-	for, forward, before
re-	again, back
un-	against, not, opposite

EXAMPLES

decode, decrease
disagree, disappear
exhale, explosion
illegal, illogical
impossible, improper
inaction, invisible
mislead, misplace
nonfiction, nonsense
prefix, prehistory
proactive, profess, program
react, reappear
undo, unequal, unusual

Suffix

A suffix is a part of a word which appears at the end of a word. A **suffix** is a group of letters placed after the root of a word. For example, the word flavorless consists of the root word “flavor” combined with the suffix “-less” [which means “without”]; the word “flavorless” means “having no flavor.”

SUFFIX MEANING

-able	able to, having the quality of
-al	relating to
-er	comparative
-est	superlative
-ful	full of
-ible	forming an adjective

EXAMPLES

comfortable, portable
annual, comical
bigger, stronger
strongest, tiniest
beautiful, grateful
reversible, terrible

-ily	forming an adverb	eerily, happily, lazily
-ing	denoting an action, a material, or a gerund	acting, showing
-less	without, not affected by	friendless, tireless
-ly	forming an adjective	clearly, hourly
-ness	denoting a state or condition	kindness, wilderness
-y	full of, denoting a condition, or a diminutive	glory, messy, victory,

Exercise

1. What do you understand by prefixes and suffixes?
2. Discuss the differences and similarities between prefixes and suffixes.
3. Make a list of four hundred words indicating the prefixes and suffixes.

Week 2

Topic: Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases

PREPOSITION

A preposition is a word which shows relationship between two things in other words, a preposition is a word placed before a noun or a noun equivalent in order to make its relationship with another word in the sentence. Prepositions are mostly single words used before a pronoun, noun, noun phrase, or verb to express their relationship with the rest of the sentence. They are used to show when something happens (prepositions of time), where something happens (prepositions of place), or where something is going (prepositions of movement).

There are many prepositions, examples are: about, above, after, along, among, before, behind, beside, between, by, for, from, in, into, like, near, of, off, on, over, to, since, through, under, until, up, with, within, without.

A preposition can also be a two-word or three-word combination. It is called a compound preposition. Two-word compound prepositions include according to, because of, different from, due to, and instead of. Some examples of three-word compound prepositions are as far as, in addition to, in front of, and in spite of. There are many more two-word and three-word compound prepositions.

Same preposition can be used for different expressions.

He had a chicken and chips **at** break time. (Preposition used to indicate time.)

We will wait for you **at** the zoo. (Indicates place)

I shall meet you **at** 5pm **on** Sunday **near** the Subway.

Same feeling can use different prepositions.

I got angry with him for arriving late.

He was angry at their lack of efficiency.

We are very angry about plans to build a coal mine near our house.

Prepositions are mostly little words that are used before a Noun or Pronoun to show its relation to some other word in the sentence. In other words, prepositions link a noun or pronoun to another noun or pronoun in a sentence. Prepositions are used to show when something happens, (prepositions of time), where something happens (prepositions of place) or where something is going (prepositions of direction).

Examples:

The cup is on the chair. (indicates a place or position: on the chair)

We ran towards the zoo. (indicates direction: towards the zoo)

There are many prepositions, examples include:

about, after, along, among, before, behind, beside, between, by, for, from, in, into, like, near, of, off, over, to, since, through, under, with, within, without

FORMS OF PREPOSITION

1. Simple or common preposition
 2. Compound or complex preposition
- **Simple or Common preposition:** It refers to a simple preposition. It occurs as a single word.

Examples

In, about, off, at, over, of, under, for e.t.c

Se sat **on** the sofa

He fell **off** the ladder

The cat was hiding **under** the bed

- **Compound Prepositions:** They are prepositions containing more than a word. Two-word compound prepositions (according to, aside from, because of, next to, etc).
 - **According to** his sister, he fell asleep on the airplane.
 - The detective didn't know he was sitting **next to** a wanted man.

Three-word compound prepositions (as far as, in addition to, in front of, in spite of, on account of, etc)

- The bomb blast could be heard **as far as** the gas station, which is 20 kilometers away.
- **In addition to** a mango tree in his backyard, he also has a cherry tree **in front**

Other Examples of Compound Prepositions are:

Within, into, below, Inside, without, unto, between e.t.c

Examples of Complex prepositions are double prepositional words such as:

Outside of, From behind, Out of, From beneath

Examples

1. Suddenly he emerged **from behind** the curtain
2. He walked **out of** the compound

This is also participate preposition they are verbs ending in (-ing) but functioning as a preposition.

Examples

Concerning Notwithstanding

Considering Pending

1. You did the job well, **considering** your age and inexperience

Note: Prepositions indicate time, place, direction, agent and instrument.

TYPES OF PREPOSITIONS

Preposition of Time

Prepositions of time indicate the period of time that something happens (during, from, since, throughout, until, etc)

- I had a couple of terrifying nightmares **during** the night.
- Tolu swore never to talk to me again **from** tomorrow.

Prepositions of time used to indicate a particular time (at, by, in, on, etc)

- I had a quarrel with my friend **at** break time.
- The Party should be over **by** noon.

Prepositions of time used to indicate a particular time in relation to another (after, before, etc)

- I start to wonder whether I will be in Heaven or Hell **after** death.
- I usually brush my teeth **before** having my breakfast.

Preposition of Place

Prepositions of place tell us the position of something (across, in, inside, on, outside, etc).

- The newly built house **across** the gas station just collapsed.
- There was a fly **in** my cup of coffee.

Prepositions of place tell us the position of something in relation to another (behind, beside, between, in front, near, etc).

- **Behind** his room was a big black cat.
- I sat **beside** a snoring lady in the cinema.
- Someone parked a taxi **in front** of my car

Preposition of Direction

These prepositions show direction of movement to somewhere (into, onto, to, etc).

- A fly got **into** his soup while he was eating it.
- I must have put the pumpkin **onto** someone else's trolley in the supermarket.

These prepositions show direction of movement from somewhere (away from, from, off, etc).

- He warned them to keep **away from** his daughter.
- The strong wind blew the wig **off** the woman's head

USING PREPOSITIONS – Correct usage

Prepositions are simple words, but they are not as easy to use as they appear to be. If used wrongly, they become adverbs or conjunctions and convey different meaning.

A preposition is followed by a noun or a pronoun.

We go jogging every day **after** work. (Preposition)

(The preposition is **after** and is followed by the noun **work**.)

An adverb comes after a verb and is not followed by an object.

We got here not so long ago and she arrived **after**. (Adverb)

(**After** is an adverb that comes after the verb **arrived**.)

A conjunction has a clause that comes after it.

We arrived **after** he had left. (Conjunction)

(The clause **he had left** comes after the conjunction **after**.)

Examples

Using the preposition **until**:

- She was up **until** 2:00am watching the movie. (Preposition)
- She stayed under the shed **until** the rain stopped. (Conjunction)

Using the preposition **as**:

- She's got a job **as** a content writer. (Preposition)
- The husband was fat, and his wife was just **as** fat. (Adverb)
- We watched **as** she was beating the dog. (Conjunction)

Using the preposition **but**:

- He didn't tell anyone **but** his father. (Preposition)
- We have **but** one week to meet the deadline. (Adverb)
- You are not only my course mate **but** also my best friend. (Conjunction)

Using the preposition **round**:

- We walked **round** the Zoo watching all the animals. (Preposition)
- They gathered **round** to listen to his encounter with a wild pig. (Adverb)
- In that tree, I saw two big, **round** eyes which must be the owl's. (Adjective)

Using the preposition **inside**:

- Beautiful pictures can be found **inside** the book. (Preposition)
- The magazine has beautiful pictures of wedding gowns **inside**. (Adverb)
- The **inside** pages of the text book has some diagrams. (Adjective)

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

A prepositional phrase is a phrase that starts with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun. It also means a group of words made up of a preparation, its objects and any of the objects modifiers. Prepositional phrases are groups of words containing prepositions. Remember that prepositions are words that indicate the relationships between various elements within a sentence, and you'll never have difficulty identifying prepositional phrases.

A prepositional phrase may be:

1. A noun phrase
 - In the classroom
 - Across the road
 - At the bank
2. A wh-clause
 - From what Bobola said
 - In what Mike has said
3. Verb in the -ing clause
 - By annoying her husband, She lost his favour
 - On crossing the street, he saw the corpse

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that lacks either a verb or a subject, and that functions as a unified part of speech. It normally consists of a preposition and a noun or a preposition and a pronoun.

Remember the following rules for prepositional phrases and you will find that using them becomes much easier.

- Prepositional phrases always consist of two basic parts at minimum: the object and the preposition.
- In formal English, prepositions are almost always followed by objects.
- Adjectives can be placed between the prepositions and objects in prepositional phrases.
- Prepositional phrases can act as adverbs or adjectives. When they are used as adjectives, they modify nouns and pronouns in the same way single-word adjectives do.
- When prepositional phrases are used as adverbs, they at the same way single-word adverbs and adverb clauses do, modifying adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs.

Examples of Prepositional Phrases

The following sentences contain examples of prepositional phrases; the prepositional phrase in each sentence is italicized for easy identification.

The cupcake *with sprinkles* is yours.

The cupcake *with sugar sprinkles* is yours.

We climbed *down the hill*.

We climbed *down the very rough hill*.

The children ran *through the garden*.

The children ran *through the perfectly manicured garden*.

ANTONYMS

An Antonym is a word that is opposite in meaning to another word.

The term **antonym** is commonly taken to be synonymous with opposite, but antonym also has other more restricted meanings. Graded (or gradable) antonyms are word pairs whose meanings are opposite and which lie on a continuous spectrum (hot, cold).

These are words that are opposite in meaning. It comes from the Greek work “anti” for opposite and “onym” for name since language is complex for most people at times, and people are usually confused on what words are truly opposite in meaning to other words.

An antonym is one of a pair of words with opposite meanings. Each word in the pair is the antithesis of the other. A word may have more than one antonym. There are three categories of antonyms identified by the nature of the relationship between the opposed meanings. Where the two words have definitions that lie on a continuous spectrum of meaning, they are gradable antonyms. Where the meanings do not lie on a continuous spectrum and the words have no other lexical relationship, they are complementary antonyms. Where the two meanings are opposite only within the context of their relationship, they are relational antonyms.

Opposites are simultaneously different and similar in meaning. Typically, they differ in only one dimension of meaning, but are similar in most other respects, including similarity in grammar and positions of semantic abnormality. Additionally, not all words have an opposite. Some words are non-opposable. For example, animal or plant species have no binary opposites (other than possible gender opposites such as lion/lioness, etc.); the word platypus therefore has no word that stands in opposition to it (hence the unanswerability of *What is the opposite of platypus?*).

HOW TO ARRIVE AT THE CORRECT ANTONYM OF A WORD

1. The first step for finding a suitable antonym for a word is to work out the meaning of the first word from the context.

2. The second step is to think of a word which is opposite in meaning to the word.
3. Sometimes two or more words may have opposite meanings but you have to look for a word which is more directly opposite to the word in question.

CATEGORIES OF ANTONYMS

1. Graded antonyms
2. Complementary antonyms
3. Relational antonyms
4. Antonyms by adding prefix

EXPLANATION

1. GRADABLE ANTONYMS

It deals with levels of meaning of words like if something is not good, it may still not be bad. It may be average, fair excellent, terrible, poor or satisfactory.

Examples:

WORD	ANTONYM
Fat	Skinny
Risky	Safe
Last	First
Pretty	Ugly
Excited	Bored
Early	Late
Dull	Interesting
Rich	Poor
Simple	Challenging
Empty	Full
Soft	Hard

2. COMPLIMENTARY ANTONYMS

It has a relationship where there is no middle ground. There are only two possibilities either one or this other. A complementary antonym is one of a pair of words with opposite meanings, where the two meanings do not lie on a continuous spectrum. There is no continuous spectrum between push and pull but they are opposite in meaning and are therefore complementary antonyms. Complementary antonyms cannot be graded and are mutually exclusive. That is, they can exist independently of each other. For example, there might be a **daughter** in a family but not the

complementary opposite of a **son**, as **girls** can exist without their complementary opposite of **boys**.

Examples

WORD	ANTONYM
Wet	Dry
Yes	No
Silence	Noise
Fantasy	Reality
Question	Answer
Hired	Fired
Pass	Fail
Exit	Entrance
Push	Pull
On	Off
Dead	Alive

3. RELATIONAL ANTONYMS

They are sometimes considered as sub-category of complementary antonyms with these pairs, for there to be a relationship both must exist. A Relational antonym is one of a pair of words with opposite meanings, where opposite makes sense only in the context of the relationship between the two meanings. There is no lexical opposite of teacher, but teacher and pupil are opposite within the context of their relationship. This makes them relational antonyms. Relational Antonyms are pairs of opposites where one cannot exist without the other. For example to have a **husband**, you must have a **wife**. Therefore, **husband** and **wife** are relational antonyms.

Examples:

WORD	ANTONYM
Husband	Wife
Buy	Sell
Doctor	Patient
Behind	Ahead
Parent	Child
Borrow	Lend
Coach	Learn
Above	Below
Employer	Employee

4. PREFIX ANTONYMS

Antonym by adding a prefix sometimes, an antonym can be easily made by adding a prefix.

Examples

WORD	ANTONYM
Likely	Unlikely
Fortunate	Unfortunate
Able	Unable
Forgiving	unforgiving

Note: Antonyms can be almost opposite in meaning or opposite in meaning. Antonym in isolation is different in a context.

THE CONSONANTS /l/ and /r/

These two sounds are often confused especially when they follow each other like /p/, /b/ and /f/. To make the /r/ sound, you let the tip of your tongue nearly touch your alveolar ridge. But when you make the /l/ sound, you let the tip of your tongue touch the ridge and you also force air to escape from both sides of your tongue.

/l/	/r/
Flesh	Fresh
Pleasant	Present
Blouse	Browse
Player	Prayer

Exercise

1. What is a preposition?
2. Mention and explain the two forms of preposition.
3. What is prepositional phrase?
4. Briefly discuss how to arrive at different types of antonyms.
5. How do you differentiate between the /l/ sound and the /r/ sound?

Consonant Cluster; Tenses

Formal Letter

A formal letter is an official letter that is written for official reasons only, unlike an informal letter, a formal letter does not allow for pleasantries, it is strict and it goes straight to the point. Examples of formal letters are, letter to your service provider to make a complaint or inquiry, letter of application, letter of apology to your principal etc. Below are the features of a formal letter-

Your Address and date: This should be written at the top right corner.

Recipient Address: This is the address of the receiver of the letter, it should be written at the left hand side after the date.

Salutation: Dear Sir/Ma

Heading: This carries the reason you are writing the letter in one sentence, it should be in capital letters, if not, it should be underlined.

Body: First paragraph should be introductory while the second paragraph should convey whatever it is you want to get across, in details. The last paragraph should be conclusive.

Signature: This should be written at the left side after the conclusion with your names.

Note: When writing formal letters, you are not allowed to write in abbreviations or words like, don't, shouldn't or aren't.

Exercise: Write a letter to the Chairman of your Local Government Area requesting the construction of some needed amenities in your community.

Lesson Two

Spoken English: Consonant Cluster

Words with /j/

Consonant cluster with /j/ are very often followed by the vowel /u:/ when this is spelt 'u' or 'ew' also by the diphthong /u:ə/. This means that to pronounce a word like few, you have to put in the /j/ sound between the /f/ and the /u:/ sounds. Each of this word contains the /j/ sound.

few, new, view, stew, dew, due, furious, tune, computer, cure, attitude, queue, pure, endurance.

Note: The /j/ sound is usually represented in writing by the letter 'y' e.g. yet /jet/.

Without /j/

In some words however, no /j/ comes before the 'u' or 'ew'. This happens mostly when the preceding consonant is /l/ or /r/. There is no /j/ sound when the /u:/ sound is spelt 'oo'

Practice these words

blue, glue, flew, grew, drew, true, food, smooth, choose.

Test:

1. few. a) blue b) crude c) food d) music
2. true. a) queue b) lose c) refuse d) stew

Lesson Three

Tenses

Tenses are forms of a verb that show the time, continuance or completion of an action or a state that is expressed in connection with the moment at which a statement is made about it. The following tenses are commonly used:

I. PRESENT TENSE

Simple Present Tense

We use the **simple present tense**:

- To show a **fact** or something that is always **true**.

Examples

- The heart pumps blood through the body.
- A doctor treats patients.
- Babies cry.

- For **daily routines** or something done **regularly** or **habitually**.

Examples:

- I never work on weekends.
- I do exercise every morning.
- She goes to church on Sundays.

- For an action that is **planned** to happen in the future.

Examples:

- The train for Apapa departs at seven o'clock.
- The meeting begins in an hour's time.
- To express **thoughts, feelings** and **states**.

Examples:

- They feel a lot of loyalty to the company.
- Joke doubts the truth of Damilare's statement.
- For **sports, commentaries, reviews** (book, film, play, etc.) and **narration**.

Examples:

- She plays her role marvelously.
- The witch suddenly appears out of nowhere and whacks him with the broom.
- In newspaper **headlines**.

Examples:

- President Jonathan leave Aso Rock.
- General Buhari, the new Nigerian President.
- for **instructions, directions**.

Examples:

- Mix the flour and water together, then add sugar.
- Go straight on and when you come to the first traffic lights, turn left.
- with the following **time expressions**: all the time, at night/the weekend, every day/week/month/year, in the morning/afternoon/evening, on Mondays/Tuesday, etc., once/twice a day/week, etc.

Examples:

- He beats the dog all the time.
- Busola often visits **Teststream.com** every evening.

Present Continuous Tense

We use the **present continuous tense** to show we are in the **middle** of an activity that is in progress at this moment. The activity started in the past and will go on in the future.

Example:

- I am praying / I'm writing.

So when we use the present continuous tense we are talking about something that is still on and not yet finished or complete at the time of speaking.

Forming the Present Continuous Tense

The **present continuous tense** of any verb is formed with the **simple present tense** of the verb **to be** (=am, is, are) and the **present participle** of the main **verb** (verb + ing)

Examples:

- I **am riding** a bicycle to the market.
- Micheal **is walking** out after a row with his girlfriend.

We use the present continuous tense:

- For an action that is still happening at the time of speaking.

Example:

- She **is cooking** noodles now.
- For an action that is still going on about this time but not necessary at the time of speaking.

Example:

- Joke **is teaching** at a secondary girls' school. (She is not actually teaching now. She may be watching television or playing with his cat at the moment of speaking.)
- to talk about an action that has been planned or arranged to take place at a particular time in the immediate or distant future.

Example:

- We **are going** for excursion in two weeks.
- To describe a situation that is temporary and does not happen as usual.

Example:

- He is usually the hero of the film, but he **is playing** the role of a villain.
- To describe a repeated action that the speaker finds irritating.

Example:

- He **is** always **making** me angry with his rude comments.

- with 'always', 'very often', 'forever', 'constantly' to describe an action that happens many times or frequently.

Example:

- My old car **is always breaking** down.
- I **very often** go to my mum's house for food.

With **present continuous tense questions**, we use: **am/are/is + subject + ...ing**. E.g. Am I angry? What are your cats doing in my garden? Is your dog barking at the postman?

We use the present continuous tense in the following ways:

- **Statement:** I am eating – we place the verb to be (am/is/are) after the subject (I).
- **Negative:** He is not reading – we place not after the verb to be (am/is/are).
- **Question:** Are they coming here? – we place the verb to be (am/is/are) before the subject (they).

Present Perfect Tense

The **Present Perfect Tense** connects the present to the past. It describes an action that happened in the past and goes right to the present moment. The time of occurrence of the action is not mentioned. Usually, the time is not important or is not necessary to know. It is the result of the action that matters. It tells us the outcome to date of the action. E.g., "Frank has gone" tell us that Frank is no longer with us.

To express something in the present perfect tense, join the **present simple tense** of **have/has** with the **past participle** of the main verb (which can be a regular verb or irregular verb).

have/has + past participle

Statement:	subject	+	have/has	+	past participle	
	He		has		broken	a glass.
Question form:	have/has	+	subject	+	past participle	
	Has		he		broken	a glass?

e.g.

Tolu has taken my Pen.

They have eaten rice

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The **Present Perfect Continuous Tense** is made up of the **present perfect tense** of the verb **to be** (have/has been), and the **present participle** of the main verb (verb + ing)

Statement:	subject	+ have/has	+ been	+ (verb + -ing)
	He	has	been	running.
Question form:	have/has	+ subject	+ been	+ (verb + -ing)
	Has	he	been	running?

The Present Perfect Continuous is:

- Used for an action that began in the past and has been continuing up to now (and may still be going on)

Example:

- Bobola and Osas **have been talking** about getting married.
- Used for an action that began and just finished in the past.

Example:

- “Look how dirty your hands are.” “Yes, I **have been washing** the dishes.”
- Often used with **since, for, ever since**, etc.

