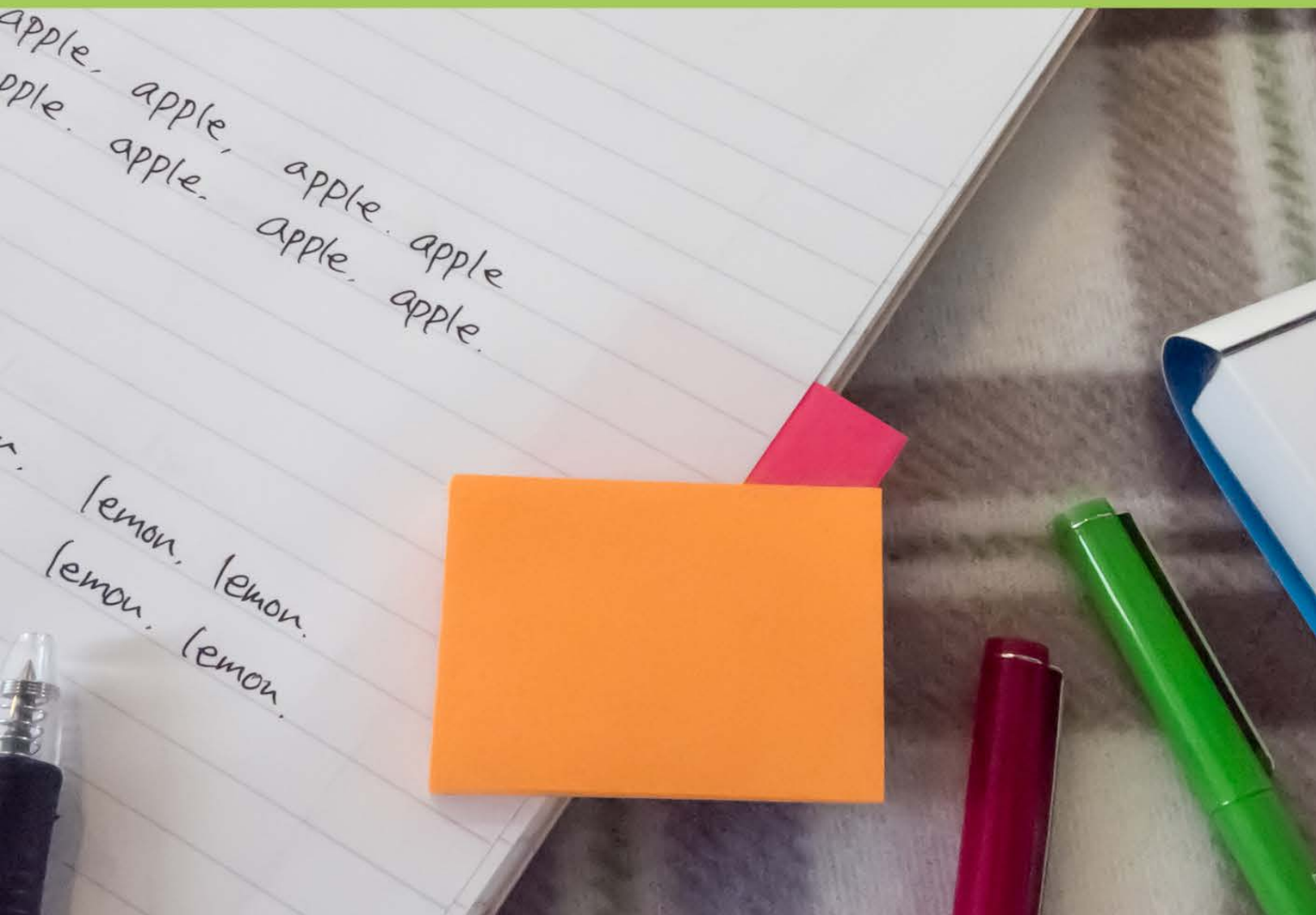


ENGLISH LANGUAGE

FOR

Junior Secondary School

3



AKADALEARN

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JSS 3

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

FIRST TERM

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English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 1

Contents:

- Grammar – Parts of Speech Revision
- Reading and Comprehension – Scanning for Main points
- Literature – Introduction to Fiction and Non-Fiction

A. Grammar – Parts of Speech Revision

Noun – A noun is the name of a person, animal, place or things.

Example – Tolu drove the Car to Atlanta

Tolu (person), Car (thing), Atlanta (place)

Pronoun – A *pronoun* is a word that takes the place of a noun. Examples: he, she, it, they, someone, who. *Pronouns* can do all of the things that nouns can do.

Example – I gave myself a round of applause

Verb – A verb is an action or a doing word

Example – Tolu is driving a green car

Adverb – An adverb is a part of a speech which can be added to a verb to modify its meaning. Examples: fast, never, well, most, least, more, less, now, for and there.

Example – She sings loudly

Adjective – *Adjectives* are descriptive words that modify nouns and pronouns, i.e gives more meaning to nouns.

Example – The tall, handsome boy gave me 3 cents

Conjunction – A *conjunction* is a word that joins two or more words, phrases, or clauses.

Example – The poor boy came but my Aunty drove him away

Preposition – A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. Prepositions are words like *in* and *out*, *above* and *below*, and *to* and *from*

Example – The boy came from a humble background

Exclamation – An *exclamation* (also called an interjection) is a word or phrase that expresses strong emotion, such as surprise, pleasure, or anger. *Exclamations* often stand on their own, and in writing they are usually followed by an *exclamation* mark rather than a full stop.

Example – Wow! I got a Christmas gift

Assessment

Identify the parts of speech in each sentence

1. Mr Olu bought a beautiful green dress for his new wife
2. The man walked quickly through the dark alley
3. Wow! The fisherman caught a big fish
4. The car entered into the Lagoon
5. Peter is kind but Paul is stingy

Answers

1. Olu – Noun, Bought – Verb, Beautiful – Adjective, Green – Adjective, Dress – Noun, New – Adjective, Wife – Noun
2. Man – Noun, Walked – Verb, Quickly – Adverb, Through – Preposition, Dark – Adjective, Alley – Noun
3. Wow – Exclamation, Fisherman – Noun, Caught – Verb, Big – Adjective, Fish – Noun
4. Car – Noun, entered – Verb, Into – Preposition, Lagoon – Noun
5. Peter, Paul – Noun, Kind, Stingy – Verb, but – Conjunction

B. Reading and Comprehension – Scanning for Main points

A quick look through the passage to find specific information is called Scanning. Scan lines 1 – 15 of the story below and find out as quickly as you can:

1. Who is Adamu?
2. Who is Sonkowa?
3. Who is Sonkowa's Father?

¹In a certain town there lived a poor man named Adamu. Although he was very poor, Adamu was a very good man. He was liked and respected by everyone, and even birds and animals seemed to trust him, for it was very noticeable that they showed no fear whenever he came near them.

In the same town, there lived a beautiful girl few years younger than Adamu. Her name is Sonkowa. Sonkowa was as good-natured as she was ⁵ beautiful, and many men wanted to marry her. Sonkowa's father was a wealthy trader and he was naturally anxious that his daughter should make a good marriage preferably to one of the other rich merchants who lived in the

town. However the ruler of the town made it clear he wanted to marry Sonkowa, and her parents felt like there was little alternative, for they had no wish to offend the ruler of the town. But when they approached their daughter on the matter, they were shocked by her response.

¹⁰ ‘ How can I become the junior wife of a man old enough to be my father? Please the only man I want to marry is Adamu.’

‘ What ! Adamu, the poor man? He hasn’t got two coins to rub together! You must be joking,’ said her father

But Sonkowa was determined. Her parents were equally determined not to offend the ruler.

They insisted that she should marry him, but Sonkowa said ‘ I would rather die.’

Sonkowa refused to drink or eat, and when her parents saw how obstinate she was, they explained the situation to the ruler.

¹⁵ ‘ If she doesn’t marry Adamu, she will die.’ said her father. ‘ I beg you, let the marriage take place. But it won’t last long – Adamu is too poor.’

‘Hmmm! said the ruler, thoughtfully. ‘ I agree let her marry that man. But I shall make sure the marriage doesn’t last long. I shall arrange a fatal accident for Adamu. She will soon forget him – and then she will marry me!.

When Sonkowa heard she could now marry Adamu, she was delighted. She began to eat normally again and soon regained her strength and beauty.

Questions from Comprehension

1. Sonkowa’s parents tried to persuade her to
 - a. marry a rich merchant
 - b. marry a wealthy trader
 - c. marry Adamu
 - d. marry the ruler of the town
2. there was little alternative’ in line 7 means
 - a. they had some choice
 - b. they really had no choice
 - c. they had another small choice
 - d. they had a real choice
3. Which of the following is closest in meaning to the word ‘obstinate’ in line 14
 - a. angry

- b. obnoxious
 - c. determined
 - d. badly behaved
4. The ruler's plan was to let Sonkowa marry Adamu and then
- a. grow tired of him
 - b. forget him after the ruler had arranged an accident
 - c. discover that he was too poor
 - d. regain strength and beauty
5. What is the theme of this story
- a. Marriage
 - b. Gender Issues
 - c. Love
 - d. Disobedience

Answers

- 1. D
- 2. B
- 3. C
- 4. B
- 5. C

C. Literature – Introduction to Fiction and Non-fiction

Fiction is content, primarily a narrative, that is made from imagination, in addition to, or rather than from, history or fact. According to Merriam-Webster.com, fiction is “something invented by the imagination or feigned, specifically an invented story; the action of feigning or of creating with the imagination. Writers sometimes use fictional creatures such as dragons and fairies. The term most commonly refers to the major narrative forms of literature, including the novel, novella, short story, and narrative poem or song, though fiction may also describe the works of other narrative presentational forms, such as comics, live performances (for example, theatre, opera, and ballet), electronic recordings (for example, many works of film, television, radio, and Internet), and games (for example, many video games and role-playing games). Works of fiction are primarily invented or imaginary. Short stories, novels and novellas of

various subgenres — romance, science fiction, historical fiction, mystery — are considered fiction. Fiction usually contains elements of a story: plot, characters, settings and themes. Many works of fiction have facts in them; for example, historical fiction uses information about a particular time to create a meaningful and realistic setting for an invented story. Fiction is “literary” if it has a reputation of merit, usually due to superb style or characterization. Fiction constitutes an act of creative invention, so that faithfulness to reality is not typically expected; in other words, fiction is not assumed to present only characters who are actual people or descriptions that are factually true.

Subsets of genres, known as common genres, have developed from the archetypes of genres in written expression. The common genres included in recommended Literaturin verse or prose, usually for theatrical performance, where conflicts and emotion are expressed through dialogue and action

- Classic – fiction that has become part of an accepted literary canon, widely taught in schools
- Comic/Graphic Novel – scripted fiction told visually in artist drawn pictures, usually in panels and speech bubbles
- Crime/Detective – fiction about a committed crime, how the criminal gets caught, and the repercussions of the crime
- Fable – narration demonstrating a useful truth, especially in which animals speak as humans; legendary, supernatural tale
- Fairy tale – story about fairies or other magical creatures, usually for children
- Fan-fiction – fiction written by a fan of, and featuring characters from, a particular TV series, movie, etc.
- Fantasy – fiction with strange or otherworldly settings or characters; fiction which invites suspension of reality
- Fiction narrative – literary works whose content is produced by the imagination and is not necessarily based on fact
- Fiction in verse – full-length novels with plot, subplot(s), theme(s), major and minor characters, in which the narrative is presented in verse form (usually free verse)
- Folklore – the songs, stories, myths, and proverbs of a people or “folk” as handed down by word of mouth
- Historical fiction – story with fictional characters and events in a historical setting

- Horror – fiction in which events evoke a feeling of dread and sometimes fear in both the characters and the reader
- Humor – Usually a fiction full of fun, fancy, and excitement, meant to entertain and sometimes cause intended laughter; but can be contained in all genres
- Legend – story, sometimes of a national or folk hero, that has a basis in fact but also includes imaginative material
- Magical Realism magical or unreal elements play a natural part in an otherwise realistic environment
- Metafiction – also known as romantic irony in the context of Romantic works of literature, uses self-reference to draw attention to itself as a work of art, while exposing the “truth” of a story
- Mystery – this is fiction dealing with the solution of a crime or the unraveling of secrets
- Mythology – legend or traditional narrative, often based in part on historical events, that reveals human behavior and natural phenomena by its symbolism; often pertaining to the actions of the gods
- Realistic fiction – story that is true to life
- Science fiction – story based on impact of actual, imagined, or potential science, usually set in the future or on other planets
- Short story – fiction of such brevity that it supports no subplots
- Suspense/Thriller – fiction about harm about to befall a person or group and the attempts made to evade the harm
- Tall tale– humorous story with blatant exaggerations, swaggering heroes who do the impossible with nonchalance
- Western – set in the American Old West frontier and typically set in the late eighteenth to late nineteenth century

Non – Fiction Writings

Nonfiction is a content (often, in the form of a story) whose creator, in good faith, assumes responsibility for the truth or accuracy of the events, people, and/or information presented. A work whose creator dishonestly claims this same responsibility is a fraud; a story whose creator explicitly leaves open if and how the work refers to reality is usually classified as fiction. Merriam-Webster’s definition of nonfiction is “literature or cinema that is not fictional.” According to Allwords.com, nonfiction is “written works intended to give facts, or true accounts

of real things and events.” Works of nonfiction are meant to be factual. This means magazine articles, newspaper stories, encyclopedia entries, interviews and textbooks are all nonfiction. Many aisles in bookstores are full of nonfiction — the cooking, art, travel, science, religion, true crime, psychology and decorating sections all contain factual works. While there are no hard-and-fast rules about what makes a piece of nonfiction “literary,” a good bet is that a piece of literary nonfiction will have a bit more of a story than, say, a recipe or a paragraph in a textbook. Biographies, autobiographies, essays and memoirs are among genres that may be considered creative or literary nonfiction.

- Biography/Autobiography – Narrative of a person’s life. A true story about a real person.
- Essay – A short literary composition that reflects the author’s outlook or point.
- Narrative nonfiction – Factual information presented in a format which tells a story.
- Speech – Public address or discourse.
- Textbook – Authoritative and detailed factual description of a topic.
- Reference book – Dictionary, thesaurus, encyclopedia, almanac, atlas, etc.

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 2

Contents:

Speech Work – Central Vowel /ə/

Grammar (Verb + Prepositions)

Reading and Comprehension – Skimming for Specific Information

Literature – Prose

A. Speech Work – Central Vowel /ə/

This short sound is very common in English. It only occurs in unstressed syllables. It is the vowel you normally hear in these common words: a, an, the, and, but, of. When you have to make this sound, your mouth should not be wide open. Read the following words and phrases aloud. The unstressed syllables are shown in italics, and all contain /ə/:

again about alone away

teacher mother tailor neighbour

an egg the book a glass of water

at school at home poor but happy

Note that when *the* comes before another word beginning with a vowel, the sound is no longer /ə/ but /i/. Say the following:

He mixed the eggs together and poured them into the oil

B. Grammar (Verb + Prepositions)

Describing Emotions

Some verbs are not words of action: they express a state of being. Examples include be, become and feel. Often these verbs are followed by an adjective. In these examples, this pattern is used to talk about emotions.