Examples:

- Grandpa **has been playing** with his grandchildren for hours.
- I **have been looking** for my glasses since ten o’clock.
- Also used with **all** (all day, all evening, all week) to indicate duration of an activity, **lately**, etc.

Examples:

- He **has been suffering** from headache all day.
- I’ve **been feeling** ill lately.
- Used with **how long** to form questions.

Example:

- **How long have you been** studying English?

II. PAST TENSE

Simple Past Tense

We use the **simple past tense** for events that **happened** or **started** and **completed** in the past and that have no relation with the present.

We use the simple past tense:

- to describe an **action** that occurred in the past or at a **specified time** or the time is easily understood or already implied.

Example: We **finished** our breakfast an hour ago. (**NOT**: We have/had finished our breakfast an hour ago.)

Example: My brother **played** soccer for Chelsea two weeks ago.

- for an action that **began** and **ended** in the past.

Example: The dangerous criminal **was** recaptured after three months on the run.

- to refer to an **action completed** regardless of how recent or distant in the past.

Example: Alexander Bell **invented** the telephone in 1876.

Example: My brother **joined** the circus as a clown last week

Past Continuous Tense

The **past continuous tense** is formed with the **past tense** of the verb **to be** (was/were) + **present participle** (verbs ending in ...ing).

Example: I/he/she/it **was eating** spaghetti at 8 o'clock last night.

You/we/they **were eating** spaghetti at 8 o'clock last night

The **past continuous tense questions** are formed with **was/were + subject + ... ing.**

Example: What **were you doing** exactly twenty-four hours ago? (**NOT**: What did you do exactly twenty-four hours ago?)

The past continuous tense is used:

- for an action that was taking place in the past when a shorter action (expressed in the simple past tense) happened.

E.g.: I **was running** when I **got** hit by a stone.

E.g.: While he **was reading** his textbook, he **fell** asleep.

Note: The past continuous tense and the simple past tense are used together

- with **while** to describe two actions that were going on at the same time in the past.

Example: **While** my brother **was laughing**, the dog **was barking**.

The **past perfect tense** is formed with the **past tense** of the verb **to have** (had) and the **past participle** of the verb (e.g. eaten, stolen, taken).

Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect tense describes an event that happened in the past before another event was completed in the past. It tells us which event happened first regardless of which event is mentioned first or second in a sentence or conversation.

The Past Perfect Tense is used:

1. to show an action happened in the past before another event took place.

- Words usually used with the Past Perfect tense are **when** and **after**.

Example: They **had** already **left** the zoo before I got there.

Example: When he **had done** his homework, he went for a smoke in the park.

In each of the above examples there are two past actions. The past perfect tense is combined with a past simple tense to show which of the two actions happened earlier.

The event in the **past perfect tense** occurred **before** the event in the **simple past tense**.

- Words such as **already**, **just** and **as soon as** are also used with the Past Perfect tense.

Example: It **had already stopped** raining when I bought an umbrella.

Example: **As soon as** she bought the fruit, she regretted it.

2. for an action which happened before a definite time in the past.

Example: They **had finished** their meals by 7:00pm.

3. for states.

Example: They **had become** good friends for many years after meeting on holiday.

When two actions were completed in the past, use a past perfect tense to clarify which event happened earlier.

a) **INCORRECT:** The bank occupied the building where the bakery was.

b) **CORRECT:** The bank **occupied** the building where the bakery **had been**.

c) **INCORRECT:** The list of movies you showed me, I saw before.

d) **CORRECT:** The list of movies you **showed** me, I **had seen** before.

In (a), the use of two simple past tenses (occupied; was) imply the bank and bakery occupied the same building at the same time, which was not the case. In (b), the use of the perfect tense (had been) sorts out the order of occupation of the building.

In (c), 'I saw before' clearly indicates it happened before the list was showed to me, and so should be in the past perfect tense as in (d).

Before and after

As mentioned above, the event expressed in the past perfect tense occurred earlier than the event in the past simple tense. However, when **before** or **after** is used in a sentence, the past perfect tense becomes unnecessary as the two words – before or after – already clarify which action takes place first. We can use the simple past tense instead. Look at these examples.

a) After she **had read** the letter, she tore it into pieces.

b) After she **read** the letter, she tore it into pieces.

c) We **had left** the cinema before the movie ended.

d) We **left** the cinema before the movie ended.

Changing the past perfect tense to past simple tense does not affect the meaning of the sentences as (a) and (b) have the same meaning, and (c) and (d) have the same meaning.

The past perfect tense and the present perfect tense

The rice bowl **was** empty. I **had eaten** the rice.

The rice bowl **is** empty. I **have eaten** the rice.

Anna **was** limping. She **had fallen** down the stairs.

Anna **is** limping. She **has fallen** down the stairs.

Indirect speech

The **Past Perfect Tense** is often used in **Reported** or **Indirect Speech**. It is used in place of the verb in the:

1. **present perfect tense** in the direct speech:

Direct speech: He said, "I **have lost** my key."

Indirect speech: He said he **had lost** his key.

2. **simple past tense** in the direct speech:

Direct speech: She said, "I **made** the biggest mistake of my life

Indirect speech: She said she **had made** the biggest mistake of her life

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The **past perfect continuous tense** is formed with the **past perfect tense** of the verb **to be** (= had been) + **the present participle** (-ing).

Example: I **had been singing**.

The past perfect continuous is used:

- for an action that occurred over a period of time in the past.

Example: He **had been playing** drums in the church choir.

- for an action which started and finished in the past before another past action. Here, **since** or **for** is usually used.

Example: Jack got a job at last. He **had been looking** for a job since last year.

Example: He and his brother **had been playing** badminton together for ten years before one of them got married.

- in reported speech, the present perfect continuous tense becomes past perfect continuous tense.

Example: John said, "We **have been traveling** by train across Europe."

Example: John said they **had been traveling** by train across Europe.

III. FUTURE TENSE

Simple Future Tense

We use the **simple future tense** for actions that will happen in the future. How we use it depends on how we view the events are going to happen. The followings show the different tenses used to express the completion of an activity in the future:

The FBI **will conclude** their investigation of the internet scam next week. (**simple future**)

The FBI **conclude** their investigation of the internet scam next week. (**simple present**)

The FBI **are concluding** their investigation of the internet scam next week. (**present continuous**)

The FBI **will be concluding** their investigation of the internet scam next week. (**future continuous**)

There are ways we can use to express the future in English:

Will

Be going to

Be to

Be about to

Simple Present

Present continuous

1. Will

We use **will** to:

- say something that we are certain will occur in the future.

Example: Breakfast **will** be served at 9:00am.

- say something that we are not so certain will happen.

Example: I think she **will** come home later.

- state a fact.

Example: Oil **will** float on water.

- express willingness to do something in the future.

Example: I **will** help you do your homework tomorrow.

- make a sudden decision at the moment of speaking.

Example: The dog is barking. I **will** just go and check.

- give a command.

Example: You **will** report to me at ten o'clock on Friday.

- ask questions or make a suggestion or promise.

Example: **Will** you call Tony for me, please?.

2. **Be going to**

Be going to is used to refer to future actions as follow:

- Intention or decision already made to do or not to do something.

Example: We **are going to** the cinema next week.

- Plans or arrangements for the near future that are made prior to the time of speaking

Example: We **are going to** the church on Sunday.

- Prediction of an outcome based on current situation.

Example: Look at the overcast sky. It **is going to** rain hard.

3. **Be going to and will**

- When **be going to** and **will** are used to make predictions about the future, they mean the same.

Example: He thinks his son's team **will** win the scrabble league.

Example: He thinks his son's team **is going to** win the scrabble league.

- **Be going to** and **will** are used to indicate future situations or actions, and they often convey the same meaning.

Example: My baby **is going to** be a year old tomorrow. / My baby **will** be a year old tomorrow.

Example: We **are going to** the salon when it stops raining. / We **will** go to the salon when it stops raining.

- When the speaker is absolutely sure about something, he can use **will** or **be going to**.

Example: I **will** be at the meeting tomorrow. / I **am going to** be at the meeting tomorrow. (When absolute sureness is not present, **probably, might, could**, or similar words may be used.

Example: I **will** probably be at the meeting tomorrow. / I **am** probably **going to** be at the meeting tomorrow.)

- When a decision or plan is made for the distant future, **will** is usually used.

Example: She **will** buy a house in **two years**.

Going to is usually used when a plan is made for the near future.

Example: We **are going to** visit the zoo again early **next week**.

- We use **be going to** when there is an intention to do something and **will** for additional information.

Example: It's their twentieth wedding anniversary. They **are going to** have a celebratory party. (**NOT**: They will have a celebratory party.) They **will** invite about a dozen close friends. The friends **will** include two politicians.

4. Be to

Be to (is/are + infinitive) refers to an action that is to take place in the future. It is used for **instructions, obligation** and something that is **arranged**. However, other forms of usage are possible.

Example: You **are not to** answer any question from any one of the reporters. (**instruction**)

Example: You **are to** hand this packet over to him before noon. (**obligation**)

Example: The Prime Minister **is to** meet his successor tomorrow. (**arrangement**)

Example: The museum **is to** be closed while it is being renovated. (**information**)

Example: The General Manager **is to** present the report to the board on Monday. (**duty**)

5. Be about to (+ infinitive)

We use **be about to** for an action or event that will happen very soon.

Example: Everyone sits down when the film **is about to** start.

Example: I have never drunk alcohol in my life and I **am not about to** start now.

Example: We walked quickly home when it **was about to** rain.

Example: The audience fell silent when the President **was about to** appear.

Example: When a plane is moved to the end of a runway, it usually means it **is about to** take off.

When **be about to** is used with **just**, it **emphasizes** that something is about to happen when it is interrupted by something else.

Example: I **was just about to** eat my dinner when the phone rang.

Simple present tense

We use **simple present tense** for the future when we refer to something that has been **scheduled** or **arranged** to happen at a particular time such as a **timetable**.

Example: The first flight to Rome **leaves** at 6 a.m.

Example: The train for Birmingham **departs** from platform 3.

Example: The special sales offer **closes** August 31.

Example: The new airport **opens** on Christmas Eve.

Example: The public exhibition of a collection of his paintings **ends** in a week.

The simple present tense and the present continuous tense

We can use the **simple present** and the **present continuous tenses** for the **future**.

They **have** a drinking session **next Sunday**. (= the drinking session occurs every Sunday.)

They **are having** a drinking session **next Sunday**. (= perhaps, not every Sunday.)

Present continuous tense

The **present continuous tense** is used for **future arrangements**.

Example: I **am having** dinner with him at seven o'clock.

Example: She **is flying** to London tomorrow morning.

Example: John **is leaving** the company next week after 25 years' service.

Example: We **are visiting** the Niagara Falls in three weeks.

Example: My brother **is writing** another book next month.

Present continuous and 'be going to'

Present continuous and be going to can have same meaning.

a) I **am going to** watch my favourite TV programme this evening.

- b) I **am watching** my favourite TV programme this evening.
c) He **is going to** attend a seminar tomorrow.
d) He **is attending** a seminar tomorrow.

Sentences (a) and (b); (c) and (d) have same meaning. The **present continuous tense** and **be going to** describe actions that are planned or arranged for the future prior to the time of speaking. We do not use **will** here.

It is not incorrect to construct a sentence with 'be going to' with the verb 'go'. For example: They **are going to go** fishing this weekend. However the **present continuous tense** is more commonly used: They **are going** fishing this weekend.

Will / Shall

Will and **shall** are **auxiliary** verbs used mainly in the **future tense**.

Example: I **shall** arrive before noon. / They **will** arrive before noon.

Shall has always been used in the first-person singular (I) and plural (we) but **will** is becoming more common.

Example: I **shall** be away tomorrow. / We **shall** be away tomorrow.

- We use **will** to ask a **favour** of somebody.

Example: **Will** you look after my things for a while, please?

- We use **won't** (will not) to show **unwillingness** or **refusal** to do something.

Example: I have asked the noisy children to keep quiet, but they **won't** listen.

- We use **shall** when we:

i. Ask a first-person question.

Example: **Shall** I open the window?

ii. make a suggestion.

Example: **Shall** we go together in one car?

iii. make an offer.

Example: **Shall** I give you a lift to the airport?

iv. for instructions.

Example: **Shall** I make all these payments by the end of the month?

Will and **shall** are also used to make **predictions** in the **simple future tense**.

Example: I think the weather **will** get colder around the middle of this month.

Example: I **shall** be judged only by God.

The **future continuous tense** is made up of the **simple future tense** of the verb **to be** (shall/will be) + a **present participle** (verb + -ing), as follow:

Subject simple future of 'to be' present participle (base + ing)

We shall/will be jogging

We use the future continuous tense:

- for an action that lasts a period of time in the future.

Example: His lawyer **will be working** the whole day tomorrow.

- for an action that has been planned.

Example: Desire **will be going** on vacation this summer to Germany.

- to express an action that will be in progress at a certain or specified time in the future.

Example: We **will/shall be sleeping** by the time you return.

Example: **Will** they **be coming** at 6 p.m. next Wednesday?

Future Perfect Tense

The **future perfect tense** is formed by using the **simple future tense** of the verb to have (will have) + the **past participle** of the main verb. It is used for an action which will have finished by some future time or date as mentioned:

Statement: She **will have sewn** the patch on her jeans by nine o'clock

Question: **Will** the people **have put** out the fire by the time the firemen arrive?

The future perfect tense is used:

- to show that an activity will be completed by a specified time in the future.

Example: I **will have saved** about Ten million naira by the year 2025.

- to show that an action will be completed before another takes place in the future.

Example: The thieves **will have stolen** the money by the time the policemen arrive.

- to show a situation will be over in the future.

Example: The special offer of price slash to half **will have finished** by noon tomorrow.

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

The **future perfect continuous tense** is formed with the **future perfect tense** of the verb **to be** (shall/will have been) + a **present participle** (verb + -ing), as follow:

Example: My uncle **will have been working** in Antarctica for exactly ten years next Sunday.

The future perfect continuous tense is used:

- to indicate the length of time that an action continues in the future.

Example: At noon tomorrow, I **will have been driving** for fifteen years.

- to show an action in progress until an event happens in the future. Here, we usually make use of the time clause. The future perfect continuous tense may come either before or after the time clause.

a) By the time the train arrives, we **will have been waiting** for more than thirty minutes.

b) Tony **will have been waiting** for more than thirty minutes by the time the train arrives,

Time clause: by the time the train arrives

Main clause: we will have been waiting for more than thirty minutes

A comma is placed at the end of a time clause when the time clause comes before the main clause as in (a).

Exercise

1. The following are all parts of a formal letter except—? (A. Two addresses B. Salutation C. Heading D. Signature E. Passport photograph)
2. Consonant cluster with /i/ are often followed by —? (A. The vowel /u:/ B. Consonant /f/ C. Alphabets D. All of the above)
3. What are tenses?
4. Briefly discuss the different types of tenses you know.

Week 4

Topic: Synonyms and Syllable

Synonyms

Synonyms are words which have similar meanings. The meaning of these words need not be exactly the same. Most words can have one or more synonyms.

Synonyms are great because

1. They make it possible for writers to create a mood with the nuances of their vocabularies,
2. They give writers more rhythmic tools
3. They sound fancy

Example

1. The sofa is too **big** for the living room

Synonym for big – Large

2. Mice are really **tiny** animals

Synonym for tiny – Small

Nice

3. I **hate** snakes, they are horrible

Synonym for hate – Loathe

4. The lesson is not very **hard**

Synonym for hard – Difficult

Synonyms are words whose meaning are equivalent though we know that no two words have exact same meaning because each word has its own peculiar meaning but that does not rule out the fact that words share similar message.

Example

1. I had a **frivolous** discussion with him

Synonyms – trivial, unserious, flippant.

It can be nearest in meaning or almost nearest in meaning.

Lesson Two

Syllable

A syllable is a group of words containing at least one vowel sound. It may also contain one or more consonant sounds. Some of these words contain only one syllable.

I Bell Speak Rough Eye Seam Strength Speech

Most of the time, only 'content' words are stressed. Generally the following words are likely to be stresses in a sentence:

Nouns, Adjectives and Adverbs, Wh – question words – Who, What, Why (including the How and When words). The words Yes and No.

But not every syllable is stressed. For example, in words of two syllables, in most cases, either the first syllable is stressed or the second. It is not always easy to indicate any hard and fast rule, except that no syllable containing the central vowel sound /ə/ is stressed.

Listen and Repeat

First Syllable Stressed Words:

TEAcher	STUdent
TAble	CYcle
SPLENdid	ANgry
FIFty	SOMEone
CUStom	THANKful
CERTain	WINdow
ARgue	MOtive

Second Syllable Stressed Words

enOUGH	aLERT
colLECT	conSUME
beLIEVE	aMEND
reCEIVE	acQUIRE
emPLOY	exCITE

imPOUND

reFLECT

deLIGHT

inFORM

A few words containing two syllables are stressed on both syllables. They include all the 'teen' words, and words with a prefix with a very strong distinct meaning such as unclear, dislike, ex-wife, outdo, and a few others.

Listen and repeat

Both syllables are normally stressed:

Fourteen fifteen prepaid unclear sixteen amen daresay hullo trombone pre-book bamboo

Note too that some name of places may have two stressed syllables:

Beijing, Shanghai, Canton, Berlin

Exercise

1. Synonyms are words which are similar in meanings. True or false? ———
2. What are some of the importance of synonyms?
3. What is a syllable?
4. Give examples of first and second syllable-stressed words.
5. In the following options lettered A - D, all the words except one have the same stress patterns. Identify which one has first syllable stress and second syllable stress.

S/N	A	B	C	D
1	couple	wedding	marry	demand
2	himself	explain	trouble	rebuke
3	complain	success	prepare	sorry
4	demand	correct	forget	teller
5	many	divide	allow	forgive
6	leader	pepper	tonight	progress

Week 5

PHRASAL VERBS AND COMPREHENSION

Contents:

Phrasal Verbs

Comprehension

A. STRUCTURE: PHRASAL VERBS

Someone may put a question to you 'What time did you *get up* this morning?'

"Get up" is an example of phrasal verb meaning 'to rise' (from one's bed). Here are some more examples

I *put on* my sleek jeans

What if he didn't *turn up*.

What is a Phrasal Verb?

A phrasal verb is a verb followed by a preposition or an adverb; the combination creates a meaning different from the original verb alone.

Example :

To **get** = to obtain I need **to get** a new battery for my camera.

To **get together** = to meet Why don't we all **get together** for lunch one day?

Phrasal verbs are part of a large group of verbs called "multi-part" or "multi-word" verbs. The preposition or adverb that follows the verb is sometimes called a *particle*.

Phrasal verbs and other multi-word verbs are an important part of the English language. However, they are mainly used in spoken English and informal texts. They should be avoided in academic writing where it is preferable to use a formal verb such as "to postpone" rather than "to put off".

Points to Note about Phrasal Verbs

1. The verb consists of two words sometimes three e.g give in
2. The first word is short very commonly used word such as go, come, get, run, put, take e.t.c.
3. The second and (third) word is another short familiar word such as up, to, down, in, out, off e.t.c. Such words maybe regarded to as prepositions or adverb: here we will call the particles.

4. The separate words are not always a clear guide to the meaning of a phrasal verb as a whole. The meaning can however be inferred from the context just like any other word. What is the meaning of *turn up*?
5. Use your dictionary to find three phrasal verbs. A good dictionary contains examples.

Read the following paragraph and find out four phrasal verbs. Can you work out what they mean.

I first came across Chinua Achebe's novel 'Things Fall Apart' when I was teaching in Passnownow Secondary School in Nigeria. At one stage, I heard he was going to give a lecture at the university – but sadly, the visit was called off at the last minute.

Ever since then, I have eagerly bought a copy of each of his novels as soon as they came out.

As an avid reader of his novels, I was very upset when the news came through of his road accident. It was a great relief to all of us to hear that he had come through, although badly injured.

B. COMPREHENSION

Leaving home

Ochola was still immersed in his thoughts when Nyapol shouted to him that the bus was coming. His heart *pounded* with excitement as he rushed back to collect their belongings. In no time the Uyomakisumu bus appeared. It swerved and lurched dangerously to a standstill at the side of the road where the passengers were still waiting. Within minutes their luggage had been thrown on top, while a bus conductor packed the passengers in a space hardly large enough to seat a child. Nyapol started to grumble, but when she noticed the discomfort on the faces of the other passengers she kept quiet. Babies were screaming and some passengers were talking at the top of their voices and laughing. Cigarette smoke, children vomiting and the smell of humanity all combined to produce a stale, sickening smell that choked Nyapol as soon as she entered the bus.

A passenger complained *bitterly* that the bus was too full. The conductor turned promptly on him. 'You get out and walk,' he said and shook his fist rudely, 'what do you people want? If I leave someone behind, because the bus is too full, you curse and swear at me. If I squeeze you all in, and save you waiting a whole day, you abuse me. Well, gentleman, you either get down and walk or keep your big mouth shut. The man looked at the conductor in dismay and keeps his mouth shut. The packed bus groaned several times before it started moving, blanket of smoke followed behind, *saturating* the air with diesel fumes. Nyapol glanced sadly at the village where she had been married and lived for only a few months. She did not have many friends there, but she had become deeply *attached* to the old man and her step-mother-in-law. She would also miss Nyariwo who plaited her long hair on Sundays. She knew the old man would miss her taking him his breakfast.

Since her marriage, she had taken him a large mug of sweetened tea each morning, sometimes with boiled cassava or sweet potatoes and, when they were lucky, a sliced of bread. Nyapol's thoughts were interrupted by a big jolt as the heavy bus bumped its way over the lower bridge, which consisted of boards precautious suspended on cement pillars. The jolt was a severe one. She felt a sharp pain in her womb, and tighten her lips. She cursed the driver and blamed ochola for exposing her to such rough travelling during her early pregnancy.

Yet the government was partly to blame. They combed the village, turning people's purses inside out looking for taxes. But still the narrow bridges were washed away by the floods each season, and the people themselves had to replace them.

Exercise

1. What is a phrasal verb? Give examples.
2. Fill the gaps with suitable phrasal verbs from the options given in the table below.

With come...

Phrasal Verb	Meaning	Example
Come about	Happen, develop	How did the strike come about?
Come across	Find	If you come across a pen, it's mine.
Come by	Obtain	How did you come by this jotter?
Come in	To be received (income)	I have 50,000 naira coming in monthly
Come forward	To be identified	The detectives are appealing to witnesses to come forward
Come off	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To stop being connected • To happen • To succeed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Your button is coming off • Do you think the election will come off • Tolu tried but his joke didn't quite come off
Come on	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As a word of encouragement • To make progress • To begin 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Come on it's not far now! • How is your school work coming on • I think I have a bit of malaria coming on
Come out	To appear, to emerge	His new book is coming out soon
Come round	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To visit • To change opinion • To happen as usual • To regain consciousness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When are you coming round to our house • In the end, they came around to our point of view • Your birthday comes around soon, doesn't it? • After a few minutes, he gradually came around
Come through	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To arrive • To survive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The news has just come through • She nearly died but managed to come through

Come to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To regain consciousness • To reach a state • To add up 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I think she is coming to life • What is the world coming to? • The bill comes to 1000naira
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With Call...

Call at	To visit	The train calls at enugu
Call back	To ring again	I'll call back later if she is busy
Call by	To visit	Do you mind if I call next Friday?
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To require • To demand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That calls for the strongest action by the teachers • The farmers called for better prices
Call in	To telephone	He called in to say he was sick
Call off	To cancel	They called off the match because of injury
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To visit. • To formally request 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let's call on Tony this evening • The UN called on both parties to cease fire
Call out	To announce	The teacher called out their names
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To telephone • To make something appear 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bobola called up last night • Joke called up the page from the website
Call up		

Practice Questions

1. The handle of the door ____ when I was trying to use it.
2. It's difficult to say how much this terrible situation ____
3. He never warns people before he ____
4. I fainted when I ____ there was no one to be seen
5. The government ____ everyone concerned to negotiate
6. I'm in the middle of a difficult sum. Could you ask him to ____ later
7. A new syllabus ____ some years ago
8. It's not a direct flight - it ____ Abuja on the way

9. I was amazed: I never thought that the plan they had developed would _____

10. I think that my work in English is _____very well.

3. From the comprehension passage above, answer the following questions-

1. Nyapol was sad to leave the village because of?

- a. she had lived there all her life
- b. she wanted to stay there with her mother and sisters
- c. she would deeply miss several people
- d. she knew she would miss the food
- e. she hated journeys

2. The rough journey was particularly unpleasant for Nyapol because?

- a. she was frightened of the dangerous bridges
- b. the bus was crowded and full of diesel fumes
- c. she was expecting a baby
- d. she had to stand
- e. the bus conductor was rude to her

3. How did the conductor justify himself when the passengers complained about the bus being too crowded

4. Why was the Government partly to blame according to the writer?

5. 'cigarette smoke, children vomiting and the smell of humanity...'

- what is the grammatical name to the above given expression,
- what is its function?

6. For each of the following words, find another word or phrase that means the same as used in the passage

- a. pounded
- b. bitterly

c. saturating

d. attach

Week 6

Topic: AUXILIARY VERBS (WILL & WOULD) AND INTONATION

Contents:

Auxiliary Verbs: Will and Would

Intonation

Writing Skills

A. AUXILIARY VERBS: WILL AND WOULD

Helping verbs or **Auxiliary verbs** such as *will, shall, may, might, would, need* are used in conjunction with **main verbs** to express shades of time and mood. The combination of helping verbs with main verbs creates what are called **verb phrases** or **verb strings**

Will

Used to express desire, preference, choice, or consent:

- I will take this apple if he doesn't want it.
- Will you stop talking like that?

Used to express the future:

- He will submit his classwork tomorrow.
- The news will spread soon.

Used to express capacity or capability:

- This place will hold three oranges.
- This airplane will take 200 passengers.

Used to express determination, insistence, or persistence:

- I will do exactly as you say.

Would (past form of will)

Often used in auxiliary functions with rather to express preference:

- I would rather go to the cinema today.
- We'd rather say something than stay quiet.

Used to express a wish or desire:

- I would like to have one more glass of juice

Used to express contingency or possibility:

- If I were you, I would be so happy.

Used to express routine or habitual things:

- Normally, we would work until 4 p.m. but today is a public holiday

B. INTONATION

Intonation is the way the pitch or the level of the voice goes up and down when we speak for proper pronunciation of English words, appropriate intonation must be given to speech.

Intonation gives the music of the speech and helps to convey the attitudinal meaning

TYPES OF INTONATION

1. Falling tune
2. Rising rune

Failing tune

Falling intonation is used for asking and giving information in normal, quiet, unemphatic style. At the same time, falling intonations convey certain emotions, such as completion, finality, confidence. Falling intonation sounds more categorical, confident and convincing than rising intonation.

Examples:

1. She brought some moin-moin from a road side – HAWKER
2. She BOUGHT some moin-moin from the hawker
3. She bought some MOIN-MOIN
4. Every evening I watch TELEVISION

C. WRITING SKILLS

Writing a report based on a graph

Many important decisions are taken based on statistical data. Records containing such data must be consulted before decisions are taken. That is why the school keeps records of your performance and behavior and why businesses keep records of capital investment, expenditure, profits, bad debts, bankrupt customers, names and addresses of shareholders and details of their holdings, dividends e.t.c

Practice:

Imagine you are the manager of your school's tuck shop. You have been asked to make recommendations about whether to increase the stock of bread or biscuit

Writing a report based on other information

A rich business woman is thinking of investing her money into a business. After doing a survey and research on students in a nearby school just beside the woman proposed site for business, and after having found out the basic needs of the students, write a report on your observations from the survey and suggest why she should invest in the business you are recommending.

Writing a letter of advice

A friend is thinking of starting up a business. You can decide what sort of business, it could be an internet café, a small shop or a restaurant. Write a letter to your friend containing practical hints, words of encouragement and also perhaps some words or warnings and risks involved in starting such business.

Exercise

1. What is the main function of auxiliary verbs in sentences?
2. Give some examples of auxiliary verbs.
3. What do you understand by intonation?
4. Mention the two types of intonation.

Week 7

Auxiliary Verbs (Shall & Should), Word Register and Speech Writing

Contents:

Skill Focus: How to Write a Speech

Structure: Auxiliary Verb (Shall/Should)

Word Register on Transportation

A. SKILL FOCUS: HOW TO WRITE A SPEECH

These notes will help you to prepare and give your speech.

1. Preparations

When preparing your speech, remember these three main factors:

- The Situation – What is the occasion – formal, semi-formal or informal? Should your tone be solemn or light-hearted?
- The Audience – Just your fellow students – or the general public?
- Your Purpose – You need to consider both the purpose of your speech, and the purpose of the meeting or occasion. How will your speech help achieve the purpose(s)?

2. The Structure of the speech

A typical speech follows this structure:

- The opening (greetings, the subject of the speech, opening remarks)
- The body of the speech
- Concluding remarks

3. Giving your speech

For the purposes of this book and the exam, you will be required to write out the speech in full. Many people find that writing out their speech like this gives confidence.

However, when you deliver your speech, as we have already said it is not a good idea to read it. You need to speak it, addressing the audience not a piece of paper.

That is why we recommend you list the points you want to make in note form on a piece of card, and refer to it as necessary. And of course, you should practise giving your speech in advance.

Practice: A much respected member of staff is about to leave the school. You have been asked to make a speech to give during morning assembly. Write your speech.

B. STRUCTURE: SHALL/SHOULD

Shall and should are auxiliary verbs. They are used as auxiliary verbs and always need a main verb to follow.

Shall

Mainly used in American English to ask questions politely (it has more usages in British English). For the future tense, will is more frequently used in American English than shall.

- Shall we eat?
- Shall I go now?
- Let's have a toast, shall we?

Often used in formal settings to deliver obligation or requirement:

- You shall abide by the rules and regulations of your school.
- There shall be no trespassing on this property.
- Students shall not enter the dining room during school hours.

Should (past form of shall)

Often used in auxiliary functions to express an opinion, suggestion, preference, or idea:

- You should visit the hospital today.
- I should take a bus this time.
- He should be more thoughtful in the decision-making process.

Used to express that you wish something had happened but it didn't or couldn't (should + have + past participle):

- You should have been there, it was a beautiful play.
- I should have completed it earlier to meet the deadline.
- We should have visited grandma on our way home.

Used to ask for someone's opinion:

- What should we do now?
- Should we continue our meeting?
- What should we eat at night?

Used to say something expected or correct:

- There should be a public water supply in this neighbourhood.
- Everybody should arrive before the match past
- We should be there this evening.

C. WORD REGISTER ON TRANSPORTATION

Transportation is the movement of humans, animals and goods from one place to the other. It is vital because the world's economic development is related to it.

Some means of transportation are:

Bicycle camels chariot

Cars motorcycle Auto ricks law

Horses Bus Trucks and Ships

Apart from the animals, all other means of transport are products of science and technology

Words that relate to transportation

- **Means of transportation**

Horses

Camels

Bicycles

Motorcycles

Cars, buses, trucks, lorries

A three-wheel

An aeroplane

A modern trains

Canoes, Boats, Ships

Helicopter

- **People involved in transportation**

Passenger

Drivers

Conductor

Air-hostess

Places

Bus-stop

Terminal

Run-way

Station

Motor parks

- **Parts/sections**

Fueling station

Engine

Service centre

Exercise

1. Write a speech on any preferred of your choice.
2. What are the similarities and differences between the words *shall* and *should*?
3. Write out about three hundred words that are associated with transportation.

Week 8

Topics: Writing: Semi Formal Letter

Structure: Punctuation Marks – Question mark, Exclamation mark, Full stop/Period.

Writing Narrative

A. SEMI-FORMAL LETTER

There are occasions when you will need to write someone a semi-formal letter. Usually, this will be a letter that you need to write to someone older than yourself but usually on a private of family matter.

A Semi-formal letter is type of that is sent to someone you know, but do not share cordial relationship with. A Semi-formal letter is also used in non-formal relationship, but which requires polite and respectful approach (e.g. a school teacher, school principal, etc.). Semi-formal letter is in-between Formal and Informal letter. Meaning, it is written in more polite tone compared to Informal letter.

Features of Semi-Formal Letter

1. Address (Top Right): Write the return address (your own address) followed by the date at the right hand side.

2. Salutation: “Dear Mrs Lucy” is perfect, If you do not know the name of the recipient, you may write the position as in “Dear Sir” or “Dear Madam”

Related Posts: [Grammar Clinic: Letter Writing \(Formal Letter\)](#)

3. Introduction: The introductory sentence should not be too formal or informal. For example:

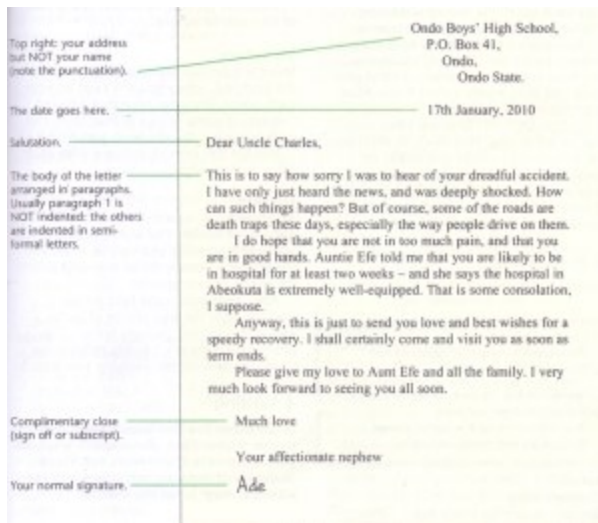
I thoroughly enjoyed the meeting we had on the 1st of April about the position of an account officer in your company. I was impressed in the industriousness I observed in your workers and I am confident I will fit in.

4. Body: Think about the body of your letter. Devote about four clear, direct and specific paragraphs to the body, and present only one main idea per paragraph.

Related post: [Grammar Clinic: Letter Writing \(Informal letter\)](#)

5. Write the appropriate closing: Closings range from more formal to less formal: “Respectfully yours,” “Yours very truly,” “Yours truly,” “Sincerely yours,” “Sincerely,” “Yours sincerely,” “Cordially,” “Best regards” “Warmest regards” “Best wishes” and “Best.”

6. Follow the complimentary close with your signature and your name.



Sample of Semi-Formal Letter

B. STRUCTURE:

PUNCTUATION MARKS – QUESTION MARK (?), EXCLAMATION MARK (!), FULL STOP (.).

Punctuation is used to create sense, clarity and stress in sentences. You use punctuation marks to structure and organise your writing.

We use a variety of punctuation marks, such as full stop/period, comma, question mark, brackets, etc. in our writing to separate sentences, phrases, etc., and to clarify their meaning. We need to familiarize ourselves with some basic rules in order to use these punctuation marks correctly.

Examples of Punctuation Marks

– Sentence Endings

Three of the fourteen punctuation marks are appropriate for use as sentence endings. They are the period, question mark, and exclamation point.

The period or full stop (.) is placed at the end of declarative sentences, statements thought to be complete and after many abbreviations. A **full stop** is placed at the end of each

sentence to indicate the end of the sentence, which can be a **statement, request or command**. A full stop is not used at the end of a **phrase or subordinate clause**. Doing so does not create complete sentences.

For example:

- As a sentence ender: I am going home.
- After an abbreviation: *Her* Sept. birthday came and went.

Usage of Full Stop or Period (.)

a. The period is used after most abbreviations:

Example: Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., Rev. Wed., Oct.

b. Most short versions of some specific expressions end in a period.

Example: A.M./a.m., P.M./p.m., p.a.

c. Only one full stop is used if a sentence ends with an **abbreviation**.

Example: Her biggest ambition is to successfully complete her M.A.

d. The period is used to show the **shortened** form of a word.

Example: Opp., mo. (Written abbreviations of 'opposite', 'month')

e. A full stop is always placed inside **quotation marks**, whether or not it is part of the quotation.

Example: John said, "That stray dog is not mine."
NOT: John said, "That stray dog is not mine".

The question mark (?) is used

- to indicate a direct question when placed at the end of a sentence.

E.g.: *When did Jane leave for the market ?*

- A question mark is used after a question that ends with an abbreviation.

E.g.: You said you saw the film show at about 7 p.m.?

The exclamation point/mark (!) is used when a person wants to express a sudden outcry or add emphasis. An **exclamation mark** is used after **interjections** or **commands**.

(An **interjection** is a word or phrase used to express a strong feeling.) It expresses an emotion such as surprise, anger, fear, pain or pleasure.

1. Within dialogue: *"Holy moses!" screamed David.*
2. To emphasize a point: *My mother-in-law's rants make me furious!*
3. To express an emotion: *What a complete waste of my time! / Sit over there and be quiet for an hour!*

C. WRITING NARRATIVE

One of the ways you can make writing more interesting is by bringing in the five senses. If you observe events using your five senses, then try to bring them into writing, you will in turn help your readers to use their five senses, in their imagination while reading. The readers will then find your writing more interesting. The five senses are Sight, Sound, Taste, Touch and Smell.

The six stages of writing

Stage 1: Preparation

- a. Initial thinking (Brainstorming)
- b. Minor ideas
- c. Drawing up the plan: Introduction, Development, Conclusion.

Stage 2: Rough Draft

Stage 3: Discuss with a partner

Stage 4: Final Draft

Stage 5: Final check

Stage 6: Studying Teacher's Feedback

Brainstorming

The point of the brainstorming stage is to think up ideas to write about – at this stage, in any order. Our brainstorming session might come up with a 'mind map' like the one below. Each idea is put in a separate 'bubble'.

Example:

A Recent Journey

Section 1 Introduction

Main Idea: Basic Info/Preparations

Minor Idea: My Uncle's Invitation to stay with him in Kaduna. Presentations – present. Packing. How I felt.

Section 2 Development

Main Idea A: Catching the bus

Minor Ideas: Brother saw me off. Busy Park. Very aggressive conductors. Look for a safe vehicle. What I saw/heard/smelt while waiting.

Main Idea B: First part of the journey

Minor Ideas: Unusual view of my home town from the bus. Dodging the traffic – bumpy roads, smell of fumes. Chat with person next to me.

Section 3 Conclusion

Main Idea: The end of the Journey

Minor Ideas: Arrival. Who was there to meet me.

Practice:

Following the stages outlined in this section, write about 300 words on one of the following. Don't forget to bring in some of the five senses. Describe a recent journey you made.

Exercise

1. Write a semi formal letter to an imaginary nurse who was friendly to you during your last visit to the husband.
2. Briefly discuss the six stages of planning a narrative.
3. Write an essay on the most interesting thing you have ever done.

Week 9

Homophone and Punctuation Marks

Contents:

Homophone: Homonyms, Heterographs, Homographs, Heteronyms

Punctuation marks: Comma, Colon, Semi-colon, Quotation, Brackets, Ellipsis, Speech marks, Slash, Square Brackets, Hyphen, Dash

A. HOMOPHONE

A homophone is a word that is pronounced the same as other words but differs in meaning, and may differ in spelling. A **homophone** is a word that is pronounced the same as another word but differs in meaning, and may differ in spelling. The words may be spelled the same, such as rose (flower) and rose (past tense of “rise”), or differently, such as carat, caret, and carrot, or to, two, and too.

The words may be spelled the same, or differently.

Examples

Same Spelling: Rose = Flower

Rose = past tense of rise

Different Spelling: Carat, Caret, Carrot

To, Two, Too

Heterographs are words that sound the same, but are spelled differently and have different meanings. They are also known as **homophonic heterographs**. English example sets are “there, their, and they’re”; “your, you’re, and yore”, “its and it’s”; and “here and hear”.

Heteronyms (also known as a **heterophone**) are words that are written identically but have a different pronunciation and meaning. In other words, they are homographs that are not homophones. Thus, *row* (propel with oars) and *row* (argument) are heteronyms, but *mean* (intend) and *mean* (average) are not (since they are pronounced the same). Heteronym pronunciation may vary in vowel realisation, in stress pattern or in other ways:

1. A **bass** was painted on the head of the **bass** drum.
2. They were too **close** to the door to **close** it.
3. Don’t **desert** me here in the **desert**!
4. When shot at, the **dove dove** into the bushes.
5. How can I **intimate** this to my most **intimate** friend?

6. The insurance was **invalid** for the **invalid**.

A **Homograph** is a word that shares the same written form as another word but has a different meaning. When spoken, the meanings may be distinguished by different pronunciations, in which case the words are also heteronyms. Words with the same writing *and* pronunciation (i.e. are both homographs and homophones) are considered homonyms.

Examples:

(1)
bear (verb) – to support or carry
bear (noun) – the animal

In (1) the words are identical in spelling and pronunciation (i.e. they are also homophones), but differ in meaning and grammatical function.

(2)
sow (verb) – to plant seed
sow (noun) – female pig

(2) is an example of two words spelt identically but pronounced differently. Here confusion is not possible in spoken language but can occasionally occur in written language.

Heterograph

Different spelling and meaning e.g too/two

Different spelling e.g gasses/gasses

Homonym

Different meaning e.g. tire (car wheel) tire (fatigue)

Identical words

Heteronym

Different pronunciation and meaning e.g desert (arid region) / desert cleave)

Different pronunciation e.g the (before vowel sound) / the (before consonant sound)

B. PUNCTUATION MARKS

Punctuation is the system of signs or symbols given to a reader to show how a sentence is constructed and how it should be read.

THE COMMA (,)

The comma, semicolon and colon are often misused because they all can indicate a pause in a series.

The comma is used to show a separation of ideas or elements within the structure of a sentence. Additionally, it is used in letter writing after the salutation and closing.

- Separating elements within sentences: Suzi wanted the black , green, red, pink, white and blue shoes.

Note that in a list, the final two items are linked by the word 'and' rather than by a comma.