Subject	Verb	Adjective
---------	------	-----------

	Was	Happy
--	-----	-------

Sonkwa	Became	Unhappy
--------	--------	---------

	Felt	sad
--	------	-----

Often, a preposition and an object follow the adjective, as in the examples which follow:

Subject	Verb	Adjective	Preposition	Object
---------	------	-----------	-------------	--------

Sonkowa Was Happy With Adamu
They Felt Shocked At Her response

Different adjectives are followed by different prepositions. Here is a list of common examples:

Adjectives	Prepositions
Alarmed, embarrassed	At
Happy, pleased	With, by
Resentful, certain	Of
Worried, anxious	about

Assessment

Complete these sentences below about the story

1. Sonkowa was worried her father's plan
2. Sonkowa's father was pleased _____ the ruler's reply
3. Adamu was alarmed _____ the bird's words
4. Sonkowa's father became resentful _____ of his daughter's attitude
5. Sonkowa was embarrassed ____the ruler's attention
6. Adamu felt certain ____ Sonkowa's love for him
7. His father became anxious ____ his daughter's welfare
8. We were pleased _____ the story

Describing Emotions

Sometimes an adjective maybe followed by *to* and the infinitive:

I was sorry to hear your news

I'm pleased to meet you

Adjectives like those above can also be followed by a clause beginning with that:

I'm very pleased that you came

Adamu was anxious that they should leave quickly

C. Reading and Comprehension – Skimming for Specific Information

Read paragraph A below and answer the following questions

- Each paragraph is about one topic

- Each paragraph usually contains a topic sentence

A

The Locust is a species of grasshopper.

Locusts are found in all continents of the world except Antarctica.

In Africa, there are ten species of locusts.

They are very common in tropical areas , except where it is wet.

B

Locusts live in two form, or phases as they are called:

the solitary phase and the gregarious phase.

In the solitary phase, they live alone like any other grasshopper,
and cause little damage.

But if their numbers increase, they enter the gregarious phase.

In this phase, they can become swarms big enough to darken the sky,
and they are very dangerous

1. The topic is
 - a. Grasshopper
 - b. Locusts
 - c. African Locusts
2. Which is the topic sentence?

D. Literature – Prose

Prose is a form of language that exhibits a grammatical structure and a natural flow of speech rather than a rhythmic structure (as in traditional poetry). While there are critical debates on the construction of prose, its simplicity and loosely defined structure have led to its adoption for use in the majority of spoken dialogue, factual discourse and both topical and fictional writing. It is commonly used, for example, in literature, newspapers, magazines, encyclopedias, broadcasting, film, history, philosophy, law and other forms of communication. Prose is a communicative style that sounds natural and uses grammatical structure. Prose is the opposite of verse, or poetry, which employs a rhythmic structure that does not mimic ordinary speech.

Prose is a form of language that has no formal metrical structure. It applies a natural flow of speech, and ordinary grammatical structure rather than rhythmic structure, such as in the case

of traditional poetry. Normal every day speech is spoken in prose and most people think and write in prose form. Prose comprises of full grammatical sentences which consist of paragraphs and forgoes aesthetic appeal in favor of clear, straightforward language.

Example of a Prose verse:

Read this from *“Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening”* written by Robert Frost.

“The woods are lovely, dark and deep.

But I have promises to keep,

And miles to go before I sleep,

And miles to go before I sleep.

Common Examples of Prose

Everything that is not poetry is prose. Therefore, every utterance or written word that is not in the form of verse is an example of prose. Here are some different formats that prose comes in:

- **Casual dialogue:** “Hi, how are you?” “I’m fine, how are you?” “Fine, thanks.”
- **Oration:** I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. –Martin Luther King, Jr.
- **Dictionary definition:** Prose (n)—
the ordinary form of spoken or written language, without metrical structure, as distinguished from poetry or verse.
- **Philosophical texts:** Whoever fights monsters should see to it that in the process he does not become a monster. And if you gaze long enough into an abyss, the abyss will gaze back into you. –Friedrich Nietzsche
- **Journalism:** State and local officials were heavily criticized for their response to the January 2014 storm that created a traffic nightmare and left some motorists stranded for 18 hours or more.

Characteristics of Prose

- Written in paragraphs
- Tells a story rather than describes an image or metaphor
- Generally has characters and a plot

Some Common Types of Prose

1. Nonfictional Prose: A literary work that is mainly based on fact although it may contain fictional elements in certain cases. Examples are biographies and essays.

2. Fictional Prose: A literary work that is wholly or partly imagined or theoretical. Examples are novels.

3. Heroic Prose: A literary work that may be written down or recited and employs many of the formulaic expressions found in oral tradition. Examples are legends and tales.

4. Prose Poetry: A literary work which exhibits poetic quality using emotional effects and heightened imagery but are written in prose instead of verse.

Assessment

1. Why are paragraphs inevitable in when writing?
2. Here are two more paragraphs about locusts. One is well written and the other is not. Read paragraphs A and B and answer the following questions-A. Locusts live in two forms or phases, as they are called: the solitary phase and the gregarious phase. In the solitary phase, they live alone like any other grasshopper, and cause little damage. But if their numbers increase, they enter the gregarious phase. In this phase, they can become swarms big enough to darken the sky, and then they are very dangerous.B. In a few hours a swarm of locusts can eat all the vegetation in an area. A swarm of locusts can cause terrible damage. For example, 10,000 million locusts can eat 20,000 tonnes of food in a day. So in one day, they can eat enough maize to feed 100,000 people for a year.1. Identify the topic sentence of the paragraphs A & B.2. Which of the two paragraphs is well written? Why?
 3. Rewrite the badly written paragraph.
3. What is a prose?
4. Mention and discuss the characteristics of a prose.
5. Discuss the four types of prose that you know.

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 3

Contents:

Speech Work – Intonation

Grammar – Adverbs of Frequency

Critical Reading

Literature – Prose (Cont'd)

A. Speech Work – Stress and Intonation

Falling Intonation

This means that the voice goes down after the last stressed syllable in the sentence. Read the following examples aloud. Note that the last stressed syllable is printed in capital letters

Statements:

I like reading ↓ NOVELs.

She doesn't enjoy ↓ POETry

Wh – questions:

What are you ↓ DOing?

Why are you com↓PLAINing?

How much does that ↓ BOOK cost?

Commands and requests:

Look ↓ OUT!

Sit ↓ DOWN, everyone!

Look each way before crossing the ↓ ROAD

Exclamations:

Good ↓ GRACious! I don't be↓LIEVE it!

Read aloud the following sentences:

1. Everybody likes Saturday Nights
2. Actions speak louder than words
3. A bird in the hand is worth two in the Bush
4. Honesty is the best policy
5. Neither a borrower nor a lender be

Rising Intonation

Wh – questions are sentences beginning with words like Who, What, When, Where, Why and How? They cannot be answered with Yes or No. ‘Yes/No’ questions are questions like the following. In each case, the voice goes up on the last stressed syllable – and the answers fall, as in exercise 1

Listen and repeat:

1. Did you see the match last ↑ SATurday?
Yes, I ↓ DID. No, I ↓ DIDn’t.
2. Have you ever used a com↑PUTer?
Yes, I ↓ HAVE. No, I ↓ HAVEn’t.
3. Are you interested in ↑ HIStory?
Yes, I ↓ AM. No, I’m ↓ NOT.

B. Grammar – Adverbials of Frequency

Adverbs

An adverb is a part of a speech which can be added to a verb to modify its meaning. Usually, an adverb tells you when, where, how, in what manner, or to what extent an action is performed. Many adverbs end in /y particularly those that are used to express how an action is performed. Although many adverbs end in /y, some others do not. Example fast, never, well, most, least, more, less, now, for and there.

Adverb modifies verb by giving us the following information.

1. How the action occurs
2. Where the action occurs
3. How many times action occur
4. At which time the action occurs
5. Intensity of action

There are two kinds of Adverbs of Frequency:

1. Definite; for example:

- once/twice/three or several times a day/week/month/year etc
- hourly/daily/weekly etc
- every day/week/ every morning/ every three months

These usually come at the end of a sentence. But where would you place the adverbial *once a month* in this sentence and why?

We visit our son who's at Nsukka University

2. Indefinite

These adverbials give general answers to the question How *often...*? The most common are

- always, invariably
- almost/nearly always
- generally, normally, regularly, usually
- frequently, often
- almost never, rarely, hardly ever, seldom never, not ever

Write a paragraph about your friend, like this one:

My friend Obi often plays football. He usually practises once a week. He also goes for a run once a week during the holidays – but he seldom does so during term time. He says he's always far too busy doing his homework!

C. Critical Reading

This may involve

- thinking about issues raised in the text
- thinking about the way the text is written – and whether it succeeds in communicating with the reader; and if so, how.

Taiwo was looking for a pen friend overseas and decided to reply Eddie's ad. You can see his reply below. Read it quickly and then answer the following questions

1. Where does Taiwo live?
2. How many brothers and sisters does he have?
3. Are Taiwo and Kehinde identical twins?

4. Where does his brother work?
5. What is his brother's job?
6. Where does his father work?
7. What are Taiwo's hobbies?
8. What are his favourite subjects?
9. Give two examples of what he does in his spare time
10. Do you think Eddie would be pleased to receive this letter?

P.O. Box 96,
Akure,
Ondo State,
Nigeria.
4th May 20_

Dear Eddie,

I saw your ad in the paper, and I very much hope we can be friends. This is just a short letter to start off with.

My name is Taiwo, Taiwo Adenuga. In English, the name 'Taiwo' means 'the one who came first'. I was called this because I was the first of twins. My twin sister's name is Kehinde, which means 'the one who came afterwards'. Most of our names mean something in Nigeria. I wonder where you got your name.

As you would expect, Kehinde and I look similar. But our complexions are slightly different: I am dark brown while Kehinde is light brown, almost tan in colour. But of course our hair is jet black.

I am the third of four children in the family. My older brother works in computers in Lagos, but my older sister is still at college. My father works in a bank and my mother is a teacher. My father originally came from Ibadan, but I was born here in Akure.

My favourite subjects at school are science, English and games. I hate history and maths. My hobbies include music (I sing in a choir), reading and ecology. I belong to a group that goes tree planting every so often – we are trying to rescue an area near from soil erosion.

I very much look forward to hearing from you. You say you are interested in music. I wonder what kind. You also say that you enjoy cycling. Does that mean you cycle round London?

Write soon!

Yours Sincerely,

Taiwo

D. Literature – Prose (Cont'd)

Features of Prose

The **elements of prose** are: **character**, **plot**, **setting**, **theme**, and **style**. Of these five elements, character is the *who*, plot is the *what*, setting is the *where* and *when*, theme is the *why*, and style is the *how* of a story.

A **character** is any person, personal, identity, or entity whose existence originates from a fictional work or performance.

A **plot**, or story line, is the rendering and ordering of the events and actions of a story, particularly towards the achievement of some particular artistic or emotional effect.

Setting is the time and location in which a story takes place.

Theme is the broad idea, message, or lesson of a story.

Style includes the multitude of choices fiction writers make, consciously or subconsciously, as they create a story. They encompass the big-picture, strategic choices such as **point of view** and **narrator**, but they also include the nitty-gritty, tactical choices of grammar, punctuation, word usage, sentence and paragraph length and structure, **tone**, the use of **imagery**, chapter selection, titles, and on and on. In the process of writing a story, these choices meld to become the writer's **voice**, his or her own unique style.

Assessment

- Mention features of a prose
- Composition – Write a story on the topic – All that glitters is not Gold

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 4

Contents:

- Consonants /ʒ/ and /dʒ/
- Reading Skills

A. Consonants /ʒ/ and /dʒ/

/ʒ/

To make this sound, the tip and front of the tongue is placed near the mouth. The sound is voiced. Say the words below. Notice how they are spelt

su si g

Measure Confusion Garage

Usual Division regime

Note: Although sure and sugar are spelt with an su, they are pronounced differently.

/dʒ/

To make this sound, place the front of the tongue against the front part of the mouth. Then you suddenly let the air through. The sound is voiced and you use a little less breath. The /dʒ/ sound is easy if you remember that it is like combining /d/ and /ʒ/. Say these words containing /dʒ/ sound and notice the spelling.

j g dg

Joseph gin judge

injection dangerous badge

Identify the consonant sounds – /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ in each of the following

1. leisure
2. religion
3. decision
4. hugely
5. ledger

B. Faster Reading Skills

It is important to develop the skill known as speed reading. To improve your reading speed, we recommend the following:

- Don't read a text 'word-by-word': Read the words in their natural grammatical or sense groups. For example: *The brave woman /ordered the men/to attack at once.*
- Don't point to the words with your finger.
- Don't worry about individual words you don't understand – just get the gist, or general idea of the meaning, of a text. The strange words will often then 'explain themselves' by the way they are used.

We recommend that you read a text very quickly first, to get an overview of what it is about. You can then read it more slowly in detail later if required.

Faster reading often requires two sub-skills:

scanning – for particular items of information (e.g. you scan a dictionary looking for a particular word)

skimming – for gist (a general idea of the meaning)

Reading Strategies

Previewing: *Learning about a text before really reading it.*

This simple strategy includes seeing what you can learn from the headnotes or other introductory material, skimming to get an overview of the content and organization.

Contextualizing: *Placing a text in its historical, biographical, and cultural contexts.*

Your understanding of the words on the page and their significance is informed by what you have come to know and value from living in a particular time and place.

Ask Questions: *Asking questions about the content.*

As students, you can ask your teachers questions about your reading. These questions are designed to help you understand a reading and respond to it more fully, and often this technique works.

Outlining and summarizing: *Identifying the main ideas and restating them in your own words.*

Outlining and summarizing are especially helpful strategies for understanding the content and structure of a reading selection. Whereas outlining reveals the basic structure of the text, summarizing synthesizes a selection's main argument in brief.

Evaluating an argument: *Testing the logic of a text as well as its credibility and emotional impact.*

All writers make assertions that they want you to accept as true. As a critical reader, you should not accept anything on face value but to recognize every assertion as an argument that must be carefully evaluated. An argument has two essential parts: a claim and support.

Reading to Learn

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways.

- Reading to learn the language: Reading material is language input. By giving students a variety of materials to read, instructors provide multiple opportunities for students to absorb vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure, and discourse structure as they occur in authentic contexts. Students thus gain a more complete picture of the ways in which the elements of the language work together to convey meaning.
- Reading for content information: Students' purpose for reading in their native language is often to obtain information about a subject they are studying, and this purpose can be useful in the language learning classroom as well. Reading for content information in the language classroom gives students both authentic reading material and an authentic purpose for reading.
- Reading for cultural knowledge and awareness: Reading everyday materials that are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and Web sites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety, and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down.

When reading to learn, students need to follow four basic steps:

1. Figure out the purpose for reading. Activate background knowledge of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate reading strategies.
2. Attend to the parts of the text that are relevant to the identified purpose and ignore the rest. This selectivity enables students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory.
3. Select strategies that are appropriate to the reading task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Check comprehension while reading and when the reading task is completed. Monitoring comprehension helps students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, helping them learn to use alternate strategies.

Assessment

Mention four Reading strategies

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 5

Contents:

- **Speech Work: Contrast Consonants**
 - **Composition: Letter Writing**
 - **Grammar – Modal Forms**
- A. Contrast Consonants**

The /p/ sound

To make the /p/ sound, press your lips close together and then suddenly open them, letting out the air forcefully. The sound is unvoiced – that means it comes from your mouth not your throat. Practise the following words:

Stress on first syllable Stress on second syllable

Proper

Reply

Pauper

Respond

Plenty

Protect

Property

Perplexed

Try this jingle:

Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper

A peck of pickle pepper Peter Piper picked

If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper,

Where's the peck of pickled pepper Peter Piper picked?

The /f/ sound

To make the /f/ sound, which is also unvoiced, press the lower lip firmly against the upper front teeth, before expelling air.

Practice the following words:

Stress on first syllable Stress on second syllable

Filthy

Refuse

Coffee

Enough

Physics

Refreshed

Foolishly

Reflected

Try this jingle:

It's folly to fight with fisticuffs, Just have them fought with other toughs!

The /ð/ sound

To make this sound, the tip of the tongue sticks out just in front of the front teeth. The sound is voiced means the sound comes from your throat not your mouth, with the vocal chords behind your Adam's apple vibrating.

Practise saying these words:

mother, father, brother, loathe, clothes

The /d/ sound

To make the voiced /d/ sound, place the front of your tongue against the top of the mouth, and then let the air out suddenly.

Practise saying these words:

Eddie, advert, indigo, dark, red, reading

The /z/ sound

This sound is made in exactly the same way as the /s/ sound, except that it is voiced. You place the middle of your tongue against the top of the mouth.

Notice that this sound is often spelt with the letter z. However, s can also represent this sound, especially at the end of a word.

Practise saying these words:

amazing, sisters, brothers, twins, music

B. Composition: Letter Writing

It is useful to distinguish between the three types of letter:

- a. Formal (Official or Business)
- b. Semi-formal (Personal, but the writers are not too on very close terms)
- c. Informal (very personal; the writers are very well known to each other)

One of the most important differences between these three kinds of writing is the style of language you use. Discuss these examples:

1. Grammar

Formal: I shall be going to Jos next month

Semi-Formal: I'll be going to Jos next month

Informal: I'm off to Jos next month

2. Idioms

Formal: Idioms are best avoided in formal letters. 'I fully agree with your proposal.'

Semi-Formal: 'What a great idea!'

Informal: 'Cool!' Your use of informal idioms very much depends on whom you are writing to.

What is 'cool' for a classmate may be unsuitable for an older relative.

3. Vocabulary

Formal: How appointment was terminated

Semi-Formal: He was fired

Informal: He got the sack

4. Layout

Formal Letters: These have to be laid out properly.

Semi-Formal Letters: These should be laid out in the same way as the letters between Eddie and Taiwo.

P. O. Box 96,
Akure,
Ondo State,
Nigeria.

4th May 20_

Dear Eddie,

1 I saw your ad in the paper, and I very much hope we can be friends. This is just a short letter to start off with.

5 My name is Taiwo, Taiwo Adenuga. In English, the name 'Taiwo' means 'the one who came first'. I was called this because I was the first of twins. My twin sister's name is Kehinde, which means 'the one who came afterwards'. Most of our names mean something in Nigeria. I wonder where you got your name.

As you would expect, Kehinde and I look quite similar. But our complexions are slightly different: I am dark brown, while Kehinde is light brown, almost tan in colour. But of course our hair is jet black.

10 I am the third of four children in the family. My older brother works in computers in Lagos, but my older sister is still at college. My father works in a bank and my mother is a teacher. My father originally came from Ibadan, but I was born here in Akure.

My favourite subjects at school are science, English and games. I hate history and maths. My hobbies include music (I sing in a choir), reading and ecology. I belong to a group that goes tree planting every so often – we are trying to rescue an area near here from soil erosion.

15 I very much look forward to hearing from you. You say you are interested in music. I wonder what kind. You also say that you enjoy cycling. Does that mean you cycle round London?

Write soon!

Yours sincerely,

Taiwo

47 Woolwich High Road,
Charlton,
London SE3 6DS

26th June 20_

Dear Taiwo,

Thanks a lot for your letter – it was great hearing from you. As you can see from my address, I live in Charlton, in south-east London. My father is an architect, and my mother works for the local council. My sister, Annie, is in sixth form, doing her A levels.

My sister and I are both fair complexioned: Annie has long golden hair, but mine is light brown. I am in Form 3 of the local school. My best friend is Ben. His dad came from Nigeria years ago. He took his family back to visit his people last year, and Ben has been full of it ever since – that's why I became interested in Africa, and that's why I put the ad in the paper for pen pals in Nigeria.

My favourite hobby is football. I play in the school team, and I watch the local team, Charlton, play whenever I can. We call them the Reds – that's their colour. Their stadium was closed down a few years ago, because it was unsafe. That was just after a lot of people were killed watching a football game at Hillsborough, in Sheffield – did you hear about that? Charlton had to play in a different stadium for a few years, miles away from here. All the supporters really disliked travelling across London to see them play. But they reopened the stadium a few years ago, and it's great having Charlton playing here again. However, I prefer playing football to watching it!

Please write again soon. By the way, my name Eddie is short for Edward. It doesn't mean anything in particular, but I was named after my grandad.

Yours sincerely,

Eddie

The letters between Taiwo and Eddi are semi-formal letters. Find some examples of language use which are appropriate in a semi-formal letter but inappropriate in a formal letter.

Taiwo's Letter

ad (line 1) ad or advert are both acceptable informal versions of the word advertisement

my brother works in computers (line 10) it is an idiomatic way of saying 'My brother works in the field of computers'.

every so often (line 15) is an idiomatic way of saying 'occasionally or from time to time'

Eddie's Letter

Thanks a lot (line 1) Informal English. The points about informal letters is that you can write them in a very much the same way as you might speak to a friend.

full of it (line 8) an idiom meaning 'talking enthusiastically about it'

great (lines 1 and 18) as you can see, this is one of Eddie's favourite adjectives. Again this is to be avoided in more formal contexts.

2. How to Write a Semi-formal Letter

In the examinations you have to take, marks are awarded for:

Content – what you say

Expression – the way you say it

Organisation – the way you organise your material (especially with regard to paragraphing)

Mechanical accuracy – Marks are lost through inaccurate use of language!

Note these points about Mary's Letter

1. The address and date

Notice the position and layout of the address. Here are some examples of the way dates should be written:

1st February, 2007 2nd May, 2006 3rd July, 2009

2. The salutation

We usually start letters with Dear...

Note that in more affectionate forms: My dear Lizzy, the word dear does not start with capital letter (Compare Dear Elizabeth)

3. The body of the letter

The letter is laid out in well-organised paragraphs. There is an indentation at the beginning of each paragraph. Remember, marks are awarded for sensible paragraphing.

4. The style of the letter

The language of the letter is semi-formal: it is very like ordinary speech, but a little more grammatical. The semi-formal features of the letter include the following. Can you find some examples in the letter?

- Informal expressions like *don't panic, etc*
- Contracted forms like *I'm* and *here's*.
- The use of dashes and Exclamation marks.

5. Ending the letter

The last paragraph of a letter should 'round it off' in a suitable way, and send greetings. The usual way of signing off is with the phrase *Yours sincerely* and your signature.

6. The signature

With semi-formal letter and informal letter, you just write your given name. You do not print your full name under the signature in semi-formal or informal letters – they know who you are!

Mary's Letter

P.O. Box 147,
Enugu.

23rd June, 20__

Dear Elizabeth,

1 I do hope that you and the family are all well. Is your baby brother walking yet? Thanks a lot for the super photograph!

I've just heard that you are sitting for an important exam next month. I thought you may like some advice, so here goes!

5 My first point is this: I'm sure you will do well, provided you keep a cool head. So don't panic either before or during the exam.

Secondly, get plenty of exam practice – work through several of the old tests in your own time, if you can get hold of copies. Then, as the exam gets nearer, time yourself on a few tests. Get used to working under the pressure of time.

10 Next, make sure you have the right instruments. In some exams you have to use a pencil only, while in others pens are allowed. Make sure you have a pen you are used to – otherwise it will slow you down!

I'm sure you've been told how important it is to read and understand the instructions at the beginning of an exam; yet it's really amazing the number of
15 people who don't do this! For example, you may be told to write a single letter for your answer – like A for instance. You'd be surprised how many people waste time writing out the answer in full! Another thing, you sometimes get compulsory questions. Some candidates don't answer these, and then wonder why they fail! I'd advise you to do these first, before you forget them, keeping one eye on the clock.

20 This brings me back to timing. It's astonishing how many people just seem to forget this. A watch is almost as important as a pen in an exam, so if you haven't got one, borrow one. Put it on the desk in front of you. Make a note of what time you start and ration your time in advance. If you have to answer two questions in an hour, spend about 5 minutes planning your first answer, and then do it. After
25 about 25 minutes, bring your first answer to a close and get on with the next one. Of course, do try to leave 5 minutes at the end to check for any careless errors.

Here's just a few points before I close. I've noticed that people who write clearly usually do well in exams, so do write legibly and neatly. But don't be scared of crossing things out and rewriting them if you need to. By the way, if
30 there are lots of short questions and you find some of them too tricky, don't waste time on them. Skip them and leave a space so you can go back to them later if there's time.

Well, I really must stop now, as I have to prepare for my own exams! Good luck, and do write if there's anything else you want to know. Please give my greetings to
35 the family. See you in the holidays!

Yours sincerely,

Mary

Summary of Letter Writing

Letters are marked according to the following criteria:

Content – Appropriacy and length: how far does the letter answer the question?

Organisation and Layout – Is the material properly organised in suitable paragraphs?

Expression – Marks are awarded for suitable register, including the level of formality, clarity and variety of sentence structure.

Mechanical accuracy – Grammar, punctuation and spelling mistakes are penalized.

The feature of each letter is summarised below

Formal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

The name (where known), position and address of the addressee, ranged left, again, full punctuated

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow this style: 1st March, 2010 or 1 March 2010.

4. Salutation

Dear Mr/Mrs (name), if known. If the name and gender of the person are not known, begin with Dear Sir or Madam.

5. Subject of the Letter

This goes beneath the salutation and should be underlined.

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate for formal letters.

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours faithfully* is always acceptable. If the name of the person you are writing to is personally known to you, *Yours Sincerely* may be appropriate. Always write your name clearly beneath your signature.

Semi Formal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the relationship, any of the following might be appropriate: Dear Mr/Dr/Mrs (name), Dear (first name)

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate for semi-formal letters.

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name.

Informal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the circumstances and relationship, Dear (first name/nickname) is appropriate

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate: use colloquial language, abbreviations, jokes etc

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name or nickname. Variations are possible for very close relationships e.g. *Your friend, Your sister, Lots of love, etc.*

C. Grammar – Modal Forms

Grammar: Modal Forms of Verbs

Modal verbs are used as helping verbs: they go with other verbs to change the meaning in some way. *Modal verbs* are one kind of auxiliary *verb*. They add information about probability, ability, permission and obligation. The modal verbs and the primary verbs (be, do and have) are called auxiliary verbs. The difference between these two groups of verbs is that we can use modal verbs as auxiliary verbs only. In other words, we cannot use modal verbs on their own, as they are not complete by themselves. We have to use them with other verbs, which must be in the simple present tense. A *modal verb* (also *modal*, *modal auxiliary verb*, *modal auxiliary*) is a type of auxiliary *verb* that is used to indicate *modality* – that is, likelihood, ability, permission, and obligation. Examples include the English *verbs* can/could, may/might, must, will/would, and shall/should.

Modal verbs do not change their forms when used with other verbs such as to show number. They have no –s form for the third person singular, no –ing form or past participle form.

Example: I can go. She can go. They can go

The modal verb *can* expresses the idea of ability.

Edna can ride a bicycle

The modal verbs *will/will not (won't)* can be used to express future occurrences –

The bus will come soon, I am sure.

I won't be long

We can also use modal verbs to express the idea of willingness (or unwillingness)

E.g. When offering Tola a lift, Ray could have said, 'if you want to go to the market, I'll give you a lift on my bike'.

Using the Modal verb *would*

Will

We use **will** to express the **future tense**, **willingness**, **request**, **probability**, **order** and **habitual action**

Example:

- We **will** be at the birthday party tomorrow. (Future)
- I **will** volunteer as an educator in the peer group mentoring program. (Willingness)
- **Will** you take my dog out for a walk? (Request)
- She **will** be very angry if you take part of her meat. (Probability/Expectation)
- **Will** you not talk to me while I am watching television! (Order/command)

Would

We use **would** to express a **condition, advice, request, intention** and **opinion**.

- I think you **would** command more respect if you talk less. (Conditional)
- I **wouldn't** attempt to eat that food if I were you. (Advice)
- **Would** you like me to give you a lift? (Request/offer)
- Before he left her, he **would** always tell her he would never leave her. (Intention)
- His behavior is not what she **would** expect from a gentleman. (Opinion)

Would and *will* are frequently confused. We use *would* when talking about the past:

He said he would mend my bike

We also use *would* instead of *will* when there is uncertainty:

That boy would do anything for money!

Practise the following dialogue –

Tina: That boy is so greedy that he would do anything for money

Jeff: Yes. He said he would mend Ray's puncture

Tina: I wouldn't trust him to mend my bicycle

Jeff: Oh, I would. He's quite good at that sort of thing

Tina: Well, I wouldn't let him near mine!

We often use *would* when we are offering and replying to invitations and suggestions of various kinds.

Bola: Would you like a cup of tea?

May: Thanks, I'd love one.

Taylor: No thanks, No just at the moment.

Femi: Would you like to go to the cinema this evening

Juliet: Thanks. I would love to.

Test:

Read this dialogue between Odili and Edna.

Odili: (1) ___ you like a lift to the hospital?

- a. Do
- b. Will
- c. Shall
- d. Would
- e. Don't

Edna: That's very kind of you, but I (2)___ need a lift right now

- a. don't
- b. won't
- c. would
- d. wouldn't
- e. shall

Odili: Are you sure? I can take you (3)___.

- a. readily
- b. reluctantly
- c. enthusiastically
- d. willingly
- e. unwillingly

Edna: Really? I (4)___ want to put you to any trouble

- a. would
- b. wouldn't
- c. shan't
- d. won't
- e. will not

Odili: No trouble at all. This way please!

Edna: Where is your car?

Odili: Car? No, I haven't got a car. I've got a bicycle.

Edna: A bicycle??? I (5) ___ go on a bicycle!

- a. will
- b. won't
- c. wouldn't
- d. would not
- e. would

Odili: Why not? It's quite safe

Edna: No, thank you, I (6) ___ rather walk

- a. will
- b. do
- c. shall
- d. won't
- e. would

Using *Can* and *Could*

Can

We use **can** to express **ability**, **possibility**, **permission** and **request**.

- The dog **can** run faster than the cat can. (Ability)
- You **can** get into trouble for stealing. (Possibility)
- **Can** I walk on the Lawn? (Permission)
- **Can** you not sing at all? I can't stand it. (Request)

Could

We use **could** to express **request**, **possibility**, **ability**, **permission** and **suggestion**.

- **Could** you feed my dog, please? (Polite request – a more polite form of **can**)
- You had better not stand under the tree. You **could** be bitten by a snake. (Possibility)
- My brother **could** speak six languages including French. (Ability)
- **Could** I bring my dog along? (Permission)
- You **could** warn him to leave you alone, or you **could** report to the police. (Suggestion)

Using *may* and *might*

May

We use **may** to express **possibility**, **permission**, and **wish**.