- Letter Salutations: Dear Uncle John , Dear Miss Busola,
- Separation of two complete sentences: We went to the movies , and we went to the beach.

The comma is useful in a sentence when the writer wishes to:

pause before proceeding

add a phrase that does not contain any new subject

separate items on a list

use more than one adjective (a describing word, like beautiful)

For example, in the following sentence the phrase or clause between the commas gives us more information behind the actions of the boy, the subject of the sentence:

The boy, who knew that his mother was about to arrive, ran quickly towards the opening door.

THE COLON (:)

A colon (:) has two main uses:

The first is after a word introducing a quotation, an explanation, an example, or a series. It is also often used after the salutation of a business letter.

The second is within time expressions. Within time, it is used to separate out the hour and minute: 11:00am.

A **colon** is used before a **list** and usually after 'as follows.'

E.g.: This basket contains the following fruits: mango, pawpaw, watermelon, apple and pineapple.

It is used to separate the hour from the minutes when telling time

E.g.: 12:13am

It can be used within a heading, or descriptive title.

Example:

Comedy or Reality: A man slapped his wife over lunch.

SEMI-COLON (;)

The semi-colon is perhaps the most difficult sign of punctuation to use accurately. If in doubt, avoid using it and convert the added material into a new sentence.

As a general rule, the semi-colon is used in the following ways:

A **semicolon** is used to join two **sentences, independent clauses** or a **series of items** which are closely connected in meaning.

Examples:

We leave for Ibadan at noon; the weather looks promising.

He gives up smoking; obviously, he fears contracting one of the smoking-related diseases

The semi-colon can also be used to assemble detailed lists.

Examples:

The conference was attended by delegates from Ikeja, Lagos; Agbowo, Ibadan; Wuse, Abuja; Daura, Katsina; and Sabongari, Kano.

The semicolon (;) is used to connect independent clauses. It shows a closer relationship between the clauses than a period would show. For example: John was hurt ; he knew she only said it to upset him.

THE APOSTROPHE (')

An apostrophe (') sometimes called inverted comma is used to indicate the omission of a letter or letters from a word, the possessive case, or the plurals of lowercase letters.

- The apostrophe indicates possession or ownership.

For example:

The boy's car is red, (girl is in the singular).

This shows the reader that the car belongs to the boy.

The boys' cars are green, (boys in this instance are plural, i.e. more than one boy, more than one car).

This indicates that the cars belong to the boys.

- to form **contractions** by showing the numbers or letters that have been left out.

E.g.: I am = I'm / we are = we're / he will, you're

'89

=1989

- to form the **possessive** of a noun.

Add 's to a single noun or name: uncle's pipe; Tony's girlfriend; dog's tail; Bobola's car.
Add 's to singular noun that end in -s: actress's role; princess's lover; rhinoceros's skin.
Add 's to plural nouns that end in -s: boys' bicycles; friends' houses; books' covers
Add 's to other plural nouns: children's toys; women's clothes; men's boots.
Add 's to a person's office or shop: I'll buy the pork at the butcher's. / I'll be visiting Tom's.
Add 's only after the second name: Jack and Jill's pail; Bonnie and Clyde's loot.

- to form the plural of abbreviations: many Dr.'s; many M.D.'s; many Ph.D.'s.

QUOTATION OR SPEECH MARKS ("...")

Quotation or speech marks are used to:

To mark out speech

When quoting someone else's speech

For example:

My grandma said, "Share your chocolates with your friends."

"George, don't do that!"

"Will you get your books out please?" said Mrs Jones, the teacher, "and quieten down!"

HYPHEN (-)

The hyphen is used to link words together.

For example:

- twentieth-century people
- second-class upper
- non-verbal

Generally, hyphens are used to join two words or parts of words together while avoiding confusion or ambiguity.

EXAMPLES

show-down

up-to-date

There are some cases where hyphens preserve written clarity such as where there are letter collisions, where a prefix is added, or in family relations. Many words that have been hyphenated in the past have since dropped the hyphen and become a single word (email, nowadays).

EXAMPLES

- co-operate
- oval-like
- anti-bomb
- post-colonial
- great-grandmother
- mother-in-law

HYPHENS IN NUMBERS

Hyphen is used with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.

EXAMPLES

- Twenty-two
- seventy-five
- thirty-three
- sixty-nine

In written fractions, a hyphen is placed between the numerator and denominator except if there is already a hyphen in either the numerator or the denominator.

EXAMPLES

two-thirds

one-eight

three-tenths

six-hundredths

A Hyphen is used when a number forms part of an adjectival compound

EXAMPLES

Bobola has a 55-hour working week.

Busola won the 12000-metre marathon race.

Wole Soyinka was a great nineteenth-century novelist.

DASHES

Dashes can be used to add parenthetical statements or comments in much the same way as you would use brackets. In formal writing you should use the bracket rather than the dash as a dash is considered less formal. Dashes can be used to create emphasis in a sentence.

EXAMPLES

You may think she is a liar – she isn't.

Osas might come to the party – you never know.

BRACKETS ()

Brackets always come in pairs () and are used to make an aside, or a point which is not part of the main flow of a sentence. If you remove the words between the brackets, the sentence should still make sense.

For example:

“The strategy (or strategies) chosen to meet the objectives may need to change as the intervention continues.”

SQUARE BRACKETS [...]

A different set of square brackets [] can be used:

to abbreviate lengthy quotations

to correct the tense of a quotation to suit the tense of your own sentence

to add your own words to sections of an abbreviated quotation.

To abbreviate lengthy quotations in an essay or report

Example:

“We can define class as a large-scale grouping of people who share common economic resources that strongly influence the types of lifestyle they are able to lead. Ownership of wealth, together with occupation, are the chief basis of class differences. The major classes that exist in Western societies are an upper class [...]; a middle class [...] and a working class [...].”

(Giddens, 1997, p.243)

SLASH (/)

Many people use the slash instead of or, and etc., but this is not always helpful to the reader. There is, however, a modern convention in gender-neutral writing to use 's/he'.

Slashes are important symbols in web-addresses (URLs). The full URL for this page is <https://www.Teststreams.com/Blog/>

ELLIPSIS (...)

An ellipsis (three dots) indicates that part of the text has been intentionally been left out.

Example: List of odd numbers between 1 and 99 – 1,3,5,... 99.

Exercise

1. Homophones may differ from the words their pronunciations are similar to in either of two ways which are— and ———? (A. Meaning and Spelling B. Meaning and sound C. spelling and sound D. None of the above E. All f the above)
2. What are heterographs?
3. List and differentiate twenty heteronyms you know.
4. What do you understand by a homograph?
5. In your opinion, which is the most used punctuation mark?

SS1

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

THIRD TERM

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Week 1

Topic: Common Misspelled Words; The Use of the Dictionary; Idioms

Commonly Misspelled Words

In written language, spelling is the choice and arrangement of letters that form words, it can also mean, forming of words with letters in an accepted order; orthography (the act or process of writing words using the letter conventionally accepted for their formation).

Note: Orthography is the art of writing words according to accepted usage.

Heterography: is the practice of spelling in way contrary to standard usage.

Here are some of the reasons people misspell words.

Mispronunciation

Mispronunciation is known to be one of the commonest causes of misspelling. Hence, phonetic misspelling is common, once a word is mispronounced; for example, the word “realize” may be misspelled as “relize”.

Typing errors

Some spelling errors are introduced because people’s typing isn’t perfect, such as

- letters are doubled, or more frequently double letters tripled, such as “between” and “betweeen”
- letters are singled, such as “betwen”
- keys are transposed, so “because” becomes “becuase”.

Some of the errors listed may be due to mistyping rather than ignorance, for example “solider” for “soldier”.

These misspellings can also happen in handwritten text.

Examples of commonly misspelled words are seen in the table below

Correct Spelling

Absence
Accidentally
Accommodate
Acknowledge
Acquaintance
Acquit
Advisable
Aggression
Annually
Atheist
Buoyant
Camouflage
Caribbean
Committed
Conscientious
Conscious
Consensus
Disappoint
Drunkenness
Disastrous
Embarrass
Fascinating
Fulfil
Gauge
Grateful
Harass
Hierarchy
Humorous
Inoculate
Intelligence
Leisure
Liaison
Maintenance
Millennium
Misspell
Necessary
Neighbor
Occasion
Occurrence
Omission

Common Misspelling

Absense
Accidental, Acidental
Accomodate, Acommodate
Acknowlege, Aknowledge
Acquaintence, Aquaintance
Aquit
Adviseable
Aggresion, Agression
Annualy, Anually
Athiest
Bouyant
Camoflage, Camoflague
Carribean
Committed, Comitted
Consciencious
Consciuous
Concensus
Disapoint
Drunkenness
Disasterous
Embarass
Facinating
Fullfil
Guage
Gratefull, Greatful
Harrass
Heirarchy
Humerous
Innoculate
Inteligence
Liesure
Liason
Maintainance, Maintnance
Millenium, Milennium
Mispell, Misspel
Neccessary
Nieghbor
Occassion
Ocurrence, Occurrence
Ommission, Omision

Personnel	Personel
Perseverance	Perseverence
Plagiarize	Plagerize
Playwright	Playright
Possession	Poesession, Possesion
Privilege	Privelege, Priviledge
Pronunciation	Pronounciation
Questionnaire	Questionaire
Referred	Refered
Repetition	Repitition
Rhythm	Rythm
Separate	Seperate
Skillful	Skilfull, Skilful
Successful	Sucessful, Successfull, Succesful
Supersede	Supercede
Surprise	Suprise

Lesson Two: Use of the Dictionary

DICTIONARY

A dictionary is a collection of words in one or more specific languages, often listed alphabetically with usage of information, definitions, etymologies, phonetics, pronunciation, translation, and other information. It is also a book of words in one language with their equivalents in another, also known as a lexicon. It is a lexicographical product designed for utility and function, curated with selected data, presented in a way that shows inter-relationships among the data.

Dictionary is usually understood to refer to a monolingual general-purpose dictionary.

CATEGORIES OF DICTIONARY

- **General dictionary**
- **Specialized dictionary**

Specialized dictionary doesn't contain information about words that are used by ordinary people in everyday situations. Lexical items that describe concepts in specific fields are usually called terms instead of words.

General dictionary is supposed to be semasiological, mapping word to definitions, while specialized dictionary is supposed to be onomasiological, first identifying concepts and then establishing the terms used to designate them. In practice, the two approaches are used for both types.

There are other types of dictionaries that don't fit neatly in the above distinction, for instance bilingual (translation) dictionaries, dictionaries of synonyms (thesauri), or rhyming dictionaries, Encyclopedic dictionaries. The word dictionary (unqualified) is usually understood to refer to a monolingual general-purpose dictionary.

USES OF DICTIONARY

1. It tells one the meaning of words
2. It ensures that you learn how to spell new words
3. It also helps you with the correct oral translation/pronunciation of words

A dictionary is essential for finding the meaning of words and it has the capacity of defining words and phrases including multiple meaning.

WHAT A DICTIONARY DOES

A dictionary will give you the following information about a word:

1. How to spell the word and its special plural form
2. Whether or not the word is capitalized or abbreviated
3. How to break the word into syllables
4. How to pronounce the word
5. The part of speech of a word
6. Different meanings that the word has, as well as synonyms (same meaning) and antonyms (opposite meaning)
7. A sentence or expression with the word used correctly
8. The meanings of important prefixes and suffixes
9. The special uses of the word
10. The history of the word
11. Other words derived from the main word

Special sections in some dictionaries tell you about:

1. Foreign words and phrases
2. Abbreviations
3. Addresses of colleges or government offices
4. The population of cities and countries

Applying the following pointers will save time when you use a dictionary:

1. Know and use proper alphabetical order
2. Use guide words to save time
3. Check all abbreviations and symbols in the special sections

4. If at first you don't succeed in finding the word, don't give up. You might need to check several possible spellings before finding the word
5. Substitute the meaning you find for the word in the sentence. Be sure you select the most appropriate meaning, not merely the first one you come to
6. Try saying the word aloud after you look at the pronunciation key.

Lesson Three: Idioms

An *idiom* is a commonly used expression whose meaning does not relate to the literal meaning of its words. A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words. An idiom's figurative meaning is different from the literal meaning. There are thousands of idioms, and they occur frequently in all languages.

Examples of Idiomatic Expressions

1. She is **pulling my leg** – *To pull someone's leg* means to trick them by telling them something untrue.

Literal meaning is physical pulling of the leg is quite different from the figurative expression.

2. Wow! It's **raining cats and dogs** out there – It is raining heavily.

Literal meaning is instead of water from the rain we have cats and dogs which isn't possible.

3. That shoe costs **an arm and a leg**. – *an arm and a leg* means something is very expensive

4. **Every cloud has a silver lining** – Be optimistic, even difficult times will lead to better days.

5. Oh no! You **spilled the beans!** – *to spill the beans* means to let out a secret.

Practice:

Find the meanings of these idioms

1. Tolu **let the cat out of the bag**
2. I warned you not **to put all your eggs in one basket**
3. I perceive there is a **method to his madness**

4. Hmmm!!! **Speak of the devil**

5. Mr Mashana has **kicked the bucket**

ASSESSMENT

1. ---is said to be the commonest cause of misspelling? (A. Mispronunciation B. Incomplete English alphabet C. Inability to pay attention to details D. None of the above)
2. Writing words according to the accepted usage is called---? (A. Orthography B. Phonetics C. Vowels D. Alphabets)
3. What is heterography?
4. What is a dictionary and what are some of its uses?
5. Explain what you understand by idioms.

ANSWER

1. A
2. B
3. The use of the same letter or combination of letters to represent different sounds, as, in English, the use of s in sit and easy.
4. a book or electronic resource that lists the words of a language (typically in alphabetical order) and gives their meaning, or gives the equivalent words in a different language, often also providing information about pronunciation, origin, and usage.
5. A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words (e.g. *over the moon, see the light*).

Week 2

Topic: Summary: Practical Approach to Writing good Summary; Words Associated with Advertising; Adjuncts

How to Write a good Summary

How do you go about summarizing a composition? There are five stages

1. **Find the relevant parts of the text:** First you have to find quickly the relevant parts of the text.
2. **List or find the key points:** Summaries must contain the key points, each point included earns a mark. Some students make a list of points to include if there is time, others underline them in the book if it is their own.
3. Write a rough draft of the entire composition.
4. Write your own final draft of the summary and make necessary adjustments.
5. **Final check:** Check your final draft for careless errors.

Notes:

The summary must bring out the key elements in the composition.

The first person 'I' must be avoided in summary.

The summary should be written in your own words, it does NOT just lift whole sentences from the original composition.

Lesson Two

Vocabulary: Word Register (Advertising)

What is Advertising?

Advertising refers to a paid, mediated, form of communication from an identifiable source, designed to persuade the receiver to take some action, now or in the future.

Words Associated with Advertising

- Advertising Allowance
- Advertising Budget
- Advertising Elasticity
- Advertising page exposure
- Advertising plan
- Advertising research
- Advocacy Advertising
- Acronym: A.I.D.A
- Aided recall
- Appeal
- Acronym: A.A (Average Audience)
- Bill board
- Card rate
- Channel of distribution
- Operative advertising
- Jingle
- Market segmentation
- Marketing research

Read the passage below and fill in the blank spaces with the most suitable words from options A to D below the passage. Discuss your answers with your teachers.

Advertising

A notice on the noticeboard in your school is a form of advertising. It might advertise an event, such as football match, or a play, or a concert. Its aim is to attract people to the event, and to inform them about (1).....

In the world beyond school, advertising has become big business. The success or failure of a new (2)..... on the market may depend on how it is advertised. For a local shop in a small town, a (3) can be produced and distributed in the street. Even if it is to give out the right message.

If large sums of money are involved, companies will often go to an advertising (4) This kind of organization specializes in the best methods of advertising, and can play a key part in the (5) of a product. They may make advertisements for TV or radio and design (6) to go on advertising (7).....

Sometimes an organization may wish to improve its public (8) the way members of the public perceive it. For example, NEPA may wish to make people feel more

appreciative of its efforts to serve the public despite the many problems it faces. To do this, a company might sign a (9) with a (10)..... agency which will advise them on their public image.

Options

S/N	A	B	C	D
1	Inform	Details	Information	Events
2	Produce	Product	Event	Factor
3	Handbill	Handout	Poster	Sheet
4	Body	Advisory	Corporation	Agency
5	Prestige	Publicity	Market	Promotion
6	Handbills	Posters	Stickers	Pictures
7	Hoardings	Signposts	Signs	Neon
8	Perception	Spending	Image	Relationship
9	Agreement	Contract	Paper	Poster
10	Public relations	Publicity	Cosmetics	News

Lesson Three

Adjuncts

An Adjunct means ‘something adjoining’ or ‘added on’. An adjunct is a word or group of words (i.e., a phrase or a clause) which can be removed without making the sentence grammatically wrong. An adjunct could be left out, and the sentence would still have a meaning.

Adjunct is something added in, but not part of the whole if refers to a word or word group that qualifies or completes the meaning of another word or other word and is not, itself a main structure element in its sentence.

In addition adjunct refers to a word, phrases of clauses usually an adverbial that integrated within the structure of a sentence. Unlike a disjunct or sentence adverb and that can be omitted without making the sentence ungrammatical.

Adjunct is optional or secondary elements in a construction. An adjunct may be removed without the structural. An adjunct may be removed without the structural identify of the rest of the construction using affected.

Example: She told me the news *joyfully*

‘She told me the news’ is a perfectly good sentence. Why Adjuncts at all? The answer is that adjuncts like *joyfully* make what we say more interesting and informative.

Multiple Adjuncts

There can be more than one adjunct in a sentence. You can find adjuncts by stripping down the sentence to its base components usually subject, verb and object. Everything else then is an adjunct.

Example: Eventually she found the money on the table near the wall clock.

The basic sentence here is 'She found the money'. How many adjuncts are there?

Two adjuncts: 'On the table' and 'near the clock'

Types of Adjuncts

There are different types of Adjuncts.

Adjunct of Place : It answers the question Where?

The burglars came again **to the house**

Adjunct of Time: It answers the question When?

He is traveling later **today**

Adjunct of Manner: It answers the question How?

He presented his case **carefully**

Adjunct of Reason: It answers the question Why?

The glass cup broke **due to his negligence**

Adjunct of Purpose: It answers the question What for?

I need money **to buy a black pen**

Practice:

Identify the adjuncts in the following sentences and state what type of adjunct

1. He was sleeping on the bed in his mother's room

2. Her mother visited he last Friday

3. Sorrowfully she left the room
4. On 25th December he traveled to Port Harcourt to see his cousin
5. Owing to his eye problem, he couldn't take his examination last week Tuesday
6. One morning, a boy was cycling slowly along the express way
7. After the match, the boys celebrated happily

ASSESSMENT

1. Briefly explain how to write a good summary.
2. What is advertising?
3. What is an adjunct?
4. List and explain the different types of adjunct that you know.

ANSWER

1. **1. Find the relevant parts of the text:** First you have to find quickly the relevant parts of the text.

2. List or find the key points: Summaries must contain the key points, each point included earns a mark. Some students make a list of points to include if there is time, others underline them in the book if it is their own.

3. Write a rough draft of the entire composition.

4. Write your own final draft of the summary and make necessary adjustments.

5. Final check: Check your final draft for careless errors.
2. A notice or announcement in a public medium promoting a product, service, or event or publicizing a job vacancy.
3. An adjunct is a word or group of words (i.e., a phrase or a clause) which can be removed without making the sentence grammatically wrong.
4. **Adjunct of Manner:** It answers the question How?

He presented his case carefully

Adjunct of Reason: It answers the question Why?

The glass cup broke due to his negligence

Adjunct of Purpose: It answers the question What for?

I need money to buy a black pen

Week 3

Topic: Summarizing to Identify the Writer's Purpose; Words Associated with Stock Exchange; How to Write an Article

Summary: Identification of a Writer's Purpose

What are the reasons behind why people write what they write? Could they be writing to *persuade*, to *entertain*, to *inform* or to *express*? There is a reason behind any topic a writer chooses to write about. As a matter of fact, a writer may have more than one purpose for writing a piece; said purpose which may be explicitly stated or left to be inferred by the readers.

Having said that, it is therefore the work of readers to be reflective and be able to analyze information contained in their reads so that they may be able to pinpoint any writer's purpose. This is important because identifying the author's purpose will give readers clues about how to approach a text and what strategies to use before, during, and after reading to build understanding. Below are some guiding tips (questions you must strive to answer while reading) to help you understand an author's purpose for writing anything-

Tips: Guiding Questions

- Based on the title, why do think the author wrote this selection?
- Which words do you think best describe the main reason the author wrote this selection: to provide readers with information? To describe a person, event, or issue? To express their own thoughts and feelings? To persuade readers to think about an issue in a certain way and to take action? Or to entertain the reader?
- Why did the author write the article from a particular point of view?

- How did the author influence your response to the selection?
- Was the author's purpose specifically stated?
- Do you think that the author achieved his/her intended purposes? Did the article effectively give information? Entertain readers? Express the author's thoughts and feelings? Persuade readers to think about an issue and/or take action?
- What examples from the text support your conclusions about author's purpose?

Lesson Two

Words Associated with Stock Exchange

Bear: Business someone who expects the prices of shares to fall, so they sell them

Bearish: Expecting the prices of shares to fall; A bearish market is one in which the prices of shares are falling

Bear market: A situation in the stock market in which the prices of shares are falling

Bid: Business an offer to buy the shares in a company and take control of it

Bid price: The price at which shares are bought on a stock exchange

Bondholder: Someone who owns government or company bonds

Broker-dealer: A person or company that buys and sells stocks, shares, or goods for other people

Bull: Business someone who expects the prices of shares to rise and may buy them so they can sell them later at a profit

Bullish: In business, a bullish market is one in which the prices of shares are rising

Buy-back: An arrangement in which someone agrees to buy back shares or goods that they previously sold to someone

Buy-in: A situation in which a group of managers buys some or all of the shares in a company that they do not work for

Buyout: situation in which the managers or people employed in a company take control of it by buying all of its shares

Capitalization: The total value of all the shares in one or more companies on a market

close: Business to have a particular value when people stop buying and selling on a stock exchange at the end of a day

Controlling interest: A situation in which someone owns enough shares in a company to be able to make decisions about what the company does

Corporate bond: A type of bond (=official document given to someone who has lent money, promising to pay that money back) that is provided by a public company

Corporate raider: A person or organization that tries to take control of a company by buying a large number of its shares

Correction: Business a fall in values on the stock market following a period when values have risen very fast

Crash: Economics if the stock market crashes, its value falls suddenly

Day trading: The activity of buying shares and selling them for a profit later in the same day

Dealing room: A room at a stock exchange where shares are bought and sold

Equity: The value of a company's shares

Float: Business to start to sell a company's shares on the stock market

Floor: An area where shares in companies are bought and sold

Flotation: The sale of shares in a company for the first time

Futures market: The activity of buying and selling shares, goods, or currency at an agreed price to be delivered at a time in the future

Gain: If shares or the markets gain, the value of shares increases

grey market: The activity of buying and selling company shares before they are officially available

Hedge: To buy and sell shares in such a way that the risk of losing money is low

Holding: A part of a company that someone owns in the form of a share or shares

IPO: Initial public offering: an occasion when shares in a company are first sold to the public

irredeemable: Irredeemable stock cannot be sold in return for money

Market Capitalization: A way of measuring the value of a company calculated by multiplying the number of the company's shares by their price on the stock market

Market maker: Someone whose job is to buy and sell stocks and shares for other people on the stock market

Ordinary shares: The majority of the shares into which the capital of a company is divided. The people who own these shares have the right to a part of the company's profits.

Lesson Three

Writing: How to Write an Article

The way you write an article depends very much on whom you are writing for. For example, if you are writing an article about Islam for someone who is not a Muslim, the article will be very different from one you write for someone who is a Muslim.

Articles vary a great deal in the way they are arranged, but as we have seen you can't go wrong with following all purpose plan.

Introduction

Define the subject and purpose of your article. Try to start off in an interesting way to capture the attention and interest of the reader.

The Body of the Article

Arrange the information logically. Each paragraph should deal with a single thought or set of information. In the case of a sequence of events, you will need to decide how to 'parcel them up' in neat groups. For example, in the case of Muhammad, you might have one paragraph describing the events before he went to Medina, one on while he was in Medina and one after his return from Mecca.

The Conclusion

This could be a general summing up of the contents or an overall statement of the importance or value of the subject. It might also indicate possible future developments or possible lines of study.

Practice:

Write an article on the topic "The Merits and Demerits of Peer Group"

Lesson Four

Oral English: Sounds /s/ and /z/

The /s/ and /z/ sounds are another unvoiced – voiced pair: /s/ unvoiced and /z/ voiced. Although /s/ should not be a problem but some Nigerians have difficulty with /z/.

Now pronounce these words

/s/

Sink

Cease

Police

Price

/z/

Zinc

Seize

Please

Prize

Note that the usual spelling of /s/ is 's' or 'ce' and the usual spelling of /z/ is z. However, 's' in spelling often has a /z/ sound, not an /s/ sound, especially at the end of a word.

Pronounce the following words, giving 's' at /z/ sound.

his those was rains years names

knees sings praise bodies feeds dogs

Sometimes a word can be spelt in one way but have two different pronunciations – one with /s/, one with /z/. And sometimes, though two words may have nearly the same sound or spelling, one contains /s/ while the other contains /z/

Read the following words or phrases line by line, carefully noting the difference

/s/

Used to

A close friend

A fine house

Advice

Decease

The rain ceased

Loose talk

A diploma course

Practice:

1. spare

a. stomach

b. usual

c. busy

d. zone

2. please

a. sixth

b. ignorance

/z/

To use

To close

To house

To advise

Disease

They seized their bags

Don't lose your money

Cause and effect

c. neighbors

d. police

3. miss

a. sugar

b. simple

c. sham

d. realize

4. tease

a. vest

b. zip

c. crisis

d. sir

ASSESSMENT

1. Different writers have different reasons for writing. True or false?
2. Why is it important for a reader to identify the writer's purpose?
3. List and explain some of the words associated with the stock exchange.
4. Briefly discuss the different parts of an article.

ANSWER

1. True
2. To understand the writer
3. Gain: If shares or the markets gain, the value of shares increases

grey market: The activity of buying and selling company shares before they are officially available

Hedge: To buy and sell shares in such a way that the risk of losing money is low

Holding: A part of a company that someone owns in the form of a share or shares

IPO: Initial public offering: an occasion when shares in a company are first sold to the public

irredeemable: Irredeemable stock cannot be sold in return for money

4.

Introduction

Define the subject and purpose of your article. Try to start off in an interesting way to capture the attention and interest of the reader.

The Body of the Article

Arrange the information logically. Each paragraph should deal with a single thought or set of information. In the case of a sequence of events, you will need to decide how to 'parcel them up' in neat groups. For example, in the case of Muhammad, you might have one paragraph describing the events before he went to Medina, one on while he was in Medina and one after his return from Mecca.

The Conclusion

This could be a general summing up of the contents or an overall statement of the importance or value of the subject. It might also indicate possible future developments or possible lines of study.

Week 4

Topic: Differentiating between Main and Supporting Ideas; Words Associated with Government and Politics; Consonant Clusters, Writing Skills and Word Inference

Differentiating between Main and Supporting Ideas

The main idea and supporting idea are two of the most confusing elements when writing sentences and paragraphs. However, knowing the differences between the two can actually brought an end to said confusion. The truth is that differentiating between the two is just as easy as knowing the difference between day and night. The terms 'main idea' and 'supporting idea' both have to do with the central idea of a sentence or a paragraph. Yet, inasmuch as both may mean the same thing, they are absolutely different. How so? Read on to find out.

The main idea is the most general idea that the writer wishes to convey. It is composed of an entire phrase or sentence expressing the main thought of the sentence or paragraph. Examples of main ideas are, dogs can be trained, cats have nine lives, my grandmother is old, your mistakes cost the team's defeat, her comb was custom-made, and many others. Main ideas are stated using full statements.

On the other hand, supporting ideas are additional details that support the main idea or topic sentence in a paragraph. In other words, the main idea lets the reader understand and learn more about the main idea. These details can be reasons, descriptions, examples, explanations or comparisons.

Lesson Two

Words Associated with Government and Politics

Administration: The government of a country

Affairs: Events and activities relating to the government, politics, economy etc of a country, region, or the world

Government: The process, method, or effects of governing

Political: Relating to politics; interested or involved in politics

Politicise: To bring an issue, organization, way of doing something etc to the attention of the public so that it can be discussed; to make someone more interested and involved in politics

Politicking: Political activity by someone who is only interested in doing things for their own advantage, not in helping other people

Public affairs: Political issues that affect most people

Public life: Work that involves being known to a lot of people, especially in politics, but also in religion and education

Public office: A job in the government that you have because you were chosen or elected

Public service: Work or important positions in government, or in organizations controlled by the government

Representation: In politics, the job of officially helping people and making decisions for them

Sociopolitical: Involving a combination of social and political matters

State: The government of a country

Play politics: To use politics for your own reasons, without caring about the effects on other people

The corridors (of power): The places where people use their political influence and major political decisions are made

Lesson Three

Consonant Clusters

A common consonant cluster is /k/ followed by /w/, giving /kw/. It usually has the spelling 'qu'. Practice saying following words. If you find it difficult to pronounce the /w/ (=u) after the /k/ (=q), try saying each sound very slowly at first, but be careful to avoid putting a vowel (e.g. /u/ between the /k/ and /w/).

qualify quality quick quench

acquire question quota choir

/kw/ and /k/

Some people try to put a /w/ sound after /k/ when it is not supposed to be there. For example, these words start with /k/ NOT /kw/

/k/	/kw/
Kill	Quill
Kick	Quick
Keen	Queen
Kit	Quit
Coral	Quarrel

Note that when 'que' comes at the end of a word or syllable, it is pronounced not as /kw/ but as /k/. Try these words

unique masquerade opaque picturesque

Also note that the letter 'u' is silent in some words

biscuit guilt guest quay

/skw/

This is a three consonant cluster written as 'squ'. Try the following

squeeze squander squeak squash

Lesson Four

Writing: Hints on Writing a Summary

Mr Iloma's speech contains 143 words. Complete the blanks below with eight words to produce a short version of his remarks in no more than 50 words.

The speaker said that new and developments had not, and this had had bad results. The of the oil market had also contributed. As a, beer consumption had grown only during the year. Despite these, the company's had nearly doubled.

Here are some common ways of shortening a text.

1. Use an adverb to express a complex idea, for example the word 'unfortunately' makes it unnecessary to say that the company had hoped X, and were disappointed.
2. Use one abstract noun instead of longer noun phrases, for example replace 'the weak position' by 'the weakness'.
3. Use simple phrases to summarize ideas expressed more wordily, for example what do the words 'had had bad results' replace?
4. Avoid repeating unnecessary words or ideas, for example 'The weakness of the oil market had also contributed'.
5. Cut out unnecessary words, for example saying that the profits had nearly doubled makes the reference to 'impressive and commendable operating results' unnecessary.

Week 5

Writing Skills: Scanning, Structure: Conjunctions, Disjunctions, Determiners and Qualifiers.

Contents:

Writing Skills: Scanning

Structure: Conjunctions and Disjunctions

Determiners and Qualifiers

A. Reading Skills: Scanning

Scanning means reading very quickly through a text to find specific information. When you scan, you don't read all the words on the page. You let your eye move over the page quickly to pick out the information you want.

Skills Focus: How Link words help us Scan.

In a well developed paragraph, each idea must be linked to the idea that comes before or after it. There are certain words or phrases in English that we can use to show these links. When we scan a text, spotting these links help us follow a writer's thinking quickly and easily.

Here are some examples of link words:

1. To give a purpose or result: so, so that, therefore.

2. By restarting a point: in other words

e.g. in other words, these manufacturers are not only selling cream but hope

3. To show a sequence or list

4. To give a reason: because, for this reason, why

e.g. I slapped him because he stole my sweet

5. To add information: another, other, also

He gave Tolu 500 naira and he also gave Teni too

6. To present a contrasting idea: but, however, though, on the other hand

e.g. He is friendly though he lacks manners.

7. To provide examples: for instance, for example.

Sometimes we find a link when a word in one paragraph is repeated in the next.

Link words are very important for scanning to be made possible.

B. Structure: Conjuncts and Disjuncts

A **Conjunct** relates what is said in a sentence to another sentence. As such, it is not part of the structure of the sentence in which it is used.

Example of a conjunct: **However**, things turned out much worse than expected. (*‘However’* relates what is said to contrast it with previous information about the speaker’s expectations.)

Conjuncts can appear initially before a negative statement.

e.g. **Therefore**, he couldn’t come

A **disjunct** is a type of adverbial that expresses information that is not considered essential to the sentence it appears in, but which is considered to be the speaker’s or writer’s attitude towards, or descriptive statement of, the propositional content of the sentence.

For example:

- **Fortunately**, we managed to get there on time.
“Fortunately” shows us that the speaker was pleased about the result of the action.

More generally, the term **disjunct** can be used to refer to any sentence element that is not fully integrated into the clausal structure of the sentence. Such elements usually appear peripherally (at the beginning or end of the sentence) and are set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma (in writing) and a pause (in speech).

Disjuncts are evaluative

They express the speaker’s mind:

Judgement of the truth of the utterance (modal disjuncts)

For example:

- probably, certainly, maybe

The speaker’s evaluation of a fact (fact-evaluating disjuncts)

For example:

- fortunately, actually, to my surprise

The speaker’s comment on his/her own wording of the sentence

For example:

- briefly, in other words, to tell you the truth

Or the speaker's comment on the subject referent (subject-evaluating disjuncts) For example:

- Wisely, she spent the money
* She was wise to spend the money'

Examples of Disjuncts

- Honestly, I couldn't believe it.
- Unfortunately, Kim has had to leave us.
- Honestly, I didn't do it.
- Fortunately for you, I have it right here.
- In my opinion, the green one is better.
- Frankly, Martha, I don't give a hoot.

C. Determiners and Qualifiers

Determiners are a small group of short but highly important words which come before nouns. A determiner specifies a noun but does not describe it. This is the job of an adjective. The main kinds of determiners are:

1. articles – definite (the) and indefinite (a or an)
2. possessives – my, your, his, its, our
3. **quantifiers** – some, much, many, few
4. numerals – one, two, three

Practice:

Use the best option to fill the blank spaces.

1. developments have taken place in this state in recent years
a. Much b. Many c. A little d. Every
2. Rural life has advantage than town life, in my opinion
a. much b. enough c. few d. more
3. I saw people on the streets, but most stayed at home
a. many b. enough c. no d. a few

4. time you bang the door the handle falls off.

a. Every b. No c. Several d. That

Quantifiers are one of the major sub groups of determiners. To use them properly, you need to pay attention to the number or proportion of persons or things that you want to refer to.

Examples:

a. All students were late

b. Each man insisted he was innocent

c. Both men were guilty

d. Neither man was innocent

Practice:

At the debate, (1) of those who attended (a. all b. most c. many) agreed that it was highly successful, with a high degree of participation: (2) of the (a. both b. most c. some) students contributed to the debate, even though there wasn't (3) time for (a. much b. few c. many) everyone to speak. (4) of the students (a. None b. Some c. Few) were disappointed by the speeches, but (5) of them thought they were excellent.

ASSESSMENT

1. A conjunct relates what is said in a sentence to another sentence, whereas a disjunct does—? (A. Express the speaker's opinion B. Divides the sentence into fragments C. None of the above D. All of the above)
2. Make five sentences, indicating the disjunct.
3. What is scanning and why is it important in the reading process?

Week 6

Topic: Skimming and Scanning; Public Speaking; Conjuncts and Disjuncts; Phrasal Verbs

Skimming and Scanning

What is it? Skimming involves running your eye very quickly over large chunks of text. It is different from previewing because skimming involves the paragraph text. Skimming allows you to pick up some of the main ideas without paying attention to detail. It is a fast process. A single chapter should take only a few minutes.

When to use it: to quickly locate relevant sections from a large quantity of written material. Especially useful when there are few headings or graphic elements to gain an overview of a text. Skimming adds further information to an overview.

How to skim:

- note any bold print and graphics.
- start at the beginning of the reading and glide your eyes over the text very quickly.
- do not actually read the text in total. You may read a few words of every paragraph, perhaps the first and last sentences.
- always familiarise yourself with the reading material by gaining an overview and/or skimming before reading in detail.

What is Scanning? Scanning is sweeping your eyes (like radar) over part of a text to find specific pieces of information.

When to use it: to quickly locate specific information from a large quantity of written material.

To scan text:

- after gaining an overview and skimming, identify the section(s) of the text that you probably need to read.

- start scanning the text by allowing your eyes (or finger) to move quickly over a page.
- as soon as your eye catches an important word or phrase, stop reading.
- when you locate information requiring attention, you then slow down to read the relevant section more thoroughly.
- scanning and skimming are no substitutes for thorough reading and should only be used to locate material quickly.

Lesson Two

Oral English: Public Speaking

Although there is not an examination in Oral English in which you are required to give a talk or take part in an interview, Oral English remains very important for several reasons:

a. Paper 3 of WASSCE tests oral English with a written paper of multiple choice questions worth 60 marks.

b. A great deal of communication in the modern world requires a command of Oral English. Within Nigeria it is often necessary to use English but internationally, it is essential.

Skills Focus: How to Speak in Public

When speaking English, it is good to bear in mind the following points.

1. Your voice should be of the right volume. Do not speak too loudly or too softly. If you are speaking to a group of people in quite a large room- for example, in a debate, – make sure that your voice can be heard in any part of the room. Generally, talk quietly and convincingly and people will want to listen to you.

2. Do not speak too fast or mumble your words. Many people speak too fast and can not be heard clearly.

3. Try not to feel nervous – relax. Feel confident that your listeners will be interested in hearing what you have to say. Try to smile from time to time.

4. Point 3 is particularly important if you are having a job interview – don't try to be a know-it-all! Indicate clearly that you are willing to learn.

5. Try to read your audience psychologically in order to know if they are following or not. Get their attention if they are not.

6. If you are called on to give a public speech of some kind, it is a good idea to jot down points, and generally prepare as you would for a written examination. Never just read out your speech.

Practice:

Read a novel and relate in your own words the story of an interesting novel you have read to a friend of yours who suddenly comes visiting your house.

Lesson Three

Conjuncts and Disjuncts

A conjunct serves the purpose of introducing a new sentence in a series and link it logically with what has been said before. They include: nevertheless moreover yet consequently besides as a result in any case on the other hand considering all that to conclude all things considered that is to say what is more what is more important. Like disjuncts , conjuncts can come at the end of a sentence , after a comma as in Our triumph is very satisfactory, that is to say. Finally, note the difference between the adjunct yet and the conjunct yet : I have not seen any sign of triumph for the Israelis yet. (adjunct) Yet (conjunct) I have heard so much about the Israeli triumphs that I feel they have lost their battle in the full sense of the word.

Disjuncts express the speaker's or the writer's attitude or approach to the statement he/she is making. They include: (a) single-word adverbs such as *briefly, certainly, frankly, generally, honestly, perhaps, personally, really*; (b) phrases: in a few words in short of course (c) non-finite clauses speaking frankly to tell you the truth to cut a long story short d finite clauses if I may say so if you don't mind my pointing it out.

Lesson Four

Grammatical Structures: Phrasal Verbs

A **phrasal verb** is a **verb** that is combined with a **preposition** (at, on, over, etc.) or **adverb** (back, down, off, etc.), and together has its own special meaning. For example, **get away** means **escape**; and **speak up** means **speak louder**.

Some **phrasal verbs** retain the meaning of the original verb while some others have meaning completely different to the original verb.

Examples of Phrasal Verbs:

- I asked them to **come in**.

(The phrasal verb **come in** means **enter** which is easily understood as we are familiar with the meaning of the words: **come, in**.)

- The deal **fell through** at the last minute.

(The phrasal verb **fell through** means **not completed successfully** which is different in meaning to the verb **fell**.)

Every text you read is almost bound to contain a phrasal verb. For example: Mabel Segun wrote in her essay

'As I passed by, I wondered...'

Pass by is a phrasal verb.

You need to take some care when using phrasal verbs. Our advice is for you to consult a dictionary whenever you are in doubt of the meaning of a phrasal verb. We will be discussing two sets of phrasal verbs, one with get and the other with give.