- A gas leakage **may** have caused the explosion. (Possibility)
- **May** I have another place of noodles? (Permission)
- **May** you live long. (Wish)

Might

We use **might** to express **possibility**, **permission**, **suggestion**, and **annoyance**.

- I **might** have stepped on the banana skin and fallen if I had not noticed it. (Possibility)
- **Might** I ask why you two are not speaking to each other? (Permission)
- You **might** like to have a look at my two new books. (Suggestion)
- You **might** at least try to look like you were enjoying the soup. (Annoyance)

Assessment

- State the 3 types of letter with features of each

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 6

Contents:

- Grammar – Adjectives and Adverbs using Modal Verbs
- Composition – A semi-formal letter
- Literature – Drama
- **Skill Focus: How to write a summary**

A. Grammar – Adjectives and Adverbs using Modal Verbs

Modal Verbs are used as helping verbs: they go with other verbs to change the meaning in some way. For example, the modal verb *can* expresses the idea of ability:

Edna can ride a motorcycle

We can use modal verbs to express the idea of willingness and unwillingness. For example, When offering Edna a lift, Odili could have said, 'If you want to go to the hospital, I'll give you a lift on my bike.

Notice this kind of sentence, the main clause uses the modal; the *if* clause uses the present simple tense, even though it refers to the future.

Read the dialogue below between two students in pairs

A: Your bicycle has a puncture

B: Really! Oh dear. I don't know how to mend it

A: I'll do it for you if you pay me

B: How much?

A: I'll do it for 300 naira

B: Too much! I won't pay that much!

A: If you give me 300 naira, I'll oil and clean it too

B: Okay!

Using the Modal Verb *would*

Would and *will* are frequently confused. We use *would* when talking about the past

He said he *would* mend my bicycle

We also use *would* instead of *will* when there is uncertainty

That boy *would* do anything for money!

We often use *would* when we are offering and replying to invitations and suggestions of various kinds. In pairs, practise dialogues like these three below. In each case, if you say 'No', add a plausible excuse

A: *Would* you like a cup of tea?

B: Thanks, I'd love one!

C: No thanks, not just at the moment

Using Adverbs

What is difference between the the statements below

1. Edna agreed to come with me
2. Edna reluctantly agreed to come with me
3. Edna enthusiastically agreed to come with me

As you can see, the adverbs *reluctantly* and *enthusiastically* help to make the meaning of the verb *agreed* clearer.

Degrees of willingness or unwillingness can be shown by using adverbs like those below: eagerly, willingly, readily, enthusiastically, reluctantly, unwillingly

Use the adverbs in these six sentences (more than one answer is possible)

1. Moremi ____ agreed to find out the secrets of the forest people
2. She ____ allowed herself to be captured
3. The enemy warriors ____ led her before their king
4. He ____ made her his wife
5. Odili ____ offered to give Edna a gift
6. Edna ____ agreed

We constantly have to use modal verbs or modal auxiliaries in English. They include such important little words as *may* and *must*. Can you identify a modal verb in a sentence? Make sure that you can properly form phrases that begin with a modal. The vital point is that a modal is followed by an infinitive form of an ordinary verb; and there are many different infinitive forms.

With the modal *may* and the ordinary verb *write* as our example, we find these phrases:

may write

may be writing

may have written

may have been writing

may be written

may have been written

Use of Modal Verbs

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

Modals and Politeness

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

Can I look at your newspaper?

May I look at your newspaper?

Could I look at your newspaper?

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

Another very polite form is:

Would you mind lending me your newspaper?

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

This is more polite than 'Have something to eat'

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

For example, a son may say to his father:

Shall I put the generator on?

Practice:

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

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

Other modal verbs

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Study these examples:

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

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

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

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

He didn't dare to argue.

He hardly dared to argue.

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

B. Composition – Features of 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.

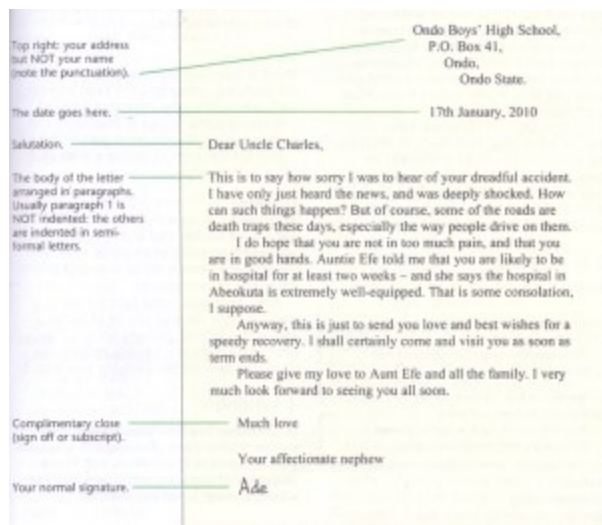
2. Salutation: “Dear Mrs Lucy” is perfect, If you do not know the name of the recipient, you may write the position as in “Dear Sir” or “Dear Madam”

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.

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

C. Literature: Drama

In literature, the word drama defines a **genre**, or style of writing. Drama is a unique literary form because they are designed to be acted out on a stage before an audience. The word '**drama**' comes from the Greek word '**dran**' meaning *to actor* to *do*. As "literature in action," drama brings a story to life before our eyes. **Drama** is a play that can be performed for theatre, radio or even television. These plays are usually written out as a **script**, or a written version of a play that is read by the actors but not the audience. Drama is a mode of fictional representation through dialogue and performance. It is one of the literary genres, which is an imitation of some action. Drama is also a type of a play written for theaters, televisions, radios and films. In simple words, a drama is a composition in verse or prose presenting a story in pantomime or dialogue, containing conflict of characters, particularly the ones who perform in front of audience on the stage.

Types of Drama

Let us consider a few popular types of drama:

- **Comedy** – Comedies are lighter in tone than ordinary writers, and provide a happy conclusion. The intention of dramatists in comedies is to make their audience laugh. Hence, they use quaint circumstances, unusual characters and witty remarks. Comedy is a play written in a kindly or humorous, perhaps bitter or satiric vein, in which the problems or difficulties of the characters are resolved satisfactorily, if not for all characters, at least from the point of view of the audience. Low characters as opposed to noble;

characters not always changed by the action of the play; based upon observation of life. Comedy and tragedy are concerned more with character, whereas farce and melodrama are concerned more with plot.

- **Tragedy** – Tragic dramas use darker themes such as disaster, pain and death. Protagonists often have a tragic flaw—a characteristic that leads them to their downfall. Tragedy is a play written in a serious, sometimes impressive or elevated style, in which things go wrong and cannot be set right except at great cost or sacrifice. Aristotle said that tragedy should purge our emotions by evoking pity and fear (or compassion and awe) in us, the spectators. The tragic pattern:
 1. a theme of fatal passion (excluding love) as a primary motive
 2. an outstanding personality as center of conflict (classical tragedy demanded a “noble” character)
 3. a vital weakness within the hero’s character (his tragic flaw which precipitates the tragedy)
 4. the conflict within the hero is the source of tragedy. However, since Nietzsche, the tragic flaw is often found to be in the universe itself, or in man’s relationship to it, rather than in the hero himself.
- **Farce** – Generally, a farce is a nonsensical genre of drama, which often overacts or engages slapstick humor. Farce is a comedy in which story, character, and especially situations are exaggerated to the point of improbability; the situation begins with a highly improbable premise, but when that is accepted everything that follows is completely logical. Fast moving; uses such theatrical devices as duplications, reversals, repetitions, surprises, disguises, chance encounters, often many doors and closets.
- **Melodrama** – Melodrama is an exaggerated drama, which is sensational and appeals directly to the senses of audience. Just like the farce, the characters are of single dimension and simple, or may be stereotyped.
- **Musical Drama** – In musical drama, the dramatists not only tell their story through acting and dialogue, nevertheless through dance as well as music. Often the story may be comedic, though it may also involve serious subjects.
- **Other kinds of plays**
 1. Classical tragic-comedy; noble characters but happy ending.
 2. Classical comic-tragedy; low characters but ends badly
 3. Satire
 4. Vaudeville
 5. Mime
 6. Propaganda plays (or didactic drama)

Elements of Drama

1. Characters

Characters are the people in the play's plot. Most plays have a *round, major characters* and *flat, minor characters*. The main characters are more important to a work and usually have a bigger part to play.

Examples of Characters in a drama

TROY MAXSON

JIM BONO, Troy's friend

ROSE, Troy's wife

LYONS, Troy's oldest son by previous marriage

GABRIEL, Troy's brother

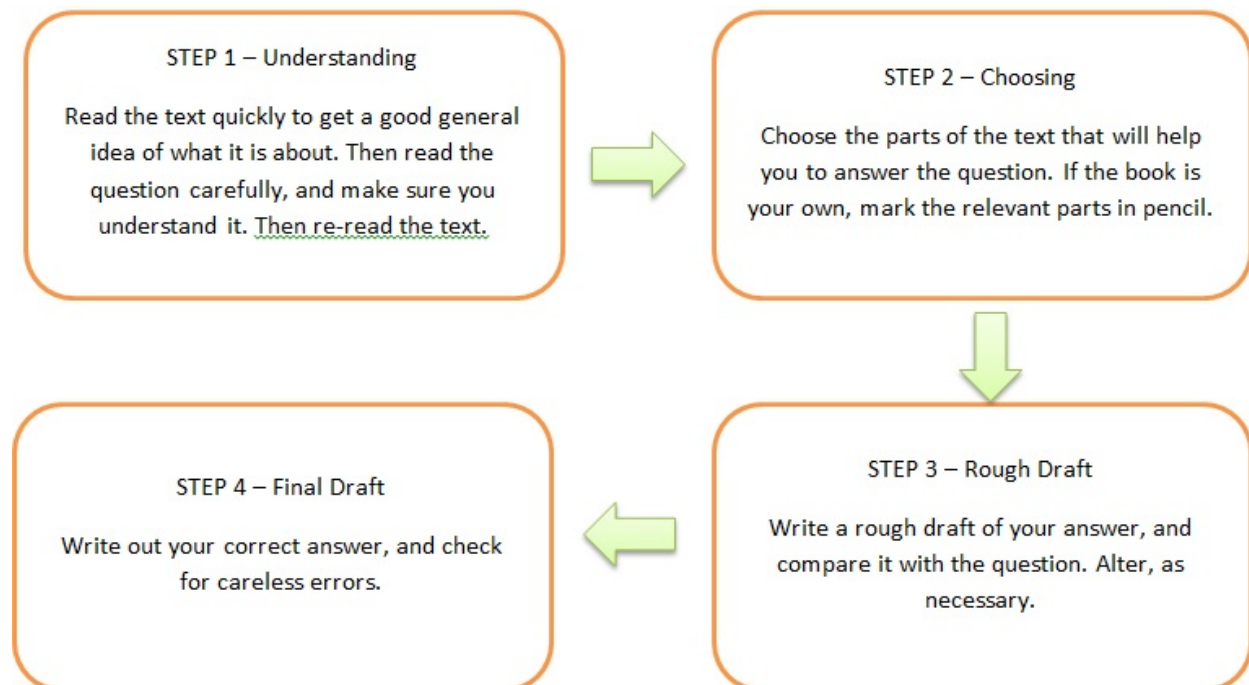
CORY, Troy and Rose's son

RAYNELL, Troy's daughter

D. Skill Focus: How to write a summary

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:



Assessment

- Write a Letter to your Teacher stating why you were absent in school
- State the types of drama

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 7

Contents:

- **Speech work: /s/, /ʃ/ and /tʃ/**
- **Grammar: Adverbs of Place and Manner**
- **Literature: Characters in a Drama**

A. Speech work: /s/, /ʃ/ and /tʃ/

The /s/ sound

To make this sound, you press the front of the tongue very close to the roof of the mouth. The sound is unvoiced. Here are some words containing the sound:

c	s	ss
place	accounts	possess
service	silver	pass

Practise the following words

Stress on 1st syllable Stress on second syllable

service	address
subjects	success
lesson	succeed
sometimes	possess
specialize	respect
customer	conceal
passenger	replace
concentrate	accounts

The /ʃ/ sound

To make this sound, the tip and front of the tongue are placed near the front of the mouth. When you say this sound, the sound comes from your mouth not your throat. English speakers use this sound when they ask for silence: Hush!

sh	ch	ssi	ti	ce	ci	su
shine	machine	passion	option	ocean	special	unusual
ashamed	chiffon	russian	ambition	specialise	sure	

fashion creche

sugar

The /tʃ/ sound

To make this sound, you place the front of the tongue against the front part of the mouth. Then you suddenly let the air through. The sound is unvoiced.

ch tch t

church catch nature

children watch mixture

bench butcher vulture

Practise these words

Stress on 1st syllable Stress on second syllable

challenge research

teacher achieve

capture dispatch

children mature

fortunate unfortunate

Consonant Contrast

B. Adverbs of Place and Manner

/ʃ/ /s/

shelf self

shore saw

shaving saving

shallow sallow

sheet seat

An adverb is a part of a speech which can be added to a verb to modify its meaning. Usually, an adverb tells you when, where, how, in what manner, or to what extent an action is performed. Many adverbs end in /y/ particularly those that are used to express how an action is performed. Although many adverbs end in /y/, some others do not. Example fast, never, well, most, least, more, less, now, for and there.

Adverb modifies verb by giving us the following information.

1. How the action occurs
2. Where the action occurs
3. How many times action occur
4. At which time the action occurs
5. Intensity of action

Types of Adverbials – Manner and Place (for the purpose of this lesson, emphasis is on manner and place)

Adverbs of Manner: An adverb of manner tells us how something is done or happens, it describes the way and manner and action is performed These adverbs tell us that in which manner the action occurs or how the action occurs or occurred or will occur. Most adverbs of manner end in -ly such as **badly, happily, sadly, slowly, quickly**, and others that include **well, hard, fast**.

Examples:

She sings loudly

The old man walks slowly

The people waited impatiently

Adverbs of Time: These adverbs tell us about the time of action. We use it at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. We use it as a form of emphasis when we place it at the beginning. *e.g. now, then, soon, tomorrow, yesterday, today, tonight, again, early, yesterday*

Example:

He fell down yesterday

Tomorrow I will go to the market

Adverbs of Place: Adverb of place tells us about the place of action or where action occurs/occurred/will occur. We use it after the verb, object or at the end of a sentence *e.g. here, there, near, somewhere, outside, ahead, on the top, at some place*.

Stop there!!

Let us go outside

Adverbs of Degree: An adverb of degree tells us the level or extent that something is done or happens. Words of adverb of degree are *almost, much, nearly, quite, really, so, too, very*.

Examples:

He nearly lost his life in the accident

We are almost at the Zoo

C. Literature: Characters in a Drama

Elements of Drama

1. Characters

Characters are the people in the play's plot. Most plays have a *round, major characters* and *flat, minor characters*. The main characters are more important to a work and usually have a bigger part to play.

Examples of Characters in a drama

TROY MAXSON

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GABRIEL, Troy's brother

CORY, Troy and Rose's son

RAYNELL, Troy's daughter

Let's take a look at the different characters.

Protagonist: The main character, usually the one who sets the action in motion.

Example: Hamlet is the protagonist in the play 'Hamlet'.

Antagonist: The character that stands as rival to the protagonist is called the antagonist. He is the villain.

Example: Claudius is the major antagonist in the play 'Hamlet' as he contrasts sharply with the main character in the play.

Foil: A character whose traits contrast with those of another character. Writers use foil to emphasize differences between two characters. For example, a handsome but dull character might be a foil for one who is unattractive but dynamic. By using foil, authors call attention to the strengths or weaknesses of a main character.

Example: In Hamlet, the passionate and quick to action Laertes is a foil for the reflective Hamlet.

Confidant: A character that lends an ear and gives his input to usually the protagonist is a confidant. This type of character is most commonly a closest friend or trusted servant of the main character, who serves as a device for revealing the mind and intention of the main

character. The confidant's inputs are revealed only to the audience and not to the other characters in the play.

Example: In Hamlet, Horatio is the confidant.

Stock characters: A stereotypical character who is not developed as an individual but as a collection of traits and mannerisms supposedly shared by all members of a group. These characters are easily recognized by audience due to their recurrent appearance and familiar roles.

Example: A comic, a servant, a fool, a coward, a crooked stepmother, and wicked witch.

Each character is distinct from the other and must have their own peculiar personality, background, and beliefs. The mannerisms and use of language too may differ. The way the characters in the play are treated by the playwright is important to the outworking of the play.

2. Dialogue

The words uttered by characters in a play forms a dialogue. The dialogue reveals the plot and characters of the play. What is spoken must be suitable to the situation and the role of the character.

Things that are said on stage may take on greater worth or typical qualities than the same things said in everyday speech. Good dramatic speech involves a proper construction of words spoken in the appropriate context.

Good dialogue sheds light on the character speaking and the one spoken about, and aids in the furtherance of the plot.

Dialogue may take various forms:-

- An exchange between two or more characters.

Titinius – These tidings will well comfort Cassius.

Messala – Where did you leave him?

Titinius – All disconsolate, With Pindarus his bondman, on this hill.

Messala – Is not that he lies upon the ground?

- **Soliloquy** – A character that is typically alone on stage delivers a long speech which is called a soliloquy. Emotions and innermost thoughts of the character are revealed in a soliloquy.

[They exit. ANTONY remains.]

ANTONY.

O, pardon me, thou bleeding piece of earth,
That I am meek and gentle with these butchers!
Thou art the ruins of the noblest man
That ever lived in the tide of times.

- **Aside** – This is spoken by a character to another character or to the audience but is not heard by the other characters on stage. Asides reveal what a character is thinking or feeling.

Caesar.

Good friends, go in and taste some wine with me,
And we (like friends) will straightway go together.

Brutus (aside) .

That every like is not the same, O Caesar,
The heart of Brutus earns to think upon. *[Exeunt.]*

3. Plot

The plot include events that occur in a story sequentially. Normally the introduction of the characters in the beginning of the play gives the audience an idea about what the plot maybe. This information will enlighten the audience as to why characters behave the way they do and an incident maybe expected to surface that will create a problem for the main characters.

As the action heightens, the characters encounter the problem and find themselves in trouble. The conflict in a plot may vary but nevertheless it forms the basis for the plot. The conflict leads the characters from one incident to another unfolding the plot and increasing the suspense and excitement of the reader or viewer.

The turning point of the plot is called the **climax** when the outcome of the conflict takes place. The climax takes several forms. It may be a revelation of information or it may be a decision or an action. It is the point where suspense no longer exists.

The plot is crucial for the success of a play.

4. Setting

The setting and time in a play tell us where the story happened and the time it occurred.

The setting is very important because what usually happens in the play is influenced by it. Visual components of a setting maybe limited to a painted tree, a bridge, or a hut, or it could be more elaborate. Shifts in time and space are often indicated by the actors through their speech and movements.

In setting, the lighting plays an important role for it shows an illusion of time. Lighting also may be used to focus on an action or stress the importance of an event.

Costumes and props too are involved in setting. Costumes are used to portray a character's profession, status, ethnicity, age and so on.

Props are items used by actors on stage to create an atmosphere of the play. These can be simple writing materials, chairs and tables, flowers, thrones, blood-soaked clothes, blankets, and beds and so on.

The effect created by the setting creates the mood for a theatrical spectacle.

5. Stage directions

An audience is prompted to react by the movements or positions of the actors in a play. It can build up tension, trigger laughter, or shift the focus of the audience to a different part of the stage.

To achieve this purpose, the writer communicates to the actors, director, and the rest of the crew in the play by means of stage directions.

He does this by means of short phrases, usually printed in italics and enclosed in parentheses or brackets. These directions describe the appearance and actions of characters as well as the sets, costumes, props, sound effects, and lighting effects.

Stage directions may also include the characters' body language, facial expressions, and even the tone of voice. Comments or remarks about the surroundings and when a character enters or exits are also made in stage directions. Thus stage directions help us understand *the feelings of the character* and *the mood of the story*.

For movies and teleplays, camera instructions are provided.

Example:

HUCK. *[Picks up a hard little sphere.]* What's this?

JIM. Must a been in there a long time to coat it over so.

[JIM cuts open the sphere and hands HUCK a coin.]

HUCK. It's gold.

JIM. What sort of writing is that on it?

HUCK. Spanish...I think. This is a Spanish d'bloon, Jim, it's priate gold!

Why I reckon this fish could be a hundred years old. Do you reckon so, Jim?

JIM. *[Nodding.]* He go along on the bottom. Eat the little ones. Get older and older and bigger and bigger. He here before people come maybe. Before this was a country. When there was nothing here but that big river...

[He grabs HUCK's arm.]

6. Theme

The theme actually tells what the play means. Rather stating what happens in the story, the theme deals with the main idea within the story. Theme has been described as the soul of the drama. The theme can either be clearly stated through dialogue or action or can be inferred from the entire performance. We shall conclude plot and theme in drama should compliment each other and should be synchronized to give a complete output.

General themes are:

- i. conflict-between two individuals
- ii. conflict between man and a supernatural power
- iii. conflict between the man and himself

Assessment

Choose from the list of Adverbs to complete the following sentences

patiently, suspiciously, obstinately, beautifully, helpfully, angrily, softly, noisily, hungrily, well, thirstily, badly

1. Deniran waited ___ in the queue
2. The fat woman left the post office ____ when she didn't receive her package
3. My sister dresses _____
4. The children ____ waited for their supper
5. Gorgui ____ offered his identify card to be checked by the Police

English Language JSS3 First Term
Week 8

Contents:

- **Consonant Contrast**
- **Grammar – Idiomatic Expressions**
- **Skill Focus: Writing an Outline**
- **Literature: Poetry**

A. Consonant Contrast /ʃ/ and /tʃ/

/ʃ/	/tʃ/
shop	chop
ship	chip
cash	catch
dish	ditch
wish	witch

B. Idiomatic Expressions

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.

Assessment

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**

C. Skill Focus: Writing an Outline

Writing an outline – notes – has two purposes

- a. to make notes on a text
- b. to make notes in preparation for writing an essay

When studying, it is important to be able to jot down the main points of a text and the main supporting details.

The first sentence of a paragraph is usually the topic sentence. Also note that, this can sometimes be written in past tense. And as these are notes, you are allowed to use abbreviations such as revs for ‘revolutions’ and E.g for ‘For example’.

Writing an essay

When preparing for an essay on a factual subject, such as computers, it is very helpful to sort out your ideas in a similar way – by writing an outline. Let us take an example:

Choosing a Topic: The first problem you have to face is choosing a subject. Usually you are given a choice. Here are three essay subjects for you to choose from:

- a. The uses of computers
- b. The uses of cellphones
- c. Transport today

Our advice: Choose a topic that you know something about. If possible, choose a topic that most other students will not choose.

Doing an Outline: Let’s suppose the topic you chose is c – Transport Today. You could start making notes of initial ideas in the much same way you made notes on the reading text. One idea might be to start like this:

Transport Today

1. Transport in the past:

- a. It is
- b. It usually (NB – Keep this short)
- c. Examples are:

2. Modern Transport:

I. Private

- a. Examples are: bicycle, car
- b. advantages and disadvantages

II. Public

- a. Examples are: train, bus, airplane, tricycle
- b. advantages and disadvantages

3. Conclusion

Now plan and write your own essay which should not be longer than 400 words. Write a rough draft first, then re-write, correcting any errors and making improvements where necessary.

Assessment – Write in not more than 400 words about your FAVOURITE SUBJECT

D. Literature: Poetry

What is Poetry?

Poetry is an art form in which human language is used for its aesthetic qualities in addition to, or instead of, its notional and semantic content. It consists largely of oral or literary works in which language is used in a manner that is felt by its user and audience to differ from ordinary prose.

Poetry is a form of **literature** that uses aesthetic and rhythmic qualities of language—such as phonaesthetics, sound symbolism, and metre—to evoke meanings in addition to, or in place of, the prosaic ostensible meaning.

It may use condensed or compressed form to convey emotion or ideas to the reader's or listener's mind or ear; it may also use devices such as assonance and repetition to achieve musical or incantatory effects. Poems frequently rely for their effect on imagery, word association, and the musical qualities of the language used. The interactive layering of all these effects to generate meaning is what marks poetry.

Because of its nature of emphasising linguistic form rather than using language purely for its content, poetry is notoriously difficult to translate from one language into another: a possible exception to this might be the Hebrew Psalms, where the beauty is found more in the balance

of ideas than in specific vocabulary. In most poetry, it is the connotations and the “baggage” that words carry (the weight of words) that are most important. These shades and nuances of meaning can be difficult to interpret and can cause different readers to “hear” a particular piece of poetry differently. While there are reasonable interpretations, there can never be a definitive interpretation.

Types of Poetry

Poetry can be divided into several genres, or categories.

Narrative poetry is poetry that tells a story. Just like a literary narrative, there’s a plot or some sort of action taking place. One popular type of narrative poetry is **epic poetry**. An epic poem is a long narrative poem that usually follows the life and adventures of a hero. The ancient Greeks loved their epic poetry and produced great works that we are still fascinated by today, such as Homer’s “Iliad” and “Odyssey.”

Dramatic poetry If you’ve ever read a play by William Shakespeare, you’re reading dramatic poetry. Basically, dramatic poetry is written with the intention of being performed. Any drama written in verse which is meant to be spoken, usually to tell a story or portray a situation. The majority of dramatic poetry is written in blank verse. Other forms of dramatic poetry include, dramatic monologues, rhyme verse and closet drama. Important dramatic works include those by Shakespeare, Ben Jonson and Christopher Marlow

Lyric poetry is the type of poetry that comes to mind for most people when they think of what a poem is. Lyric poetry doesn’t necessarily tell a story, have a plot, or follow a logical progression. Lyric poetry is also an emotional writing focusing on thought and emotion – can consist of a song-like quality. Subdivisions include elegy, ode and sonnet. Lyric poetry does not attempt to tell a story. It’s more about using elements like rhyme and rhythm to create an overall effect or feeling. A good way to remember this is to think of lyrics in music, because at times, lyric poetry is set to music.

Nature of Poetry

Poetry can be differentiated most of the time from prose, which is language meant to convey meaning in a more expansive and less condensed way, frequently using more complete logical or narrative structures than poetry does. This does not necessarily imply that poetry is illogical, but rather that poetry is often created from the need to escape the logical, as well as expressing feelings and other expressions in a tight, condensed manner. English Romantic poet John Keats termed this escape from logic Negative Capability. A further complication is

that prose poetry combines the characteristics of poetry with the superficial appearance of prose, such as in Robert Frost's poem, "Home Burial." Other forms include narrative poetry and dramatic poetry, both of which are used to tell stories and so resemble novels and plays. However, both these forms of poetry use the specific features of verse composition to make these stories more memorable or to enhance them in some way.

What is generally accepted as "great" poetry is debatable in many cases. "Great" poetry usually follows the characteristics listed above, but it is also set apart by its complexity and sophistication. "Great" poetry generally captures images vividly and in an original, refreshing way, while weaving together an intricate combination of elements like theme tension, complex emotion, and profound reflective thought. For examples of what is considered "great" poetry, visit the Pulitzer prize and Nobel prize sections for poetry.

The Language of Poetry

Rhyme: Rhymes make a poem more musical.

Example –

The woods are lovely, dark and deep

But I have something to keep

Images: A poem is a series of word pictures. We see them with our imaginations not with our eyes

Theme: The main topic or issue of the poetry.

Tone: When you talk to someone, you can change the meaning of what you're saying by changing your tone. Poetry has a tone and this is the tone of the voice of the writer or orator.

Mood: The main emotion of the story or poem is called mood.

Atmosphere: The atmosphere of the poetry is linked to the settings of the poetry.

Sound in poetry

Perhaps the most vital element of sound in poetry is rhythm. Often the rhythm of each line is arranged in a particular meter. Different types of meter played key roles in Classical, Early European, Eastern and Modern poetry. In the case of free verse, the rhythm of lines is often organized into looser units of cadence.

Poetry in English and other modern European languages often uses rhyme. Rhyme at the end of lines is the basis of a number of common poetic forms, such as ballads, sonnets and rhyming couplets. However, the use of rhyme is not universal. Much modern poetry, for example, avoids traditional rhyme schemes. Furthermore, Classical Greek and Latin poetry did not use rhyme.

In fact, rhyme did not enter European poetry at all until the High Middle Ages, when it was adopted from the Arabic language. The Arabs have always used rhymes extensively, most notably in their long, rhyming qasidas. Some classical poetry forms, such as Venpa of the Tamil language, had rigid grammars (to the point that they could be expressed as a context-free grammar), which ensured a rhythm.

Alliteration played a key role in structuring early Germanic and English forms of poetry (called alliterative verse), akin to the role of rhyme in later European poetry. The alliterative patterns of early Germanic poetry and the rhyme schemes of Modern European poetry alike both include meter as a key part of their structure, which determines when the listener expects instances of rhyme or alliteration to occur. In this sense, both alliteration and rhyme, when used in poetic structures, help to emphasise and define a rhythmic pattern. By contrast, the chief device of Biblical poetry in ancient Hebrew was parallelism, a rhetorical structure in which successive lines reflected each other in grammatical structure, sound structure, notional content, or all three; a verse form that lent itself to antiphonal or call- and-response performance.

Poetry and form

Compared with prose, poetry depends less on the linguistic units of sentences and paragraphs, and more on units of organisation that are purely poetic. The typical structural elements are the line, couplet, strophe, stanza, and verse paragraph.

Lines may be self-contained units of sense, as in the well-known lines from William Shakespeare's Hamlet:

To be, or not to be: that is the question.

Alternatively a line may end in mid-phrase or sentence:

Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer

this linguistic unit is completed in the next line,

The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune.

This technique is called enjambment, and is used to create a sense of expectation in the reader and/or to add a dynamic to the movement of the verse.

Poetry and rhetoric

Rhetorical devices such as simile and metaphor are frequently used in poetry. Indeed, Aristotle wrote in his Poetics that "the greatest thing by far is to be a master of metaphor". However,

particularly since the rise of Modernism, some poets have opted for reduced use of these devices, preferring rather to attempt the direct presentation of things and experiences. Other 20th-century poets, however, particularly the surrealists, have pushed rhetorical devices to their limits, making frequent use of catachresis.

Assessment

1. Why is it important to first write an outline when writing an essay?
2. What is poetry?
3. Briefly discuss the different types of poetry you know.