Phrasal verbs with Give

Phrasal Verbs	Meaning	Examples
Give away	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To pass on something no longer wanted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) She gave away all her old clothes
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To reveal a secret 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) When she coughed, she gave away her hiding place
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) To present 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) The visiting professor gave away the prize
Give back	To return	Give me back my pen – please I need it!
Give in	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To surrender 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) When the police arrived, the bandits gave in
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To hand in 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) Give in your work when you are finished
Give off	To produce	The chemical gave off a strange smell when heated
Give out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To hand out 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) We gave out flyers publicizing our passnownow website
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To stop working properly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) We got into the car but the engine gave out immediately
Give over	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To be kept for a purpose 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) The land was given over for agricultural use
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To dedicate one's self 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) When her mother dies, she gave her life over to the church
Give up	a) To stop doing something	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Everyone should give up smoking
	b) To spend time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) She gave up her spare time to training the girls how to use passnownow.com
	c) To hand over	
	d) To lose emotional control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) The boy gave up his seat on the bus to an old lady

- d) She gave herself up to despair

Phrasal verbs with Get

Phrasal verbs	Meaning	Examples
Get about	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To travel • b) To be known to many people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) He got out despite his lameness • b) She didn't want the news to get about
Get around	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To travel • b) To persuade 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) Although she is 80, she still gets around • b) Tony always managed to get around his mother
Get across	To communicate	I will get across to you as regards the wedding later today
Get along	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To be friendly • b) To make progress • c) To go 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) The two girls get along with each other very well • b) How is your friend getting along? • c) I'd better get along now
Get at	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To criticize • b) To imply • c) To reach somewhere new • d) To threaten • e) To reach or find 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) She is always getting at me • b) What are you getting at when you say that? • c) I am trying to fix the machine but it's hard to get at the back • d) The people accused tried to get at the witnesses • e) Sometimes it's hard to get at the truth
Get away	To escape	The police allowed the thieves to get away
Get back	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To return to a place • b) To start something new 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) They got back in time for supper • b) Let's get back to the main point, shall we?
Get by	To have enough	We have enough food to get by till the end of the month
Get down	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) To write 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a) As the lecturer spoke, they got down the

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To make someone unhappy 	main points
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) Their poverty was beginning to get her down
Get in	To enter/arrive	The train got in at 8pm. They got in the train
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To start (a journey) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) They got off early next day
Get off	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) To escape c) To send d) To finish 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> b) The criminal got off lightly with a small fine c) You must get that letter off as soon as possible d) What time does she get off work?
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To be friendly with b) To continue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) The two men got on well with each other b) The teacher told them to get on with their work
Get on	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) To make progress d) To pass (time) e) To be growing old 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> c) How are they getting on? d) Tell them to hurry – it's getting on e) My uncle's getting on a bit now
Get out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) To escape b) To become public 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) How did the cattle get out of the pen? b) She was very angry when the news got out
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> To survive To Pass To communicate To spend 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> It's going to be hard to get through the next few days Did you get through the exam? I finally got through to her on the phone My uncle got through this wages within two days
Get through		

Practice:

Complete the sentences below with suitable phrasal verbs from the tables. Remember to use the correct tense forms.

1. Hooray! Our team has to the finals!

2. The smell in the chemistry lab was so strong that we as soon as we could.

3. The relay team to a good start.
4. Do you know who is going to the prizes this afternoon?
5. The police surrounded the bank, but the armed robbers refused to .
6. They tried to at the back, but the police caught them.
7. Haruna said he wanted to science next term, but the teacher persuaded him not to.
8. Generators always seem to when they are most needed.
9. We should all some of our spare time to working for the community.....
10. Some very religious people decide to all their material possessions.

ASSESSMENT

1. In English language, the main purpose for skimming is to —? (A. Avoid reading a given text B. To quickly locate the relevant sections from a given text C. To pretend to read the text D. None of the above)
2. Briefly explain how to skim.
3. From what you understand by this lesson, would you say that there is much of a difference between skimming and scanning? Explain.
4. Explain some of the important things a good public speaker must take into account

ANSWER

1. B
2.
 - note any bold print and graphics.
 - start at the beginning of the reading and glide your eyes over the text very quickly.
 - do not actually read the text in total. You may read a few words of every paragraph, perhaps the first and last sentences.
 - always familiarise yourself with the reading material by gaining an overview and/or skimming before reading in detail.
3. Skimming involves running your eye very quickly over large chunks of text. It is different from previewing because skimming involves the paragraph text. Scanning is sweeping your eyes (like radar) over part of a text to find specific pieces of information.

4.

- Do not speak too fast or mumble your words. Many people speak too fast and can not be heard clearly.
- Try not to feel nervous – relax. Feel confident that your listeners will be interested in hearing what you have to say. Try to smile from time to time.
- Point 3 is particularly important if you are having a job interview – don't try to be a know-it-all! Indicate clearly that you are willing to learn.
- Try to read your audience psychologically in order to know if they are following or not. Get their attention if they are not.
- If you are called on to give a public speech of some kind, it is a good idea to jot down points, and generally prepare as you would for a written examination. Never just read out your speech.

Week 7

Topic: Plural forms of Nouns; Characteristics of different Writing Styles; Question tags and Homophones

Plural Forms of Nouns

A plural noun is a word that indicates that there is more than one person, animal place, thing, or idea. When you talk about more than one of anything, you're using plural nouns. When you write about more than one of anything, you usually use the same word, simply adding an s, es, or ies to the end. There are a few exceptions to this rule, but not many – one of the best is that a single moose is a moose, and a group of moose are still moose.

The difference between singular and plural nouns is simple once you know what to look for. Here, we take a look at singular and plural nouns, providing both singular nouns examples and plural noun examples to help you recognize plural nouns when you see them.

Examples of Plurals of Nouns

Most nouns make their plurals by simply adding –s to the end (e.g. cat/cats, book/books, journey/journeys). Some do change their endings, though. The main types of noun that do this are:

Nouns ending in -y

If the noun ends with a consonant plus -y, make the plural by changing -y to -ies:

Singular

berry
activity
daisy

Plural

berries
activities
daisies

If the noun ends with -ch, -s, -sh, -x, or -z, add -es to form the plural:

Singular

church
bus
fox

Plural

churches
buses
foxes

There's one exception to this rule. If the *-ch* ending is pronounced with a 'k' sound, you add *-s* rather than *-es*.

Singular	Plural
stomach	stomachs
epoch	epochs

Nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe*

With nouns that end in a consonant or a single vowel plus *-f* or *-fe*, change the *-f* or *-fe* to *-ves*.

singular	plural
knife	knives
half	halves
scarf	scarves

Nouns which end in two vowels plus *-f* usually form plurals in the normal way, with just an *-s*

singular	plural
chief	chiefs
spooF	spoofs

Nouns ending in *-o*

Nouns ending in *-o* can add either *-s* or *-es* in the plural, and some can be spelled either way.

- As a general rule, most nouns ending in *-o* add *-s* to make the plural:

singular	plural
solo	solos
zero	zeros
avocado	avocados

Those which have a vowel before the final *-o* always just add *-s*.

singular	plural
studio	studios
zoo	zoos
embryo	embryos

Here's a list of the most common nouns ending in *-o* that are always spelled with *-es* in the plural:

singular	plural
buffalo	buffaloes
domino	dominoes
echo	echoes
embargo	embargoes
hero	heroes
mosquito	mosquitoes
potato	potatoes
tomato	tomatoes

- Textbook writing.
- How-to articles.
- Recipes.
- News stories (not including opinion or editorial pieces).
- Business, technical, or scientific writing.

Example:

Many people associate the taste of pumpkins with fall. In October, companies from Starbucks to McDonalds roll out their pumpkin-flavored lattes and desserts. Here is how to make an easy pumpkin pie using only five ingredients. First, make sure you have all of the ingredients.

This writing is expository because it is *explaining*. In this case, you can already tell that the piece will be about how to make a pumpkin pie.

Non-example:

Everyone knows that the best part about fall is all of the pumpkin-flavored desserts. Pumpkin pie is the best fall treat because it is not only delicious but also nutritious. Pumpkin is filled with vitamin A, which is essential for a healthy immune system and good vision.

This is not expository because several opinions are stated, such as “Pumpkin pie is the best fall treat...” Although this excerpt contains a fact about pumpkin containing vitamin A, that fact is used as evidence to support the opinion. These opinions make this an example of persuasive writing.

Descriptive

Descriptive writing focuses on communicating the details of a character, event, or place. Descriptive writing’s main purpose is to describe. It is a style of writing that focuses on describing a character, an event, or a place in great detail. It can be poetic when the author takes the time to be very specific in his or her descriptions.

Example:

In good descriptive writing, the author will not just say: “The vampire killed his lover.”

He or she will change the sentence, focusing on more details and descriptions, like: “The bloody, red-eyed vampire, sunk his rust-colored teeth into the soft skin of his lover and ended her life.”

Key Points:

- It is often poetic in nature
- It describes places, people, events, situations, or locations in a highly-detailed manner.
- The author visualizes what he or she sees, hears, tastes, smells, and feels.

When You Would Use Descriptive Writing:

- Poetry
- Journal or diary writing
- Nature writing
- Descriptive passages in fiction

Example:

The iPhone 6 is unexpectedly light. While size of its screen is bigger than those of the iPhones that came before, it is thinner, and its smooth, rounded body is made of aluminum, stainless steel, and glass. The casing comes in a whitish silver, gold, or a color the company calls “space gray,” the color of the lead of a pencil, with darker gray accents.

This is an example because it describes aspects of the phone. It includes details such as the size, weight, and material.

Non-example:

So you just brought home a shiny new smartphone with a smooth glass screen the size of your palm. The first thing you will want to do when purchasing a new cell is buy a case. Cracking your screen is an awful feeling, and protection is inexpensive when you compare it to the costs of a new phone.

Even though this example uses adjectives, you can tell that this is not an example of descriptive writing because the purpose is not to describe the phone—it’s to persuade you to buy a case.

Persuasive

Persuasive writing tries to bring other people around to your point of view. | Source Persuasive writing’s main purpose is to convince. Unlike expository writing, persuasive writing contains the opinions and biases of the author. To convince others to agree with the author’s point of view, persuasive writing contains justifications and reasons. It is often used in letters of complaint, advertisements or commercials, affiliate marketing pitches, cover letters, and newspaper opinion and editorial pieces.

Key Points:

- Persuasive writing is equipped with reasons, arguments, and justifications.
- In persuasive writing, the author takes a stand and asks you to agree with his or her point of view.
- It often asks for readers to do something about the situation (this is called a call-to-action).

When You Would Use Persuasive Writing:

- Opinion and editorial newspaper pieces.
- Advertisements.
- Reviews (of books, music, movie, restaurants, etc.).

- Letter of recommendation.
- Letter of complaint.
- Cover letters

Example:

Following the 2012 Olympic Games hosted in London, the UK Trade and Investment department reported a £9.9 billion boost to the economy. Although it is expensive to host the Olympics, if done right, they can provide real jobs and economic growth. This city should consider placing a bid to host the Olympics.

This is persuasive writing because the author has a belief—that “this city should consider placing a bid to host the Olympics”—and is trying to convince others to agree.

Non-example:

According to legend, the Olympics were founded by Hercules. Now almost 100 countries participate in the Games, with over two million people attending. So cities from Boston to Hamburg begin considering their bid to be a host city more than 10 years in advance.

All of these statements are facts. Therefore it’s expository. To be persuasive writing, you must have an opinion that you’re trying to persuade people of—then, of course, you will support that opinion with evidence.

Narrative

A narrative tells a story. There will usually be characters and dialogue. | Source Narrative writing’s main purpose is to tell a story. The author will create different characters and tell you what happens to them (sometimes the author writes from the point of view of one of the characters—this is known as first person narration). Novels, short stories, novellas, poetry, and biographies can all fall in the narrative writing style. Simply, narrative writing answers the question: “What happened then?”

Key Points:

- A person tells a story or event.
- Has characters and dialogue.
- Has definite and logical beginnings, intervals, and endings.
- Often has situations like actions, motivational events, and disputes or conflicts with their eventual solutions.

Examples of When You Would Use Persuasive Writing:

- Novels
- Short stories
- Novellas
- Poetry
- Autobiographies or biographies

- Anecdotes
- Oral histories

Example:

“I don’t think that’s a good idea,” said Jaelyn.

“You never used to be such a girl!” retorted Orin, pushing open the door.

Reluctantly, Jaelyn followed.

This is a narrative because it’s telling a story. There are different characters conversing, and a plot is unravelling.

Non-example:

Cutting Edge Haunted House holds the Guinness World Record for the largest haunted house on earth. It’s located in a district in Fort Worth, Texas known as “Hell’s Half Acre” in a century-old abandoned meat-packing plant. The haunted house takes an hour to complete, winding through horrific scenes incorporating the factory’s original meat-packing equipment.

While this would serve as a worthy setting for a story, it would need a plot before it could be called a narrative.

In conclusion, these are the four different types of writing that are generally used. There are many sub-types of writing that may fall in any of those categories. A writer must know all these styles in order to identify the purpose of his or her own writing and make sure it’s something the audience wants to read.

Lesson Three

Structure: Question Tags

Question tags are short questions at the end of statements. A question tag is a question added at the end of a sentence. Speakers use question tags chiefly to make sure their information is correct or to seek argument.

They are mainly used in speech when we want to:

- **confirm that something is true or not**, or
- **to encourage a reply** from the person we are speaking to.

Tags are very common in spoken English, and have many functions. One of the common functions is to start a conversation or help keep it going. The two basic rules about tag questions are:

1. A **positive** statement is followed by a **negative** question tag

- Jack **is** from Spain, **isn't** he?
- Mary **can** speak English, **can't** she?

While A **negative** statement is followed by a **positive** question tag.

- He **doesn't** go to school, **does** he?
- They **aren't** on their way already, **are** they?

2. The tense of the tag is determined by the tense of the auxiliary/modal verb of the statement that precedes it. If the statement does not use an auxiliary/modal (i.e. it is in the present or past simple tense), then the auxiliary *to do* must be used.

With auxiliary verbs

The question tag uses the same verb as the main part of the sentence. If this is an auxiliary verb ('have', 'be') then the question tag is made with the auxiliary verb.

- *They've gone away for a few days, haven't they?*
- *They weren't here, were they?*

Without auxiliary verbs

If the main part of the sentence doesn't have an auxiliary verb, the question tag uses an appropriate form of 'do'

- You don't know me, do you?
- He beat her last night, didn't he?

With the Simple Present Tense we use do / does – don't / doesn't? With the Simple Past

Tense	we	use	did	/	didn't?
– They	like	going	to	the	movie theater, don't they?
– Rafael	listens	to	music,	doesn't	he?
– Alan	works	at	a	bank,	doesn't he?
– You	all	watched	TV	during	the night, didn't you?
– Alicia	went	to	the	movie theater,	didn't she?
– He	didn't	read	the	novel,	did he?

If the statement contains words such as **no** , **no one** , **nothing** , **nobody** , **scarcely** , **hardly** , **hardly ever** , **never** , **neither** , **seldom**, **under no circumstances ...** etc, it is considered a **negative statement and followed by an affirmative tag.**

- Julia **hardly** **ever** **drinks** **coke,** **does** **she?**
- **Nothing** **will** **cure** **his** **illness,** **will** **it?**
- He **never** acts like a gentleman, **does** he?

Some introductory phrases such as “I am afraid, I think, I believe, I am sure, I suspect, I suppose , it appears that , it seems that , it looks as if , as far as I remember , as far as I can see ... so on “ don’t affect question tags except for the transfer of negation.

- I suppose you are not serious, are you?
- I think my mom returned home, didn't she?
- I don't suppose you are serious, are you?
- I don't believe you have paid for it yet, have you?
- I don't think anyone will volunteer, will they?
- I hope he won't object to our plan, will he?

Let's has the tag “shall we?”

- Let's go to the movie theater, shall we?
- Let's have a party, shall we?
- Let's drink tea, shall we?

Practice:

- 1) She's from a small town in China,
- 2) They aren't on their way already,
- 3) We're late again,
- 4) I'm not the person with the tickets,
- 5) Julie isn't an accountant,
- 6) The weather is really bad today,
- 7) He's very handsome,
- 8) They aren't in Mumbai at the moment,
- 9) You aren't from Brazil,
- 10) John's a very good student,
- 11) I like chocolate very much,
- 12) She doesn't work in a hotel,
- 13) They need some new clothes,
- 14) We live in a tiny flat,
- 15) She studies very hard every night,

Intonation in Question Tags

When a tag is spoken, the voice can go up or down. If the voice goes up, it is called Rising

Intonation and if it goes down, it is called Falling Intonation. It is a nice day today, isn't it?

A falling intonation means that the speaker is sure (or almost sure) that the statement is true. The speaker knows that it is a nice day. The tag is not a real question. He is inviting his friend to continue the conversation.

You have been on holiday, haven't you?

A rising intonation means that the speaker is less sure. He thinks that his friend has been on holiday, but he isn't sure. The tag is more like a real question.

Question Tags

Woodward
ENGLISH

*A question tag is a small question at the end of a statement.
Question tags are used when asking for agreement or confirmation.*

a positive statement + a negative question tag

You ⁺are a student, ⁻aren't you?

A subject pronoun comes after an auxiliary or a form of the verb To Be

a negative statement + a positive question tag

Mary ⁻isn't a teacher, ⁺is she?

A subject pronoun is used to replace the noun or noun phrase

Intonation and Meaning

The intonation of a question tag shows the exact meaning of it.

If the intonation of the question tag goes **up**, it means you are not sure and you want to know the answer.

John **doesn't** speak Spanish, **does** he?

If the intonation of the question tag goes **down**, it means you are checking / confirming information or making conversation.

John **doesn't** speak Spanish, **does** he?

www.grammar.cl www.woodwardenglish.com www.vocabulary.cl

Lesson Four

Homophones (Sound – alike words)

A **homophone** is a word that is pronounced the same as another word but differs in meaning, and may differ in spelling. The words may be spelled the same, such as rose (flower) and rose (past tense of “rise”), or differently, such as to, two, and too. Homophones (**Sound-alike words**) are words that are pronounced identically although they have different meanings and often have different spellings as well. These words are a very common source of confusion when writing. Common examples of sets of homophones include: they’re and their; bee and be; sun and son; which and witch; and plain and plane.

Some Examples of Homophones are:

- Compliment, Complement

Compliment: a polite expression of praise or admiration.

Complement: a thing that completes or brings to perfection.

- leach, leech

Leach: (with reference to a soluble chemical or mineral) drain away from soil, ash, or similar material by the action of percolating liquid, especially rainwater.

Leech: This is a segmented worm.

- leak, leek

Leak: (of a container or covering) accidentally lose or admit contents, especially liquid or gas, through a hole or crack.

Leek: a plant related to the onion, with flat overlapping leaves forming an elongated cylindrical bulb that together with the leaf bases is eaten as a vegetable.

- sale, sail
- sane, seine

Sane: (of a person) of sound mind; not mad or mentally ill.

Seine: a fishing net that hangs vertically in the water with floats at the top and weights at the bottom edge, the ends being drawn together to encircle the fish.

- maize, maze
- mall, maul
- for, fore, four
- foreword, forward
- manna, manner
- cell, sell
- censer, censor, sensor

Censer: a container in which incense is burned, typically during a religious ceremony.

Censor: an official who examines material that is about to be released, such as books, movies, news, and art, and suppresses any parts that are considered obscene, politically unacceptable, or a threat to security.

Sensor: a device that detects or measures a physical property and records, indicates, or otherwise responds to it.

- cent, scent, sent
- mantel, mantle

Mantel: a structure of wood, marble, or stone above and around a fireplace.

Mantle: an important role or responsibility that passes from one person to another

- satire, satyr
- sauce, source
- lean, lien
- lessen, lesson

List some homophones that you have come across in English Language and their different meanings.

ASSESSMENT

1. What do you understand by the plural forms of nouns?
2. Give several examples of the plural forms of nouns.
3. List the writing styles you know?
4. Expository writing is most suitable for?
5. What are question tags? Give ample examples.

ANSWER

1. A plural noun is a word that indicates that there is more than one person, animal place, thing, or idea.
- 2.

Singular

berry

activity

daisy

Plural

berries

activities

daisies

3. Descriptive, Persuasive and Narrative
4. Textbooks and articles
5. Question tags are short questions at the end of statements. Jack is from Spain, isn't he?

Week 8

Topic: Understanding the Relationship between a Writer's Purpose and Tone

Instruction: Read the comprehension passage below [carefully] after which you should check the next segment to examine the author's purpose and tone.

Car alarms are a public nuisance. Their persistent and disruptive noise has been shown to boost stress hormones that are linked to physiological illness and psychological distress. Studies also show that children regularly exposed to car alarm noise have difficulty concentrating on quiet tasks like reading. Because car alarm noise makes people irritable, it also increases the tendency to be impatient and rude. In short, noisy car alarms are helping erode public civility. And for what? For nothing. According to police, criminologists, insurance companies, auto manufacturers, and even car thieves themselves, car alarms are next to useless. A 1997 analysis of insurance claims from 73 million vehicles concluded that alarms did not deter car theft. No one pays any attention to car alarms any more because 95 to 99 percent of the alarms are false. According to the Progressive Insurance Company, fewer than 1 percent of people surveyed say that they would call the police if they heard a car alarm. Plus, today's car thieves are professionals undeterred by the presence of alarms, which they can readily disable when necessary. Consequently, GM, Ford, and other manufacturers have begun to stop putting alarms in their cars. This is their way of acknowledging that the alarms are nothing but "noisemakers." It's outrageous that audible car alarms continue to

needlessly reduce our quality of life. They should be made illegal immediately.

The author's purpose is:

- to inform
- to persuade

The author's tone is:

- emotionally neutral
- b. irritated
- c. amused
- d. puzzled

Pronoun References to Three Persons

First-Person Point of View

When we talk about ourselves, our opinions, and the things that happen to us, we generally speak in the first person. The biggest clue that a sentence is written in the first person is the use of first-person pronouns. In the first sentence of this paragraph, the pronouns appear in bold text. **We, us, our,**and **ourselves** are all first-person pronouns. Specifically, they are plural first-person pronouns. Singular first-person pronouns include *I, me, my, mine and myself*.