English Language JSS3 First Term

Week 9

Contents:

Grammar: Adverbs of Cause and Reason

Speech work: Weak Forms

A. Adverbs of Cause and Reason

A clause is a group of words containing a verb. Adverb clauses of reason answer the question WHY?

Adverbs of Reason: These adverbs answer the question 'why'. Examples are: **therefore, hence, thus, consequently etc.**

Examples:

He did not work hard, *therefore*, he failed.

Consequently he refused to come.

Adverbs of Certainty: Adverbs of certainty express how certain we feel about an action or event. Adverbs of certainty go before the main verb unless the main verb is 'to be', in which case the adverb of certainty goes after. certainly, definitely, probably, undoubtedly, surely

Examples:

He *definitely* left the house this morning.

She is *certainly* a smart young lady

B. Speech work: Weak Forms

As in language, everyday spoken English is quite fast – and this results in some long vowels being shortened, and other vowels – or consonants – even being omitted. The result is what we call weak forms. Frequently, but not always, the weak form becomes the central vowel /ə/. Some of the commonest examples are given below. Listen, and repeat. Then think of some examples of your own:

Word	Strong Form	Weak Form (s)
a	/ei/	/ə/
An	/æn/	/ən/
Am	/æm/	/əm/
Are	/ænd/	/ənd/

Are	/ɑ:r/	/ə/
As	/æz/	/z/, /əz/
Be	/bi:/	/bi/
Been	/bi:n/	/bin/
But	/bʌt/	/bət/
Can	/kæn/	/kən/
Could	/kʊd/	/kəd/
Does	/dʌz/	/dəz/
Of	/ɒv/	/əv/
Some	/sʌm/	/səm/
Is	/iz/	/əz/, /z/
Have	/hæv/	/həv/, /v/
Had	/həd/	/həd/, /d/
Not	/nɒt/	/nt/
Was	/wɒz/	/wəz/
Would	/wʊd/	/əd/, /d/

Weak forms occur in many phrases in everyday English where the boundaries between words disappear – the phrases almost sound like one word.

e.g. How do you do! /haʊdjədu:/

Here are some more examples. Listen, and repeat:

bread and butter

plenty of money

bacon and eggs

see you later

take your time

thanks a lot

pleased to meet you

it's a pleasure

bricks and mortar

knife and fork

C. Structure of Drama

Ancient Greek drama contained structural divisions and these gradually evolved to a five part structure in drama. By the 16th century, Five Act plays were the order of the day with any number of scenes in each act.

A traditional play thus came to be a Five Act Play. What was the structure followed here?

- Exposition or introduction
- Rising Action
- Climax
- Falling Action
- Denouement or conclusion

Exposition: This is the introduction of the play which provides important background information about the characters, setting, and the conflict they face or are about to face. It may reveal an incident in a character's past that has a bearing on the plot. The exposition leads the audience to follow through the rest of the story.

Rising action: This is the second characteristic in the structure of a drama. The plot moves forward with further twists and complications in the conflict and many sub-plots. The actions lead the audience toward high intensity, anticipation, and suspense.

Climax: The highest point of dramatic intensity and the most intense moment in the plot is the climax. The questions and mysteries are unraveled at this point. It is a turning point in the play for the protagonist where things from then on will either turn out better or worse for him depending on the kind of play it is.

Falling Action: This is the part where conflicts are more or less resolved and the play moves on to its end.

Denouement: This is the conclusion of the play where everything is better off than when it started, as in a comedy, or things are worse than when the play began, as in the case of a tragedy. Conflicts are resolved. Motives are clear. Final details are straightened up.

Let us examine Shakespeare's 'The Merchant of Venice' and look at the characteristics that determine the structure of the play.

In the exposition or the introduction what do we learn?

We are introduced to the plot. Here we see at least two conflicts:

1) Between Shylock and Antonio (Scenes I and III)

2) Portia's Marriage (Scene II)

These events give us an insight to the purpose of the events.

We are introduced to the main characters of the play in the exposition. Some of them are,

- Antonio
- Bassanio
- Gratiano
- Shylock
- Portia
- Nerissa

There are two settings we are introduced to

1) Belmont's sitting a very fancy and fairy 'tailish' place ideal for a comedy.

2) Venice that represents real life with traders and merchants ideal setting for a tragedy.

Rising Action: There are many obstacles that a protagonist must face when reaching his goal. In this play, we see that Antonio's ships which are the only means by which he can pay Shylock's debt, is reported lost in the sea.

Climax: This is a turning point in the play where changes may take place for better or worse. In this play, Portia comes to Antonio's rescue to plead in his behalf by disguising herself as a man of law.

Falling Action: Shylock is given orders to give up all his possessions and convert to be a Christian. Portia and Nerissa convince their husbands to hand over their rings.

Denouement: The conclusion of the play shows that everything is in harmony. All return to Belmont and the couples are reconciled.

Examples of Drama from Literature

Example 1

Comedy:

Much Ado About Nothing is the most frequently performed Shakespearian comedy. The play is romantically funny in that love between Hero and Claudio is laughable, as they never even get a single chance to communicate on-stage until they get married. Their relationship lacks development and depth. They end up merely as caricatures, exemplifying what people face in life when their relationships are internally weak. Love between Benedick and Beatrice is

amusing, as initially their communications are very sparky, and they hate each other. However, they all of sudden make up, and start loving each other.

Example 2

Tragedy:

Sophocles' mythical and immortal drama, *Oedipus Rex*, is thought to be his best classical tragedy. Aristotle has adjudged this play as one of the greatest examples of tragic drama in his book, *Poetics* by giving following reasons:

- The play arouses emotions of *pity* and *fear*, and achieves the tragic *katharsis*.
- It shows the downfall of an extraordinary man of high rank, Oedipus.
- The central character suffers due to his tragic error called *hamartia*, as he murders his real father, Laius, and then marries his real mother, Jocasta.
- Hubris is the cause of Oedipus' downfall.

Example 3

Farce:

Oscar Wilde's play, *The Importance of Being Earnest*, is a very popular example of Victorian farce. In this play, a man uses two identities; one as a serious person Jack (his actual name) that he uses for Cecily, his ward, and as a rogue named Ernest for his beloved woman, Gwendolyn. Unluckily, Gwendolyn loves him partially because she loves the name Ernest. It is when Jack and Ernest must come on-stage together for Cecily, then Algernon comes in to play Ernest's role, and ward immediately falls in love with another Ernest. Thus, two young women think that they love the same man – an occurrence that amuses the audience.

Example 4

Melodrama:

The Heiress is based on Henry James' novel *The Washington Square*. Directed for stage performance by William Wyler, this play shows an ungraceful and homely daughter of a domineering and rich doctor falling in love with a young man, Morris Townsend wishes to elope

with him, but he leaves her in lurch. Author creates melodrama towards the end, when Catherine teaches a lesson to Morris and leaves him instead.

An Outline for Play Analysis

Name of play

Date of play

The author and his social milieu

Type of theatre for which the play was written

Genre: tragedy, comedy, drama, farce, melodrama

Author's purpose

Theme: major theme

minor themes

Breakdown of play by acts and scenes

Plot development

Settings

Characters

Character:

Protagonist: character analysis

motivation

fatal flaw or comic weakness

character evolvment

Antagonist

Other characters: their function in relation to protagonist

their function within structure of play

Plot: main action

Subplots

Other production requirements

Exposition demanded by the text: lighting

Initiating incident costumes

Obstacles or conflicts music

Crisis dance

Climax sound effects

Resolution or denouement important props

Use of dramatic devices: irony, foreshadowing, suspense, surprises

Language: realistic, heroic, archaic, poetic, incantatory, orghast

Setting: period of style

scene changes or changes within single set as play progresses

mood

essential scenic elements

symbolism

Assessment

1. Define drama as a genre of literature.
2. Briefly discuss the types of drama you know.

JSS 3

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SECOND TERM

TABLE OF CONTENT

WEEK 1:	Consonants /T/ and /θ/
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English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 1

Contents:

Consonants /t/ and /θ/

Effective Writing Rules

Comprehension

Literature: Folktales

A. Consonants /t/ and /θ/

The /θ/ sound

To make the /θ/ sound, the tip of the tongue sticks out just in front of the front teeth. The whole of the front of the tongue is placed against the roof of the mouth, before the air is released. The sound comes from the mouth not the throat. It is unvoiced.

Say these words:

teeth, mouth, thanks, thief, things, Thursday

The /t/ sound

When you make the /t/ sound, place the front of your tongue against the top of your mouth. Then suddenly let the air out, forcefully. The sound is unvoiced.

Say these words:

toast, target, treat, aptitude, toilet, potato

Sound Contrasts

Practise these words

/θ/ /t/

Three Tree

Thanks Tanks

Thought Taught

Fourth Fort

Assessment

From the words lettered A – D, choose the one that contains the sound indicated

1. /θ/

a. there

- b. dare
 - c. faith
 - d. task
2. /θ/
- a. that
 - b. those
 - c. temple
 - d. three
3. /θ/
- a. breathe
 - b. cloth
 - c. clothe
 - d. leather
4. /t/
- a. path
 - b. part
 - c. pardon
 - d. passion
5. /t/
- a. tube
 - b. fifth
 - c. then
 - d. father

Answers

- 1. C
- 2. D
- 3. B
- 4. B
- 5. A

Writing Skills – Effective Writing Rules

Rule 1. Use concrete rather than vague language.

Vague: *The weather was of an extreme nature on the West Coast.*

This sentence raises frustrating questions: When did this extreme weather occur? What does “of an extreme nature” mean? Where on the West Coast did this take place?

Concrete: *California had unusually cold weather last week.*

Rule 2. Use **active voice** whenever possible. Active voice means the subject is performing the verb. **Passive voice** means the subject receives the action.

Active: *Barry hit the ball.*

Passive: *The ball was hit.*

Notice that the party responsible for the action—in the previous example, whoever hit the ball—may not even appear when using passive voice. So passive voice is a useful option when the responsible party is not known.

Example: *My watch was stolen.*

NOTE

The passive voice has often been criticized as something employed by people in power to avoid responsibility:

Example: *Mistakes were made.*

Translation: *I made mistakes.*

Rule 3. Avoid overusing *there is, there are, it is, it was*, etc.

Example: *There is a case of meningitis that was reported in the newspaper.*

Revision: *A case of meningitis was reported in the newspaper.*

Even better: *The newspaper reported a case of meningitis.* (Active voice)

Example: *It is important to signal before making a left turn.*

Revision:

Signaling before making a left turn is important.

OR

Signaling before a left turn is important.

OR

You should signal before making a left turn.

Example: *There are some revisions that must be made.*

Revision: *Some revisions must be made.* (Passive voice)

Even better: *Please make some revisions.* (Active voice)

Rule 4. To avoid confusion (and pompousness), don't use two negatives to make a positive without good reason.

Unnecessary: *He is not unwilling to help.*

Better: *He is willing to help.*

Sometimes a *not un*-construction may be desirable, perhaps even necessary:

Example: *The book is uneven but not uninteresting.*

However, the novelist-essayist George Orwell warned of its abuse with this deliberately silly sentence: "A not unblack dog was chasing a not unsmall rabbit across a not ungreen field."

Rule 5. Use consistent grammatical form when offering several ideas. This is called **parallel construction**.

Correct: *I admire people who are honest, reliable, and sincere.*

Note that *are* applies to and makes sense with each of the three adjectives at the end.

Incorrect: *I admire people who are honest, reliable, and have sincerity.*

In this version, *are* does not make sense with *have sincerity*, and *have sincerity* doesn't belong with the two adjectives *honest* and *reliable*.

Correct: *You should check your spelling, grammar, and punctuation.*

Note that *check your* applies to and makes sense with each of the three nouns at the end.

Incorrect: *You should check your spelling, grammar, and punctuate properly.*

Here, *check your* does not make sense with *punctuate properly*, and *punctuate properly* doesn't belong with the two nouns *spelling* and *grammar*. The result is a jarringly inept sentence.

Rule 6. Word order can make or ruin a sentence. If you start a sentence with an incomplete phrase or clause, such as *While crossing the street* or *Forgotten by history*, it must be followed closely by the person or thing it describes. Furthermore, that person or thing is always the main subject of the sentence. Breaking this rule results in the dreaded, all-too-common **dangling modifier**, or **dangler**.

Dangler: *Forgotten by history, his autograph was worthless.*

The problem: *his autograph* shouldn't come right after *history*, because *he* was forgotten, not his autograph.

Correct: *He was forgotten by history, and his autograph was worthless.*

Dangler: *Born in Chicago, my first book was about the 1871 fire.*

The problem: the sentence wants to say *I was born in Chicago*, but to a careful reader, it says that *my first book* was born there.

Correct: *I was born in Chicago, and my first book was about the 1871 fire.*

Adding *-ing* to a verb (as in *crossing* in the example that follows) results in a versatile word called a **participle**, which can be a noun, adjective, or adverb. Rule 6 applies to all sentences with a participle in the beginning. Participles require placing the actor immediately after the opening phrase or clause.

Dangler: *While crossing the street, the bus hit her.* (Wrong: the bus was not crossing.)

Correct:

While crossing the street, she was hit by a bus.

OR

She was hit by a bus while crossing the street.

Rule 7. Place descriptive words and phrases as close as is practical to the words they modify.

Ill-advised: *I have a cake that Mollie baked in my lunch bag.*

Cake is too far from *lunch bag*, making the sentence ambiguous and silly.

Better: *In my lunch bag is a cake that Mollie baked.*

Rule 8. A sentence fragment is usually an oversight, or a bad idea. It occurs when you have only a phrase or dependent clause but is missing an independent clause.

Sentence fragment: *After the show ended.*

Full sentence: *After the show ended, we had coffee.*

C. Comprehension Passage

The palm oil daughter(part 1)

There was once a very rich woman who lived in a village near a stream. She had a lot of palm oil trees. She and her servant collected the fruit from the trees. crushed out the oil, and put in jars. When the market price for palm oil was high, she sold it and made a lot of money.

But though she was rich, the woman was not happy because she had no children. In the evenings, while the young men and women danced in the moonlight, the woman sat alone crying 'How I Wish I had a child!'

One morning the woman went to market with with her servant to sell a few pots of oil.As soon as she had gone , a strange thing happened. Some palm oil began to flow out of the largest oil jar.

The oil went straight up in the air, and turned into a beautiful golden brown girl. She sang this song:

Palm oil flow,

Palm oil flow,

Mother needs firewood

Who will go?

Who'll fetch the water?

Who'll sweep the floor?

Who'll pound the millet

Come forth, maidens four.

D. Literature: Folktales

Folktales (or folk tales) are stories passed down through generations, mainly by telling. Different kinds of folktales include fairy tales (or fairytale)Folktales are stories that grew out of the lives and imaginations of the people, or folk. They have always been children's favorite type of folk literature

Characteristics of Folktales

- Settings:Most folktale settings remove the tale from the real world, taking us to a time and place where animals talk, witches and wizards roam, and magic spells are commonplace.The settings are usually unimportant and described and referred to in vague terms.
- Themes: In folk literature are usually quite simple, but serious and powerful. Folktale themes espouse the virtues of compassion, generosity, and humility over the vices of greed, selfishness, and excessive pride.
- Style: The style of language is economical, with a minimal amount of description and a heavy reliance on formulaic patterns, e.g., conventional openings and closings. Some folktales have powerful visual image.