I think I lost my wallet! I can't find it anywhere! Oh, I could just kick myself!

We could do ourselves a favor and make a reservation for our group.

Many stories and novels are written in the first-person point of view. In this kind of narrative, you are inside a character's head, watching the story unfold through that character's eyes.

When I wake up, the other side of the bed is cold.

Suzanne Collins, *The Hunger Games*

Second-Person Point of View

The second-person point of view belongs to the person (or people) being addressed. This is the "you" perspective. Once again, the biggest indicator of the second person is the use of second-person pronouns: *you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves*.

You can wait in here and make yourself at home.

You should be proud of yourselves for finishing this enormous project!

Stories and novels written in the second person exist, but they are much rarer than narratives written from a first- or third-person perspective.

You are not the kind of guy who would be at a place like this at this time of the morning. But here you are, and you cannot say that the terrain is entirely unfamiliar, although the details are fuzzy.

Jay McInerney, *Bright Lights, Big City*

Third-Person Point of View

The third-person point of view belongs to the person (or people) being talked about. The third-person pronouns include *he, him, his, himself, she, her, hers, herself, it, its, itself, they, them, their, theirs, and themselves*.

Tiffany used her prize money from the science fair to buy herself a new microscope.

The concert goers roared their approval when they realized they'd be getting an encore.

You can't always rely on pronouns to tell you the perspective of a sentence. Not all sentences include pronouns, especially in the third person:

Mike always hated school.

But if you look at this sentence and think "Mike isn't me," you can eliminate the first person. You can also think "I'm not talking to Mike," so that eliminates the second person. You're left with the third person.

Plenty of stories and novels are written in the third person. In this type of story, a disembodied narrator describes what the characters do and what happens to them. You don't see directly through a character's eyes as you do in a first-person narrative, but often the narrator describes the main character's thoughts and feelings about what's going on.

Sam Vimes sighed when he heard the scream, but he finished shaving before he did anything about it.

Terry Pratchett, *Night Watch*

Speaking in the Third Person

Most of the time when people talk about themselves, they speak in the first person. It would certainly be eccentric to talk about yourself in the third person all the time, but you may do it once in a while for comedic effect or to grab someone's attention.

Tina: Let's get sushi for lunch. It's Jeff's favorite! Tom: No, Jeff hates sushi. I think he'd rather get burritos. Jeff: Um, does Jeff get a vote?

ASSESSMENT

When we talk about ourselves, our opinions, and the things that happen to us, we generally speak in the___

What are pronouns?

Write short notes on The first person point of view.

ANSWER

First person

Pronouns are word that can function as a noun phrase used by itself and that refers either to the participants in the discourse (e.g. I, you) or to someone or something mentioned elsewhere in the discourse (e.g. she, it, this).

First-Person Point of View

When we talk about ourselves, our opinions, and the things that happen to us, we generally speak in the first person. The biggest clue that a sentence is written in the first person is the use of first-person pronouns. In the first sentence of this paragraph, the pronouns appear in bold text. **We, us, our,**and ourselves are all first-person pronouns. Specifically, they are plural first-person pronouns. Singular first-person pronouns include I, me, my, mine and myself.

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Week 9

Topic: Homophones

A **homophone** is a word that is pronounced the same as another word but differs in meaning, and may differ in spelling. The words may be spelled the same, such as rose (flower) and rose (past tense of “rise”), or differently, such as to, two, and too. Homophones (**Sound-alike words**) are words that are pronounced identically although they have different meanings and often have different spellings as well. These words are a very common source of confusion when writing. Common examples of sets of homophones include: they’re and their; bee and be; sun and son; which and witch; and plain and plane.

Some Examples of Homophones are:

- Compliment, Complement

Compliment: a polite expression of praise or admiration.

Complement: a thing that completes or brings to perfection.

- leach, leech

Leach: (with reference to a soluble chemical or mineral) drain away from soil, ash, or similar material by the action of percolating liquid, especially rainwater.

Leech: This is a segmented worm.

- leak, leek

Leak: (of a container or covering) accidentally lose or admit contents, especially liquid or gas, through a hole or crack.

Leek: a plant related to the onion, with flat overlapping leaves forming an elongated cylindrical bulb that together with the leaf bases is eaten as a vegetable.

- sale, sail
- sane, seine

Sane: (of a person) of sound mind; not mad or mentally ill.

Seine: a fishing net that hangs vertically in the water with floats at the top and weights at the bottom edge, the ends being drawn together to encircle the fish.

- maize, maze
- mall, maul
- for, fore, four
- foreword, forward
- manna, manner
- cell, sell
- censor, censor, sensor

Censer: a container in which incense is burned, typically during a religious ceremony.

Censor: an official who examines material that is about to be released, such as books, movies, news, and art, and suppresses any parts that are considered obscene, politically unacceptable, or a threat to security.

Sensor: a device that detects or measures a physical property and records, indicates, or otherwise responds to it.

- cent, scent, sent
- mantel, mantle

Mantel: a structure of wood, marble, or stone above and around a fireplace.

Mantle: an important role or responsibility that passes from one person to another

- satire, satyr
- sauce, source
- lean, lien
- lessen, lesson

List some homophones that you have come across in English Language and their different meanings.

Lesson Two

Words Associated with Entertainment

1.	21.	41.	61.	81.
amusement	hobbies	gig	showbiz	television set
2.	22.	42.	62.	82.
music	spectator	artist	comedy	kirmess
3.	23.	43.	63.	83.
gaming	spectacles	conversation	amusements	storytelling
4.	24.	44.	64.	84.
leisure	pastime	unsuitable	performing arts	theme park
5.	25.	45.	65.	85.
entertaining	respite	reception	audiovisual	summer stock
6.	26.	46.	66.	86.
hospitality	show	representational	arts	attractions
7.	27.	47.	67.	87.
theater	pleasure	sight	programming	extravaganza
8.	28.	48.	68.	88.
recreation	pageant	maintenance	ballad opera	horse opera
9.	29.	49.	69.	89.
entertain	game	détente	sports	educational
10.	30.	50.	70.	90.
animation	distraction	edutainment	entertainers	Opry
11.	31.	51.	71.	91.
enjoyment	comfort	receipt	dining	kiddie
12.	32.	52.	72.	92.

entertainer	shows	trigger	beverages	ticket booth
13.	33.	53.	73.	93.
fun	playground	infotainment	escapism	merchandising
14.	34.	54.	74.	94.
spectacle	representation	multimedia	movies	smorgasbord
15.	35.	55.	75.	95.
recreational	play	nightlife	broadcasting	television program
16.	36.	56.	76.	96.
showmanship	performing	karaoke	theater ticket	digital
17.	37.	57.	77.	97.
attraction	hobby	television	leisure time	Roman Holiday
18.	38.	58.	78.	98.
civic	performance	cinema	motorsports	Social Event
19.	39.	59.	79.	99.
relaxation	receptions	videogame	lusurious	catering
20.	40.	60.	80.	100.
concert	diversion	media	conflux	vaudeville

A *complex sentence* combines a simple sentence (often called an independent clause) with a subordinate clause. These sentences are the fundamental type used in academic writing—and thus a major feature in the reading and writing of ESL/EFL learners who are studying (or who wish to study) in the U.S. (or other English-speaking countries).

Subordinate Clause Types

Complex sentences come in many varieties based on the types of subordinate clauses that are available in English. In the *Longman Student Grammar* (and other studies of English grammar), subordinate clauses are divided into two major types: (1) finite clauses and (2) non-finite clauses. Let's go through these one by one.

Finite Clauses

Finite clauses are the basic subordinate clauses that are the focus of most work with complex sentences and dependent clauses in ESL/EFL grammar/writing courses and materials. The “finite” just means that there a full verb phrase—and that the clause has some type of “time” meaning. Finite clauses include (1) adverbial clauses, (2) noun clauses, (3) *wh*-clauses, and (4) relative clauses. In each of the following examples, the verb phrase is given in bold type to focus your attention on that feature of the clause.

Finite Clauses	
Adverbial Clause	1. Because humans are not monkeys, we must be careful about extrapolating from animal studies to human behavior.
Wh-Clause	2. We imagine how we appear to those around us.
Noun Clause	3. For example, we may think that others see us as witty or dull.
Relative Clause	4. Cantonese (the language of Canton, which differs in sound from Mandarin roughly the way French does from Spanish) is the second most common Chinese dialect.

Non Finite Clauses

Non-finite clauses are built around verbs that do not have tense or modality—verbs that are not sentence verb phrases. These are clauses with (1) infinitives and (2) participles (both –*ed* and –*ing*).

Non-Finite Clauses

Infinitive Clause 1. *He wondered why he had forsaken physics **to study human culture** in the first place.*

Present Participle Clause 2. ***Entering the world of the Yanomamo**, the anthropologist experienced culture shock.*

Past Participle Clause 3. ***Confused by the differences between his culture and theirs**, he wanted to flee and return home.*

ASSESSMENT

1. What is a homophone?
2. Write about words that are related to entertainment and learn their meanings.
3. What is a subordinate clause?

ANSWER

1. A **homophone** is a word that is pronounced the same as another word but differs in meaning, and may differ in spelling.
- 2.
3.
 1. Amusement- the state or experience of finding something funny.
 2. Music- vocal or instrumental sounds (or both) combined in such a way as to produce beauty of form, harmony, and expression of emotion.
 3. Gaming- the action or practice of playing gambling games.
 4. Leisure-
time when one is not working or occupied; free time.
 5. Entertaining-
providing amusement or enjoyment.
4. Complex sentences come in many varieties based on the types of subordinate clauses that are available in English. In the *Longman Student Grammar* (and other studies of English grammar),

Week 10

Topic: Spoken English: Consonant Sounds Followed by /KW/; Punctuation; Differences between Compound and Complex Sentences

Introduction to the Consonant Sounds Followed by /KW/

Although now written with a consonant and a vowel as *qu-*, the /kw/ sound is made up of two consonants. As a result, it falls under the consonant cluster category. The letter *q* is used the most rarely of all English letters with the exception of *z*. In the Old English period it was very rarely seen, as even the sound /kw/ was usually represented by the letters *cw-* as in *cwen* “queen”. However, in the Middle English period, English began using *q* more frequently due to the massive influence of French, which used it much more. *Q* has thus taken on two sounds /kw/ and /k/, the latter often being spelt *qu-* in French as in words like *plaque* /plæk/, *clique* /kli:k/ and *cheque* /tʃek/, which English has borrowed from that language. In this post, we will deal with **qu-** words with the /kw/ sound.

Some of the modern **qu-** words that have evolved from forms in Old English appear to have a trembling shaky quality. These words are dynamic and mobile, they are all **quiver**. Many are fearful and pulsating, others, like *quell* and *quash* may cause trembling or subdue an uprising. Below are more examples of words with the /WK/ consonant sound-

quite	He's quite good-looking.
quiet	If the baby is asleep there is peace and quiet .
quilt	The quilt is filled with feathers from the eider duck.
query	I sent my query by email.
question	He was reluctant to answer my question .
squid	A squid has eight arms.
square	There is a fountain in the market square .
liquid	Evaporation is a type of vaporisation of a liquid that occurs

	only on the surface of a liquid . *
request	I hope you won't refuse my request .
conquest	The small country was his last conquest .
require	Playing in a team requires commitment.
equal	Make sure you get an equal share.
equator	Latitude is how far North or South a place is from the Equator. *
equipment	A machine operator installed the equipment . *
inquiry	There will be an inquiry into the plane crash.
aquarium	There were many exotic fish in the aquarium .
earthquake	The earthquake made the ground shake.
inquisitive	An inquisitive child asks many questions.

Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks are symbols that are used to aid the clarity and comprehension of written language. Some common *punctuation marks* are the period, comma, question *mark*, exclamation point, apostrophe, quotation *mark* and hyphen. The punctuation marks in English language are exclusively discussed below-

Punctuation Marks: Punctuation is used to create sense, clarity and stress in sentences. You use punctuation marks to structure and organise your writing.

We use a variety of punctuation marks, such as full stop/period, comma, question mark, brackets, etc. in our writing to separate sentences, phrases, etc., and to clarify their meaning. We need to familiarize ourselves with some basic rules in order to use these punctuation marks correctly.

Examples of Punctuation Marks

- SENTENCE ENDINGS {QUESTION MARK (?), EXCLAMATION MARK (!), FULL STOP (.)}

Three of the fourteen punctuation marks are appropriate for use as sentence endings. They are the period, question mark, and exclamation point.

THE PERIOD OR FULL STOP (.) is placed at the end of declarative sentences, statements thought to be complete and after many abbreviations. A **full stop** is placed at the end of each sentence to indicate the end of the sentence, which can be a **statement, request** or **command**. A full stop is not used at the end of a **phrase** or **subordinate clause**. Doing so does not create complete sentences.

For example:

- As a sentence ender: I am going home.
- After an abbreviation: *Her* sept. birthday came and went.

Usage of Full Stop or Period (.)

a. The period is used after most abbreviations:

Example: Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., Rev. Wed., Oct.

b. Most short versions of some specific expressions end in a period.

Example: A.M./a.m., P.M./p.m., p.a.

c. Only one full stop is used if a sentence ends with an **abbreviation**.

Example: Her biggest ambition is to successfully complete her M.A.

d. The period is used to show the **shortened** form of a word.

Example: Opp., mo. (Written abbreviations of 'opposite', 'month')

e. A full stop is always placed inside **quotation marks**, whether or not it is part of the quotation.

Example: John said, "That stray dog is not mine."

NOT: John said, "That stray dog is not mine".

THE QUESTION MARK (?) is used

- to indicate a direct question when placed at the end of a sentence.

E.g.: *When did Jane leave for the market ?*

- A question mark is used after a question that ends with an abbreviation.

E.g.: You said you saw the film show at about 7 p.m.?

THE EXCLAMATION MARK (!) is used when a person wants to express a sudden outcry or add emphasis. An **exclamation mark** is used after **interjections** or **commands**. (An **interjection** is a word or phrase used to express a strong feeling.) It expresses an emotion such as surprise, anger, fear, pain or pleasure.

1. Within dialogue: *“Holy moses!” screamed Joke.*
2. To emphasize a point: *My sister-in-law’s rants make me furious !*
3. To express an emotion: *What a complete waste of resources! / Sit over there and be quiet for an hour!*

THE COMMA (,)

The comma, semicolon and colon are often misused because they all can indicate a pause in a series.

The comma is used to show a separation of ideas or elements within the structure of a sentence. Additionally, it is used in letter writing after the salutation and closing.

- Separating elements within sentences: Suzi wanted the black , green, red, pink, white and blue shoes.

Note that in a list, the final two items are linked by the word ‘and’ rather than by a comma.

- Letter Salutations: Dear Uncle Jola , Dear Miss Busola,
- Separation of two complete sentences: We went to the theatre, and we went to the beach.

The comma is useful in a sentence when the writer wishes to:

pause before proceeding

add a phrase that does not contain any new subject

separate items on a list

use more than one adjective (a describing word, like beautiful)

For example, in the following sentence the phrase or clause between the commas gives us more information behind the actions of the boy, the subject of the sentence:

The boy, who knew that his mother was about to arrive, ran quickly towards the opening door.

THE COLON (:)

A colon (:) has two main uses:

The first is after a word introducing a quotation, an explanation, an example, or a series. It is also often used after the salutation of a business letter.

The second is within time expressions. Within time, it is used to separate out the hour and minute: 11:00am.

A **colon** is used before a **list** and usually after 'as follows.'

E.g.: This basket contains the following fruits: mango, pawpaw, watermelon, apple and pineapple.

It is used to separate the hour from the minutes when telling time

E.g.: 12:13am

It can be used within a heading, or descriptive title.

Example:

Comedy or Reality: A man slapped his wife over lunch.

SEMI-COLON (;)

The semi-colon is perhaps the most difficult sign of punctuation to use accurately. If in doubt, avoid using it and convert the added material into a new sentence.

As a general rule, the semi-colon is used in the following ways:

A **semicolon** is used to join two **sentences, independent clauses** or a **series of items** which are closely connected in meaning.

Examples:

We leave for Ibadan at noon; the weather looks promising.

He gives up smoking; obviously, he fears contracting one of the smoking-related diseases

The semi-colon can also be used to assemble detailed lists.

Examples:

The conference was attended by delegates from Ikeja, Lagos; Agbowo, Ibadan; Wuse, Abuja; Daura, Katsina; and Sabongari, Kano.

The semicolon (;) is used to connect independent clauses. It shows a closer relationship between the clauses than a period would show. For example: John was hurt ; he knew she only said it to upset him.

THE APOSTROPHE (‘)

An apostrophe (‘) sometimes called inverted comma is used to indicate the omission of a letter or letters from a word, the possessive case, or the plurals of lowercase letters.

- The apostrophe indicates possession or ownership.

For example:

The boy’s car is red, (girl is in the singular).

This shows the reader that the car belongs to the boy.

The boys’ cars are green, (boys in this instance are plural, i.e. more than one boy, more than one car).

This indicates that the cars belong to the boys.

- to form **contractions** by showing the numbers or letters that have been left out.

E.g.: ’89 =1989

E.g.: I am = I’m / we are = we’re / he will, you’re

- to form the **possessive** of a noun.

Add ‘s to a single noun or name: uncle’s pipe; Tony’s girlfriend; dog’s tail; Bobola’s car.

Add ‘s to singular noun that end in –s: actress’s role; princess’s lover; rhinoceros’s skin.

Add ‘s to plural nouns that end in –s: boys’ bicycles; friends’ houses; books’ covers

Add ‘s to other plural nouns: children’s toys; women’s clothes; men’s boots.

Add ‘s to a person’s office or shop: I’ll buy the pork at the butcher’s. / I’ll be visiting Tom’s.

Add ‘s only after the second name: Jack and Jill’s pail; Bonnie and Clyde’s loot.

- to form the plural of abbreviations: many Dr.’s; many M.D.’s; many Ph.D.’s.

QUOTATION OR SPEECH MARKS (“...”)

Quotation or speech marks are used to:

To mark out speech

When quoting someone else’s speech

For example:

My grandma said, “Share your chocolates with your friends.”

“George, don’t do that!”

“Will you get your books out please?” said Mrs Jones, the teacher, “and quieten down!”

HYPHEN (-)

The hyphen is used to link words together.

For example:

- twentieth-century people
- second-class upper
- non-verbal

Generally, hyphens are used to join two words or parts of words together while avoiding confusion or ambiguity.

EXAMPLES

show-down

up-to-date

There are some cases where hyphens preserve written clarity such as where there are letter collisions, where a prefix is added, or in family relations. Many words that have been hyphenated in the past have since dropped the hyphen and become a single word (email, nowadays).

EXAMPLES

- co-operate
- oval-like
- anti-bomb
- post-colonial
- great-grandmother
- mother-in-law

HYPHENS IN NUMBERS

Hyphen is used with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.

EXAMPLES

- Twenty-two
- seventy-five

- thirty-three
- sixty-nine

In written fractions, a hyphen is placed between the numerator and denominator except if there is already a hyphen in either the numerator or the denominator.

EXAMPLES

two-thirds

one-eight

three-tenths

six-hundredths

A Hyphen is used when a number forms part of an adjectival compound

EXAMPLES

Bobola has a 55-hour working week.

Busola won the 12000-metre marathon race.

Wole Soyinka was a great nineteenth-century novelist.

DASHES

Dashes can be used to add parenthetical statements or comments in much the same way as you would use brackets. In formal writing you should use the bracket rather than the dash as a dash is considered less formal. Dashes can be used to create emphasis in a sentence.

EXAMPLES

You may think she is a liar – she isn't.

Osas might come to the party – you never know.

BRACKETS ()

Brackets always come in pairs () and are used to make an aside, or a point which is not part of the main flow of a sentence. If you remove the words between the brackets, the sentence should still make sense.

For example:

“The strategy (or strategies) chosen to meet the objectives may need to change as the intervention continues.”

SQUARE BRACKETS [...]

A different set of square brackets [] can be used:

to abbreviate lengthy quotations

to correct the tense of a quotation to suit the tense of your own sentence

to add your own words to sections of an abbreviated quotation.

To abbreviate lengthy quotations in an essay or report

Example:

“We can define class as a large-scale grouping of people who share common economic resources that strongly influence the types of lifestyle they are able to lead. Ownership of wealth, together with occupation, are the chief basis of class differences. The major classes that exist in Western societies are an upper class [...]; a middle class [...] and a working class [...].”

SLASH (/)

Many people use the slash instead of or, and etc., but this is not always helpful to the reader. There is, however, a modern convention in gender-neutral writing to use ‘s/he’.

Slashes are important symbols in web-addresses (URLs). The full URL for this page is <https://www.Teststreams.com/classwork-support/>

ELLIPSIS (...)

An ellipsis (three dots) indicates that part of the text has been intentionally been left out.

Example: List of odd numbers between 1 and 99 – 1,3,5,... 99.

General Punctuation Rules

Since proper punctuation is an essential part of successful communication, remembering basic *punctuation rules* will make it easier for you to write clearly and effectively.