Assessment

1. What is a folktale?
2. List and explain the characteristics of a folklore.
3. From the comprehension passage above, answer the following questions-

Questions –

1. What did she have?
2. Who used to collect the fruit?
3. What did they do after collecting the fruit?
4. Did she make a lot of money?
5. Was the woman happy?
6. Who danced in the moonlight?
7. When did they dance?
8. Did the woman dance?
9. Where did she go one morning?
10. Who lived in the village near the stream?

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 2

Contents:

- **Consonant Contrasts /t/, /d and /k/**
- **Grammar – Preposition**
- **Skill Focus: Writing a Narrative**

A. Consonant Contrasts /t/, /d and /k/

A *consonant* is a speech sound that is not a vowel.

The consonants /t/: When you make the /t/ sound, place the front of your tongue against the top of your mouth, forcefully you let the air out.

Practice the following words-

tight

hit

spent

tear

ten

The consonant /d/: You make this sound in the same way as the /t/ sound, but make it more gently, from your throat, not from your mouth.

Practice the following words-

died

hid

den

medal

The consonant /k/: When you make the /k/ sound, place the back of your tongue against the back of your mouth. Then suddenly let the air out forcefully. Make the sound from your mouth, not your throat.

Practice the following words-

back

lock

lacking

class

B. Grammar: Prepositions

A *preposition* is a word which precedes a noun (or a pronoun) to show the noun's (or the pronoun's) relationship to another word in the sentence. (The word *preposition* comes from the idea of being *positioned before*. It is not true to say that a preposition always precedes a noun or a pronoun, but it does most of the time.) 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).

The following are all prepositions:

above, about, across, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, since, to, toward, through, under, until, up, upon, with and within.

Role of a Preposition

Prepositions are important when constructing sentences. A preposition sits before a noun to show the noun's relationship to another word in the sentence.

Examples:

- It is a container for butter.

(The preposition *for* shows the relationship between *butter* and *container*.)

- The eagle soared above the clouds.

(The preposition *above* shows the relationship between *clouds* and *soared*.)

Pitfalls with Prepositions

For native English speakers, grammatical errors involving prepositions are rare. The most common errors involving prepositions are shown on the right. That said, there are several points to be aware of:

A preposition always goes with a noun or pronoun which is called the *object of the preposition*. The *preposition* is almost always before the noun or pronoun and that is why it is

called a preposition. The *preposition* and the *object of the preposition* together are called a *prepositional phrase*. The following chart shows the *prepositions*, *objects of the preposition*, and *prepositional phrases* of the sentences above.

Preposition	Object of the Preposition	Prepositional Phrase
to	the store	to the store
by	bus	by bus
at	three o'clock	at three o'clock
under	the table	under the table

Prepositional phrases are like idioms and are best learned through listening to and reading as much as possible. Below are some common *prepositions* of *time* and *place* and examples of their use.

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.

Prepositions of Time:

at two o'clock

on Wednesday

in an hour, in January; in 1992

for a day

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

Examples:

- She swears never to talk to me again **from** tomorrow.
- His girlfriend has been missing **since** last Saturday

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

- I had a big argument with my best friend **at** lunchtime.

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

- I usually brush my teeth **after** dinner

Prepositions of Place:

at my house

in New York, in my hand

on the table

near the library

across the street

under the bed

between the books

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

Example:

- There was a fly **on** his nose
- The boy went **outside** to play

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

Example:

- I sat **beside** a dirty man in the bus
- Someone parked a car **in front** of my house

Preposition of Direction:

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

Example:

- A fly got **into** his soup while he was eating it.
- He went **to** the cinema

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

Example:

- He warned them to keep **away from** his meat
- He fell **off** the table

Compound Preposition:

Two-word compound prepositions (according to, aside from, because of, next to, etc).

- **According to** his brother, he likes noodles.

- Her face was perfect **aside from** that one hairy mole

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

- The explosion could be heard **as far as** the police station, which is five kilometers away
He can't sing any more **on account of** his failing health

C. Skill Focus: Writing a Narrative

Narrative

A narrative is a story of some kind. When you are asked to write a story, it is often a good idea to base it on something you have experienced. Even quite ordinary events, like a trip to the market, can be made interesting: you just need to sharpen your powers of observation and use the five senses.

We have seen earlier in this course that we should think in terms of five stages in writing as follows:

Stage 1 – Preparation

- Initial thinking ('Brainstorming')
- Minor ideas
- Drawing up the plan: introduction – development – conclusion

Stage 2 – Rough Draft

Stage 3 – Making Improvements

Stage 4 – Final draft

Stage 5 – Check

Let us say you have been asked to describe a recent walk through the forest. Look at each of the three following stages in turn.

Example:

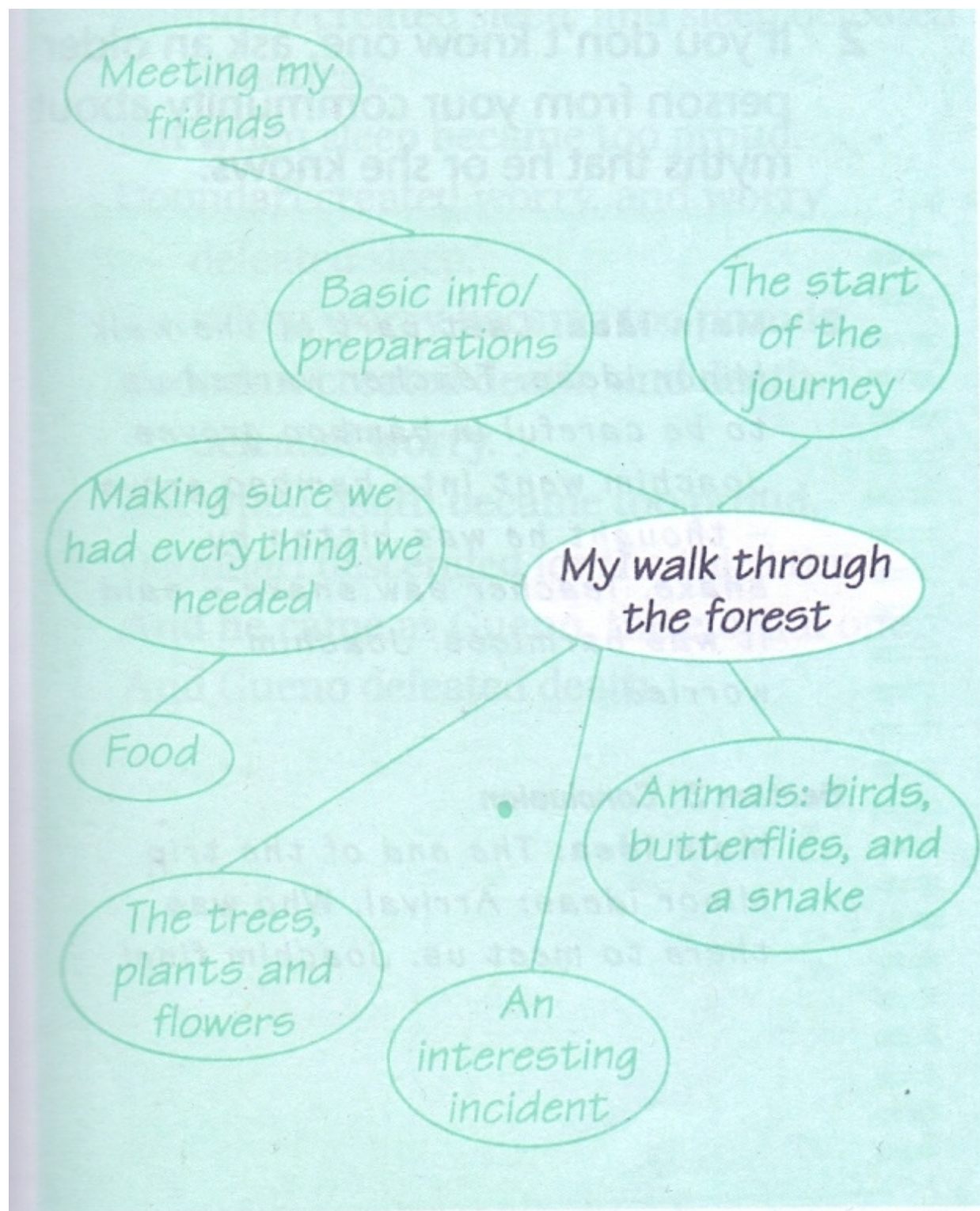
Stage 1 – Preparation

- Initial thinking** – The point of this stage is to think up ideas to write about – at this stage, in any order. Olu's brainstorming session came up with a 'mind-map' like the one below. (He has left enough space for 'minor ideas')
- Minor Ideas** – Now make a rough list of other – minor – ideas. Decide which 'bubble' on the mind-map they should be attached to. For example, this mind-map shows 'Food' as a minor idea attached to one of the bubbles

c. **Drawing up the plan** – Write your plan, putting your ideas in order.

Olu's mind-map

Thinking about what to write about on the subject of 'A walk through the forest', Olu jotted down a few ideas in random order as shown below:



Planning

People have different ideas about how best to draw up their plans. One good way of doing it is to list the main ideas as topics for each section, and jot down a few notes on minor ideas. Often, the first sentence and the other support sentences will contain the minor ideas.

One issue that bothers students is whether to plan paragraph by paragraph, or section by section. We recommend planning section by section, as some sections dealing with a certain topic may be quite long and contain several paragraphs.

In addition, including direct speech (always a good idea) will entail extra paragraphs. The example on page 30 Show Olu's plan drawn up after his brainstorming session. Once the plan has been written, you are ready to go through the other stages:

Stage 2 – Rough draft

Sometimes several rough drafts may need to be written. The start is always most difficult! When in doubt, keep your introduction short, and get on with the story

Stage 3 – Making Improvements

If you like, read each other's work and comment: two heads are better than one!

Stage 4 – Final Draft

Make it clear that this is your final draft – the one you want marked.

Stage 5 – Check

Careless errors cost marks!

Example: My walk through the Forest

Section 1: Introduction

Main Idea: Basic Info/ Preparations

Minor Ideas: Teacher arranged a field trip. Where we met.

Preparations – Food and drinks, maps etc Nearly forgot drinks and my favourite yoghurt.

Section 2: Development

i – Main Idea: First part of the walk

Minor Ideas: Beautiful Iroko trees, flame of the forest and bamboo groves. Some amazing flowers. Others we thought were flowers turned out to be butterflies

ii – Main Idea: Last part of the walk

Minor Ideas: Teacher warned us to be careful in bamboo groves. Joke went into the bamboo grove – thought she was bitten by a snake. Teacher saw snake – said it was harmless. Joke worried

Section 3: Conclusion

Main Idea: The end of the trip

Minor Ideas: Arrival. Who was there to meet us. Joke is fine!

Assessment

1. What do you understand by a narrative?
2. Discuss the various preparations that go into writing a compelling narrative..
3. Write a short story on any topic of your choice.
4. Write a short poem on – The Lonely Child

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 3

Contents:

- **Consonant Clusters**
- **Grammar: The Simple Sentence**
- **Reading Comprehension**

A. Consonant Clusters

A *consonant cluster* is a group of two or more consonant sounds that come before, after, or between vowels.

/ʃ/ and /tʃ/

Many people find it difficult to differentiate between these two consonant sounds or sometimes they make them sound alike. The first is often called the 'sh' sound and the second one is the 'ch' sound. For both of them, you press the front of your tongue to the roof of your mouth. The difference between them is that for /ʃ/ ('sh') air passes continually between the tongue and the roof of the mouth; for /tʃ/ ('ch') it is for a moment blocked.

Say the following:

/ʃ/: wash sheep share shoe mash

/tʃ/: watch cheap chair chew match

/ʒ/ and /ʒ/

These two consonants are also usually confused. For both sounds, air passes continually between the tongue and the roof of the mouth. the difference is that the first is unvoiced while the second is voiced. The second is usually spelt with an 's' : before 'ure' in a few words before '-ion'.

Say the following words:

measure leisure treasure pleasure

vision decision confusion invasion

/ʒ/ and /dʒ/

Sometimes the /ʒ/ sound is normally confused with the /dʒ/ sound. This is sometimes called the 'j' consonant, because it is often spelled in this way. Some people say it as if it were 'y'.

Say these words which contain **/dʒ/**:

joke john jealous journalist

johnson general generator

knowledge challenge

The /Ü/ and /u:/ sounds:

The /Ü/ sound is short, and the back part of the tongue is raised. Repeat these words and notice the spellings:

u	oo	ou	o
pull	good	could	woman
bullet	wood	would	wolf

The /u:/ sound in the words on the next table are long. When you say the sound, your mouth is open and the lips are rounded. The back of the tongue is raised towards the roof of the mouth. It is a little higher than that of the short /Ü/ sound. You can spell the /u:/ sound in several different ways:

o	oo	ou	u
do	soon	soup	june
who	food	group	tune
remove	woo	through	beautiful

B. The Simple Sentence

Grammar: Sentences

A **sentence** is a linguistic unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. A **sentence** can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion.

A sentence is a set of words that in principle tells a complete thought (although it may make little sense taken in isolation out of context); thus it may be a simple phrase, but it conveys enough meaning to imply a clause, even if it is not explicit. For example, “Two” as a sentence (in answer to the question “How many were there?”) implies the clause “There were two”. Typically a sentence contains a subject and predicate. 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. A sentence can also be defined purely in orthographic terms, as a group of words starting with a capital letter and ending in a full stop

There are four types of sentence.

1. A declarative sentence

A declarative sentence states a fact and ends with a period / full stop

For example:

This food is not enough for me

I wonder what Tolu is searching for under the table.

(Remember, a statement which contains an indirect question (like this example) is not a question.)

2. An imperative sentence

An imperative sentence is a command or a polite request. It ends with an exclamation mark or a period / full stop. For example: When the train is coming, wave down.

3. An interrogative sentence.

An interrogative sentence asks a question and ends with a question mark.

For example:

Who knew that dog saliva can mend a broken heart

4. An exclamatory sentence.

An exclamatory sentence expresses excitement or emotion. It ends with an exclamation mark.

For example: What a rough day!

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.

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.

- expresses a complete idea as a statement or asks a question.

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
- Bassey 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.

C. Reading Comprehension

Although Nigeria is home to a wealth of bio-diversity, rich natural resources and a variety of ecosystems, it also suffers from a number of environmental (1) These issues are largely a result of human activities, population (2) and over population in urban centres.

One problem is that of soil (3) Excessive cultivation has resulted in the loss of soil (4)....

Another problem is that of rapid deforestation. Increased cutting of timber has made in roads into forest resources, and the number of trees felled far (5) the number of replantings. By 1985, deforestation claimed over two thousand square kilometres of the nation's forest land. But as its forest fall, Nigeria has seen wild life populations plummet from poaching and (6) loss, and this has increased soil (7) and particularly in the north (8)....

In this regard, Nigeria's Government, in conjunction with a number of international non-governmental organisations, have been developing policies and programmes that address (9) development, environmentally progressive land use management techniques, and the (10) of water supplies.

Oil spills, the burning of toxic waste and urban air (11) are problems in more developed areas.

In the early 1990s, Nigeria was among the 50 nations with the world highest levels of carbon dioxide (12) which totaled 96.5million metric tons, a per capita level of 0.84 metric tons.