- Periods
- Commas
- Semicolons

- Colons
- Quotation Marks
- Parentheses and Brackets
- Apostrophes

Periods

Rule 1. Use a period at the end of a complete sentence that is a statement.

Example: *I know him well.*

Rule 2. If the last item in the sentence is an abbreviation that ends in a period, do not follow it with another period.

Incorrect: *This is Alice Smith, M.D..*

Correct: *This is Alice Smith, M.D.*

Correct: *Please shop, cook, etc. We will do the laundry.*

Rule 3. Question marks and exclamation points replace and eliminate periods at the end of a sentence.

Commas

Commas and **periods** are the most frequently used punctuation marks. Commas customarily indicate a brief pause; they're not as final as periods.

Rule 1. We use commas to separate words and word groups in a simple series of three or more items.

Example: *My estate goes to my husband, son, daughter-in-law, and nephew.*

Note: When the last comma in a series comes before *and* or *or* (after *daughter-in-law* in the above example), it is known as the **Oxford comma**. Most newspapers and magazines drop the Oxford comma in a simple series, apparently feeling it's unnecessary. However, omission of the Oxford comma can sometimes lead to misunderstandings.

Example: *We had coffee, cheese and crackers and grapes.*

Adding a comma after *crackers* makes it clear that *cheese and crackers* represents one dish. In cases like this, clarity demands the Oxford comma.

We had coffee, cheese and crackers, and grapes.

Fiction and nonfiction books generally prefer the Oxford comma. Writers must decide Oxford or no Oxford and not switch back and forth, except when omitting the Oxford comma could cause confusion as in the *cheese and crackers* example.

Semicolons

It's no accident that a **semicolon** is a period atop a comma. Like commas, semicolons indicate an audible pause—slightly longer than a comma's, but short of a period's full stop.

Semicolons have other functions, too. But first, a caveat: avoid the common mistake of using a semicolon to replace a colon (see the "Colons" section).

Incorrect: I have one goal; to find her.

Correct: I have one goal: to find her.

Rule 1. A semicolon can replace a period if the writer wishes to narrow the gap between two closely linked sentences.

Examples:

Call me tomorrow; you can give me an answer then.

We have paid our dues; we expect all the privileges listed in the contract.

Rule 2. Use a semicolon before such words and terms as *namely, however, therefore, that is, i.e., for example, e.g., for instance, etc.*, when they introduce a complete sentence. It is also preferable to use a comma after these words and terms.

Example: Bring any two items; however, sleeping bags and tents are in short supply.

Rule 3. Use a semicolon to separate units of a series when one or more of the units contain commas.

Incorrect: The conference has people who have come from Moscow, Idaho, Springfield, California, Alamo, Tennessee, and other places as well.

Note that with only commas, that sentence is hopeless.

Correct: The conference has people who have come from Moscow, Idaho; Springfield, California; Alamo, Tennessee; and other places as well.

Rule 4. A semicolon may be used between independent clauses joined by a connector, such as *and, but, or, nor, etc.*, when one or more commas appear in the first clause.

Example: When I finish here, and I will soon, I'll be glad to help you; and that is a promise I will keep.

Colons

A **colon** means “that is to say” or “here’s what I mean.” Colons and semicolons should never be used interchangeably.

Rule 1. Use a colon to introduce a series of items. Do not capitalize the first item after the colon (unless it’s a proper noun).

Examples:

You may be required to bring many things: sleeping bags, pans, utensils, and warm clothing.

I want the following items: butter, sugar, and flour.

I need an assistant who can do the following: input data, write reports, and complete tax forms.

Rule 2. Avoid using a colon before a list when it directly follows a verb or preposition.

Incorrect: *I want: butter, sugar, and flour.*

Correct:

I want the following: butter, sugar, and flour.

OR

I want butter, sugar, and flour.

Incorrect: *I’ve seen the greats, including: Barrymore, Guinness, and Streep.*

Correct: *I’ve seen the greats, including Barrymore, Guinness, and Streep.*

Rule 3. When listing items one by one, one per line, following a colon, capitalization and ending punctuation are optional when using single words or phrases preceded by letters, numbers, or bullet points. If each point is a complete sentence, capitalize the first word and end the sentence with appropriate ending punctuation. Otherwise, there are no hard and fast rules, except be consistent.

Examples:

I want an assistant who can do the following:

1. input data
2. write reports
3. complete tax forms

The following are requested:

- Wool sweaters for possible cold weather.
- Wet suits for snorkeling.
- Introductions to the local dignitaries.

These are the pool rules:

1. Do not run.
2. If you see unsafe behavior, report it to the lifeguard.
3. Did you remember your towel?
4. Have fun!

Rule 4. A colon instead of a semicolon may be used between independent clauses when the second sentence explains, illustrates, paraphrases, or expands on the first sentence.

Example: *He got what he worked for: he really earned that promotion.*

If a complete sentence follows a colon, as in the previous example, it is up to the writer to decide whether to capitalize the first word. Capitalizing a sentence after a colon is generally a judgment call; if what follows a colon is closely related to what precedes it, there is no need for a capital.

Note: A capital letter generally does not introduce a simple phrase following a colon.

Example: *He got what he worked for: a promotion.*

Rule 5. A colon may be used to introduce a long quotation. Some style manuals say to indent one-half inch on both the left and right margins; others say to indent only on the left margin. Quotation marks are not used.

Example: *The author of *Touched*, Jane Straus, wrote in the first chapter: Georgia went back to her bed and stared at the intricate patterns of burned moth wings in the translucent glass of the overhead light. Her father was in “hyper mode” again where nothing could calm him down.*

Rule 6. Use a colon rather than a comma to follow the salutation in a business letter, even when addressing someone by his or her first name. (Never use a semicolon after a salutation.) A comma is used after the salutation in more informal correspondence.

Formal: *Dear Ms. Rodriguez:*

Informal: *Dear Dave,*

Quotation Marks

The rules set forth in this section are customary in the United States. Great Britain and other countries in the Commonwealth of Nations are governed by quite different conventions.

Nowhere is this more apparent than in Rule 3a in this section, a rule that has the advantage of being far simpler than Britain’s and the disadvantage of being far less logical.

Rule 1. Use double quotation marks to set off a direct (word-for-word) quotation.

Correct: *“When will you be here?” he asked.*

Incorrect: *He asked “when I would be there.”*

Rule 2. Either quotation marks or italics are customary for titles: magazines, books, plays, films, songs, poems, article titles, chapter titles, etc.

Rule 3a. Periods and commas always go inside quotation marks.

Examples:

The sign said, “Walk.” Then it said, “Don’t Walk,” then, “Walk,” all within thirty seconds. He yelled, “Hurry up.”

Rule 3b. Use single quotation marks for quotations within quotations.

Example: *He said, “Dan cried, ‘Do not treat me that way.’”*

Note that the period goes inside both the single and double quotation marks.

Rule 4. As a courtesy, make sure there is visible space at the start or end of a quotation between adjacent single and double quotation marks. (Your word processing program may do this automatically.)

Not ample space: *He said, “Dan cried, ‘Do not treat me that way.’”*

Ample space: *He said, “Dan cried, ‘Do not treat me that way.’”*

Rule 5a. Quotation marks are often used with technical terms, terms used in an unusual way, or other expressions that vary from standard usage.

Examples:

*It’s an oil-extraction method known as “fracking.”
He did some “experimenting” in his college days.
I had a visit from my “friend” the tax man.*

Rule 5b. Never use single quotation marks in sentences like the previous three.

Incorrect: *I had a visit from my ‘friend’ the tax man.*

The single quotation marks in the above sentence are intended to send a message to the reader that *friend* is being used in a special way: in this case, sarcastically. Avoid this invalid usage. Single quotation marks are valid only within a quotation, as per Rule 3b, above.

Rule 6. When quoted material runs more than one paragraph, start each new paragraph with opening quotation marks, but do not use closing quotation marks until the end of the passage.

Example: She wrote: "I don't paint anymore. For a while I thought it was just a phase that I'd get over.

"Now, I don't even try."

Parentheses and Brackets

Parentheses and brackets must never be used interchangeably.

Parentheses

Rule 1. Use parentheses to enclose information that clarifies or is used as an aside.

Example: He finally answered (after taking five minutes to think) that he did not understand the question.

If material in parentheses ends a sentence, the period goes after the parentheses.

Example: He gave me a nice bonus (\$500).

Commas could have been used in the first example; a colon could have been used in the second example. The use of parentheses indicates that the writer considered the information less important—almost an afterthought.

Rule 2. Periods go inside parentheses only if an entire sentence is inside the parentheses.

Example: Please read the analysis. (You'll be amazed.)

This is a rule with a lot of wiggle room. An entire sentence in parentheses is often acceptable without an enclosed period:

Example: Please read the analysis (you'll be amazed).

Rule 3. Parentheses, despite appearances, are not part of the subject.

*Example: Joe (and his trusty mutt) **was** always welcome.*

If this seems awkward, try rewriting the sentence:

*Example: Joe (accompanied by his trusty mutt) **was** always welcome.*

Rule 4. Commas are more likely to follow parentheses than precede them.

Incorrect: When he got home, (it was already dark outside) he fixed dinner.

Correct: When he got home (it was already dark outside), he fixed dinner.

Brackets

Brackets are far less common than parentheses, and they are only used in special cases. Brackets (like single quotation marks) are used exclusively within quoted material.

Rule 1. Brackets are interruptions. When we see them, we know they've been added by someone else. They are used to explain or comment on the quotation.

Examples:

"Four score and seven [today we'd say eighty-seven] years ago..."

"Bill shook hands with [his son] Al."

Rule 2. When quoting something that has a spelling or grammar mistake or presents material in a confusing way, insert the term *sic* in italics and enclose it in nonitalic (unless the surrounding text is italic) brackets.

Sic ("thus" in Latin) is shorthand for, "This is exactly what the original material says."

Example: *She wrote, "I would rather die then [sic] be seen wearing the same outfit as my sister."*

The [*sic*] indicates that *then* was mistakenly used instead of *than*.

Rule 3. In formal writing, brackets are often used to maintain the integrity of both a quotation and the sentences others use it in.

Example: *"[T]he better angels of our nature" gave a powerful ending to Lincoln's first inaugural address.*

Lincoln's memorable phrase came midsentence, so the word *the* was not originally capitalized.

Apostrophes

Rule 1a. Use the **apostrophe** to show possession. To show possession with a singular noun, add an apostrophe plus the letter *s*.

Examples:

a woman's hat

the boss's wife

Mrs. Chang's house

Rule 1b. Many common nouns end in the letter *s* (*lens, cactus, bus*, etc.). So do a lot of proper nouns (*Mr. Jones, Texas, Christmas*). There are conflicting policies and theories about how to show possession when writing such nouns. There is no right answer; the best advice is to choose a formula and stay consistent.

Rule 1c. Some writers and editors add only an apostrophe to all nouns ending in *s*. And some add an apostrophe + *s* to every proper noun, be it *Hastings's* or *Jones's*.

One method, common in newspapers and magazines, is to add an apostrophe + s ('s) to common nouns ending in s, but only a stand-alone apostrophe to proper nouns ending in s.

Examples:

the class's hours

Mr. Jones' golf clubs

the canvas's size

Texas' weather

Care must be taken to place the apostrophe outside the word in question. For instance, if talking about a pen belonging to Mr. Hastings, many people would wrongly write *Mr. Hasting's pen* (his name is not Mr. Hasting).

Correct: *Mr. Hastings' pen*

Another widely used technique is to write the word as we would speak it. For example, since most people saying, "Mr. Hastings' pen" would not pronounce an added s, we would write *Mr. Hastings' pen* with no added s. But most people would pronounce an added s in "Jones's," so we'd write it as we say it: *Mr. Jones's golf clubs*. This method explains the punctuation of *for goodness' sake*.

Rule 2a. Regular nouns are nouns that form their plurals by adding either the letter s or -es (*guy, guys; letter, letters; actress, actresses*; etc.). To show plural possession, simply put an apostrophe after the s.

Correct: *guys' night out* (*guy* + s + apostrophe)

Incorrect: *guy's night out* (implies only one guy)

Correct: *two actresses' roles* (*actress* + es + apostrophe)

Incorrect: *two actress's roles*

Rule 2b. Do not use an apostrophe + s to make a regular noun plural.

Incorrect: *Apostrophe's are confusing.*

Correct: *Apostrophes are confusing.*

Incorrect: *We've had many happy Christmas's.*

Correct: *We've had many happy Christmases.*

In special cases, such as when forming a plural of a word that is not normally a noun, some writers add an apostrophe for clarity.

Example: *Here are some do's and don'ts.*

In that sentence, the verb *do* is used as a plural noun, and the apostrophe was added because the writer felt that *dos* was confusing. Not all writers agree; some see no problem with *dos* and *don'ts*.

Rule 2c. English also has many **irregular nouns** (*child, nucleus, tooth*, etc.). These nouns become plural by changing their spelling, sometimes becoming quite different words. You may find it helpful to write out the entire irregular plural noun before adding an apostrophe or an apostrophe + *s*.

Incorrect: *two childrens' hats*

The plural is *children*, not *childrens*.

Correct: *two children's hats* (*children* + apostrophe + *s*)

Incorrect: *the teeths' roots*

Correct: *the teeth's roots*

Rule 2d. Things can get really confusing with the possessive plurals of proper names ending in *s*, such as *Hastings* and *Jones*.

If you're the guest of the Ford family—the *Fords*—you're the *Fords'* guest (*Ford* + *s* + apostrophe). But what if it's the *Hastings* family?

Most would call them the "Hastings." But that would refer to a family named "Hasting." If someone's name ends in *s*, we must add *-es* for the plural. The plural of *Hastings* is *Hastingses*. The members of the Jones family are the *Joneses*.

To show possession, add an apostrophe.

Incorrect: *the Hastings' dog*

Correct: *the Hastingses' dog* (*Hastings* + *es* + apostrophe)

Incorrect: *the Jones' car*

Correct: *the Joneses' car*

In serious writing, this rule must be followed no matter how strange or awkward the results.

Rule 2e. Never use an apostrophe to make a name plural.

Incorrect: *The Wilson's are here.*

Correct: *The Wilsons are here.*

Incorrect: *We visited the Sanchez's.*

Correct: *We visited the Sanchezes.*

Rule 3. With a singular compound noun (for example, *mother-in-law*), show possession with an apostrophe + *s* at the end of the word.

Example: *my mother-in-law's hat*

If the compound noun (e.g., *brother-in-law*) is to be made plural, form the plural first (*brothers-in-law*), and then use the apostrophe + *s*.

Example: *my two brothers-in-law's hats*

Rule 4. If two people possess the same item, put the apostrophe + *s* after the second name only.

Example: *Cesar and Maribel's home is constructed of redwood.*

However, if one of the joint owners is written as a pronoun, use the possessive form for both.

Incorrect: *Maribel and my home*

Correct: *Maribel's and my home*

Incorrect: *he and Maribel's home*

Incorrect: *him and Maribel's home*

Correct: *his and Maribel's home*

In cases of separate rather than joint possession, use the possessive form for both.

Examples:

Cesar's and Maribel's homes are both lovely.

They don't own the homes jointly.

Cesar and Maribel's homes are both lovely.

The homes belong to both of them.

Rule 5. Use an apostrophe with **contractions**. The apostrophe is placed where a letter or letters have been removed.

Examples: *doesn't, wouldn't, it's, can't, you've*, etc.

Incorrect: *does'nt*

Rule 6. There are various approaches to plurals for initials, capital letters, and numbers used as nouns.

Examples:

She consulted with three M.D.s.

She consulted with three M.D.'s.

Some write *M.D.'s* to give the *s* separation from the second period.

Many writers and editors prefer an apostrophe after single capital letters only:

Examples:

I made straight A's.

He learned his ABCs.

There are different schools of thought about years and decades. The following examples are all in widespread use:

Examples:

the 1990s

the 1990's

the '90s

the 90's

Awkward: *the '90's*

Rule 7. Amounts of time or money are sometimes used as possessive adjectives that require apostrophes.

Incorrect: *three days leave*

Correct: *three days' leave*

Incorrect: *my two cents worth*

Correct: *my two cents' worth*

Rule 8. The personal pronouns *hers, ours, yours, theirs, its, whose,* and *oneself* never take an apostrophe.

Example: *Feed a horse grain. It's better for its health.*

Rule 9. When an apostrophe comes before a word or number, take care that it's truly an apostrophe (') rather than a single quotation mark (').

Incorrect: *'Twas the night before Christmas.*

Correct: *'Twas the night before Christmas.*

Incorrect: *I voted in '08.*

Correct: *I voted in '08.*

NOTE

Serious writers avoid the word *'til* as an alternative to *until*. The correct word is *till*, which is many centuries older than *until*.

Rule 10. Beware of **false possessives**, which often occur with nouns ending in *s*. Don't add apostrophes to noun-derived adjectives ending in *s*. Close analysis is the best guide.

Incorrect: We enjoyed the New Orleans' cuisine.

In the preceding sentence, the word *the* makes no sense unless *New Orleans* is being used as an adjective to describe *cuisine*. In English, nouns frequently become adjectives. Adjectives rarely if ever take apostrophes.

Incorrect: I like that Beatles' song.

Correct: I like that Beatles song.

Again, Beatles is an adjective, modifying song.

Incorrect: He's a United States' citizen.

Correct: He's a United States citizen.

Rule 11. Beware of nouns ending in *y*; do not show possession by changing the *y* to *-ies*.

Correct: the company's policy

Incorrect: the companies policy

Correct: three companies' policies

ASSESSMENT

1. The /kw/ sound falls under the consonant cluster category because of—? (A. It is made of two consonants B. It does not have the required number of consonants C. The consonants it has are the right consonants D. All of the above)
2. What is your understanding of punctuation marks?
3. List three punctuation marks?

ANSWER

1. A
2. *Punctuation marks* are symbols that are used to aid the clarity and comprehension of written language. Some common *punctuation marks* are the period, comma, question *mark*, exclamation point, apostrophe, quotation *mark* and hyphen.
3. Full Stop, Question Mark, Comma.

Week 11

Topic: Summary Writing

When we are studying a text, perhaps with a view to writing notes or summary, the main point or idea in a paragraph is conveyed through the “topic sentence”. This is the sentence which states the main idea or topic of a paragraph.

All other sentences in the paragraph develop the idea or theme stated by the topic sentence. An important summary skill is the ability to identify topic sentences of paragraphs as a way of identifying the main points or ideas of individual paragraphs. You may never be asked to summarize a whole passage.

How do you go about summarizing a composition? There are five stages

1. **Find the relevant parts of the text:** First you have to find quickly the relevant parts of the text.
2. **List or find the key points:** Summaries must contain the key points, each point included earns a mark. Some students make a list of points to include if there is time, others underline them in the book if it is their own.
3. Write a rough draft of the entire composition.
4. Write your own final draft of the summary and make necessary adjustments.
5. **Final check:** Check your final draft for careless errors.

When you skim read text successfully, you get the gist very swiftly, but when you are asked to write a summary, you need to be much more careful. A summary is a short statement of what someone has said or written about a subject. It should contain only the main points. Non-essential or irrelevant information should be omitted.

The diagram indicates steps you should go through to write a summary:

Notes:

The summary must bring out the key elements in the composition.

The first person 'I' must be avoided in summary.

The summary should be written in your own words, it does NOT just lift whole sentences from the original composition.

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.

Differences between Articles and Speeches

Are there differences between the techniques implied when writing speeches and essays? The answer is yes. Speeches for instance use some different techniques such as repetition and the use of signposts. This is very much unlike what obtains when writing a scholarly essay; you don't want to repeat yourself because the reader can just read the essay again. In this sense therefore, we can say that essays are a lot more academic [formal] in scope whereas speeches are not written with such level of seriousness.

However, in a speech the rules flip-flop. In a speech you do want to do these things because you need to get your point across to the audience. The audience will most likely not attentively hear every word you say, so you need to remind them throughout your essay what you've told them and what you will tell them. These are called signposts. In your conclusion of a speech you DO want to summarize what you've said.

The reason why speeches use a lot of repetition is to keep the audience's attention. This is needless in scholarly essays because if the reader does not understand your previous point, all s/he needs to do is re-read.

Also, depending on the type of speech, most speeches are not written out word for word because they are not supposed to be memorized. You're just supposed to know the topics of your essay, supporting arguments, and sub-sections, but not an actual word for word written out speech.

ASSESSMENT

1. In a few paragraphs, explain how to summarise a composition.
2. What is an article?

ANSWER

1.
 - **Find the relevant parts of the text:** First you have to find quickly the relevant parts of the text.
 - **List or find the key points:** Summaries must contain the key points, each point included earns a mark. Some students make a list of points to include if there is time, others underline them in the book if it is their own.
 - Write a rough draft of the entire composition.
 - Write your own final draft of the summary and make necessary adjustments.
 - **Final check:** Check your final draft for careless errors.
2. A piece of writing included with others in a newspaper, magazine, or other publication.