Water pollution is also a problem due to improper handling of (13) Fifty-four percent of Nigeria's fresh water is used for farming activities and 15% is used for industrial purposes. Safe drinking water is available to 78% of urban dwellers and 49% of the rural population.

The (14) environmental agencies are the Environmental Planning Protection Division of the Federal Ministry of Works and Housing, and the analogous division within the Federal Ministry of Industry.

A	B	C	D
Characters	Challenges	Priorities	Probabilities
Density	Disturbance	Propensity	Paucity
Pollution	Distraction	Degradation	Destruction
Maturity	Fertility	Fertile	Enrichment
Increase	Exert	Accede	Exceed
Animal	Habit	Habitat	Habitation
Irrigation	Erosion	Destruction	Desalination
Desert	Draft	Desertification	Exertion
Sustainable	Sustained	Sustenance	Suitable
Collection	Construction	Containment	Conservation
Contamination	Destruction	Pollution	Decant
Emissions	Omissions	Exertions	Immersion
Run off	Supplies	Sewers	Sewage
Priority	Vital	Principle	Principal

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 4

Contents:

- **Vowel Sounds**
- **Grammar – Compound Sentence**
- **Skill Focus: Writing an Argument**
- **Literature: Figures of Speech**

A. Vowel Sounds

i:	see	/si:/
i	happy	/'hæpi/
ɪ	sit	/sɪt/
e	ten	/ten/
æ	cat	/kæt/
ɑ:	father	/'fɑ:ðə(r)/
ɒ	got	/gɒt/ (British English)
ɔ:	saw	/sɔ:/
ʊ	put	/pʊt/
u	actual	/'æktʃʊəl/
u:	too	/tu:/
ʌ	cup	/kʌp/

There are twelve pure vowels and eight diphthongs. Pure vowels are either short or long. Here are some examples; add more of your own.

Short Vowels

/i/ – boxing, ring, whistle

/e/ – net, medal, rest

/æ/ – fans, handball, athletics, match

/ʌ/ – hockey, volleyball

/ʌ/ – umpire, luck

/ʊ/ – football, push, put

/ə/ – better, tournament, loser

Long Vowels

/i:/ – team, arena, referee

/ɑ:/ – pass, basketball, sparring, partner

/ɔ:/ – ball, court, draw

/u:/ – boot, lose, shoes

/ɜ:/ – hurt, reserve

The symbols between the lines// represent sounds. These symbols are called phonetic symbols.

Sounds	Letters	Examples	Notes
	e, eee	be, eve, see, meet, sleep, meal, read, leave,	been ;bread, deaf
	ei	sea, team, field, believe, receive	[e]; great, break [ei]; friend [e]
	iy	it, kiss, tip, pick, dinner, system, busy, pity, sunny	machine, ski, liter, pizza
[e]	ee	let, tell, press, send, end, bread, dead, weather, leather	meter sea, mean
	aai, ayei,	late, make, race, able, stable, aim, wait, play,	
[ei]	ey	say, day, eight, weight, they, hey,	said, says [e]; height,
	ea	break, great, steak	eye [ai]
[æ]	a	cat, apple, land, travel, mad; AmE: last, class, dance, castle, half	
[a:]	ara	army, car, party, garden, park, father, calm, palm, drama; BrE: last, class, dance, castle, half	war, warm [o:]
[ai]	i, iey, uy	ice, find, smile, tie, lie, die, my, style, apply, buy, guy	
[au]	ouow	out, about, house, mouse, now, brown, cow, owl, powder	group, soup know, own [ou]
[o]	o	not, rock, model, bottle, copy	
	oroaw, au	more, order, cord, port, long, gone, cost,	
[o:]	ought	coffee, law, saw, pause, because, bought, thought, caught,	work, word [ə]
	al, wa-	hall, always, water, war, want	

[oi]	oi, oy	oil, voice, noise, boy, toy	
[ou]	ooa, ow	go, note, open, old, most, road, boat, low, own, bowl	do, move how, owl [au]
[yu:]	ueweu	use, duty, music, cute, huge, tune, few, dew,	
	ue, ui	mew, new, euphemism, feud, neutral, hue, cue, due, sue, suit	
	uo, ooew	rude, Lucy, June, do, move, room, tool, crew, chew, flew, jewel,	
	ue, ui	blue, true, fruit, juice,	guide, quite [ai];
	ou	group, through, route; AmE: duty, new, sue, student	build
neutral sound [ə]	ooouou	look, book, foot, good, put, push, pull, full, sugar, would, could, should	
	u, ooua, e	gun, cut, son, money, love, tough, enough, rough, about, brutal, taken, violent,	Also: stressed,
	o, i	memory, reason, family	[ʌ]; unstressed, [ə].
[ər]	er, ur, iror,	serve, herb, burn, hurt, girl, sir, work, word,	heart, hearth [a:]
	arear	doctor, dollar, heard, earn, earnest, earth	

B. Grammar – Compound Sentence

Complex Sentence Structures

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

Examples of Complex Sentences

Below are examples of complex sentences–

- Stay in the bath until the phone rings.
- The car swerved to miss Mrs Jackson, who had slipped off the pavement.
- Both the cockroach and the bird would get along very well without us, although the cockroach would miss us most.

- Leave while you can.
- When a distinguished but elderly scientist states that something is possible, he is almost certainly right. When he states that something is impossible, he is very probably wrong.
(Arthur C. Clarke)

(This is two complex sentences.)

The Four Types of Sentence Structures

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Curiosity killed the cat.

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

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

C. Skill Focus: Writing an Argument

Argument

An argument in everyday English is a quarrel. But a written “argument” is a piece of writing that establishes your point of view and why you hold such a view. In other words, arguments are not merely conceived in the “argumentative” or quarrelsome sense of it; it is reasonable, well thought out and intended to be persuasive.

Here are some suggested approaches:

1. When writing an argument in answer to a question, for example, *make sure that you have read and understood the question*. A candidate once wrote a fine composition in favour of

capital punishment – only to realise afterwards that the subject of the debate was corporal punishment. She lost a lot of marks.

2. As usual, go through the five stages:

- Preparation (Brainstorming and Planning)
- Rough draft
- Making improvements
- Final Draft
- Check

3. Here is some help with the all-important preparation stage;

Brainstorming

- If the question gives you the choice, decide what your own opinions are. Roughly jot down in the note form, or in a mind-map, all the arguments you can think of in support of your case (Make sure that later on you put a neat line through these notes – otherwise the examiner may try to mark them)
- Jot down in the same way a list of the arguments against your case. Decide which ones you can explain away – and which ones you may have to concede as being true.

In writing your argument, avoid ‘waffle’ or ill-ordered generalisations that have no supporting evidence. Use your general knowledge and experience, so that what you say is supported by some factual information.

Planning

The best way to avoid waffle is by planning your composition well. This means that the idea that you brainstormed have to be placed in some kind of order. You will find that doing an outline like we explained in last term is helpful.

Here is one sample plan which is always reliable, and which you can vary in all kinds of ways if you wish:

1. **Introduction** – The present situation. The problems that have arisen.
2. **Development (1)** – Your views with evidence
3. **Development (2)** – Other people’s views, why you do not accept them
4. **Conclusion** – Summary of your case

Literature: Figures of Speech

You might have heard the expression “it’s a figure of speech,” but what does that really mean? A figure of speech is just that – figurative language. It might be words with a literal meaning, a certain arrangements of words, or a phrase with a meaning that is something entirely other than that of the words themselves. Figures of speech can be refreshing and fun, but for some – especially those who are not native English speakers – a figure of speech can be very confusing.

A figure of speech is designed to portray an idea more clearly or more interestingly. The most common types of figures of speech are metaphors, similes, idioms, personification, hyperbole, and euphemisms. Here are some of the most common figures of speech and what they mean.

Metaphor

A metaphor asserts that one thing is something that it literally is not. For example:

- This bedroom is a prison.
- He’s a real gannet.

Euphemism

Euphemism is used to express a mild, indirect, or vague term to substitute for a harsh, blunt, or offensive term. Euphemism is often contrasted with dysphemism. Some euphemisms intend to amuse, while others intend to give positive appearances to negative events or even mislead entirely. A euphemism is the use of agreeable or inoffensive words to replace rude or offensive ones. For example:

Examples:

These are examples of euphemism:

- *Going to the other side* = death,
- *Passed away* = die.
- *On the streets* = homeless.
- kicked the bucket = has died
- knocked up = is pregnant
- letting you go = you’re fired

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is the use of exaggeration as a rhetorical device or figure of speech. It may be used to evoke strong feelings or to create a strong impression, but is not meant to be taken literally. Hyperboles are exaggerations to create emphasis or effect.

Examples

Examples of hyperbole include:

- *I am so hungry; I could eat a horse!*
- *She's older than the hills.*
- *I could sleep for a year; I was so tired.*
- *I have a million problems.*
- *He's filthy rich. He's got tons of money.*

Simile

A **simile** is a figure of speech comparing two unlike things, often introduced with the word “like” or “as”. A simile likens one thing to another. A simile is a figure of speech that compares two unrelated things or ideas using “like” or “as” to accentuate a certain feature of an object by comparing it to a dissimilar object that is a typical example of that particular trait. It takes the form of:

- **X** is (not) like **Y**
- **X** is (not) as **Y**
- **X** is (not) similar to **Y**

Example:

- She sings like an angel.
- He fights like a lion.
- He swims as fast as a fish.

Personification

Personification is a figure of speech in which human characteristics are attributed to an abstract quality, animal, or inanimate object.

Examples

Notice the use of personification in William Blake's poem below:

Two Sunflowers Move in the Yellow Room.

"Ah, William, we're weary of weather,"

said the sunflowers, shining with dew.

"Our traveling habits have tired us.

Can you give us a room with a view?"

They arranged themselves at the window

and counted the steps of the sun,

and they both took root in the carpet

where the topaz tortoises run.

William Blake

(1757-1827)

Onomatopoeia

This figure of speech is partly pleasure and partly business. It is used to replicate sounds created by objects, actions, animals and people. This is the use of a word that actually sounds like what it means. Good examples include "hiss" or "ding-dong" or "fizz." These words are meant to describe something that actually sounds very much like the word itself. For example: Cock-a-doodle-do, quack, moo.

Assessment

1. What do you understand by an argument?
2. Define an argumentative essay.
3. Discuss the suggested approaches to writing an argumentative essay.
4. Write short notes on five figures of speech that you know.

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 5

Content:

- **Nasal Sounds**
- **Grammar: Punctuation Marks**

A. Nasal Consonants

Nasals are consonants that are formed by **blocking the oral passage and allowing the air to escape through the nose**. Present-Day English has three nasals, all of which are **voiced** (vocal cords vibrating during the articulation of the nasal). (The nasals, the lateral /l/, the retroflex /r/, and the semivowels /w/ and /j/ are sometimes called the **resonants**.) A **nasal consonant** is a type of consonant produced with a lowered velum in the mouth, allowing air to come out through the nose, while the air is not allowed to pass through the mouth because something (like the tongue or the lips) is stopping it.

Two major things to be noted:

1. The air is completely blocked from leaving the mouth, and is instead released out through the nose
2. All three nasal sounds are voiced, meaning that the vocal cords vibrate during the creation of the sound

A subtle aspect of the *n sound* to be aware and attempt mastery of is: The *n sound* can become *syllabic consonant* on unstressed syllables.

1. /m/ (the phoneme spelled m in mail): (voiced) bilabial nasal.

2. /n/ (the phoneme spelled n in nail): (voiced) alveolar nasal.

3. /ŋ/ (the phoneme spelled ng in sing): (voiced) velar nasal.

The M consonant sound

The M consonant sound (/m/) is made by lightly pressing your lips together while making the sound with your vocal chords. Although most of the air moves over your soft palate, some air moves through the nose, and it feels like it is vibrating through your nasal passage. This is why the M consonant is referred to as a nasal sound.

/m/ – **mom**, **mouth**, **miss**, **may**.

The N consonant sound

The N consonant sound (/n/) is made by moving air through the nasal passage. Your lips will be slightly parted. The tongue touches the roof your mouth just behind your teeth. You should feel a vibration in your nose.

/n/ – tiny, ten, **nine**, not

The ng consonant sound

You can't study the N sound without also studying the ng sound (/ŋ/). This is the third nasal sound in English. It is also produced by moving air through your nasal passage, but the tongue placement is different than the N sound. Your tongue is raised and further back in your mouth.

/ŋ/ – sing, ring, bringing, long.

Punctuation Marks

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

Punctuation Rules

Since proper punctuation is an essential aspect of effective 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

Exercise

1. Why is proper punctuation said to be an essential aspect of effective communication?
2. Enumerate and explain the different types of punctuation marks in English Language.
3. Briefly discuss the rules to effective use of the punctuation marks.

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 6

Contents:

- **Pronouns**
- **Skill Focus: Descriptive Essay**
- **Figure of Speech (cont'd)**

Pronouns

Traditional grammars define pronouns as “small words that take the place of other words, phrases, and clauses.” Pronouns in English more specifically take the place of nouns, noun phrases, and noun clauses as well as some other grammatical forms. English pronouns may be further classified into more specific categories: personal pronouns, indefinite pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and relative pronouns.

Personal Pronouns: The first type of pronoun in the English language is the personal pronoun. Personal pronouns are pronouns that refer to specific antecedents. The English personal pronoun system includes four types of pronouns: subject pronouns, object pronouns, possessive pronouns, and reflexive pronouns. Personal pronouns express person and number in English. The English personal pronouns are:

- I, me, mine, myself
- we, us, ours, ourselves
- you, yours, yourself, yourselves
- he, him, his, himself
- she, her, hers, herself
- it, its, itself
- they, them, theirs, themselves

For example:

- *I* bought *him* *it* to give to *her*.
- *You* need to wash the dishes *yourself*.
- *She* finished *them* for *us* yesterday.

- *Mine* and *his* are on the table next to *yours* and *hers*.

For more information about personal pronouns, see The English Personal Pronoun System.

Indefinite Pronouns: The second type of pronoun in the English language is the indefinite pronoun. Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that refer to unspecified antecedents. Some indefinite pronouns are also referred to as impersonal pronouns. Indefinite pronouns express number in English. The English indefinite pronouns are:

- singular indefinite *-one* pronouns
- singular indefinite *-body* pronouns
- singular indefinite *-thing* pronouns
- other singular indefinite pronouns
- plural indefinite pronouns
- singular/plural indefinite pronouns
- you, yours, yourself, yourselves
- they, them, theirs, themselves

For example:

- *Nobody* left *anything* for you.
- *Both* are for *neither*.
- *Somebody* called about *something* last night.
- *They* say *you* should always wash *your* hands before eating.

For more information about indefinite pronouns, see The English Indefinite Pronoun System.

Demonstrative Pronouns: The third type of pronoun in the English language is the demonstrative pronoun. Demonstrative pronouns are pronouns of literal and figurative distance that provide additional information about the proximity of the word, phrase, or clause replaced by the pronoun. Demonstrative pronouns express number and deixis in English. The English demonstrative pronouns are:

- this
- that
- these
- those

For example:

- *This* is more important than *that*.
- Give me *those*.
- *These* give me a tummy ache.
- We talked about *this* and *that* yesterday.

For more information about demonstrative pronouns, see The English Demonstrative Pronoun System.

Interrogative Pronouns: The fourth type of pronoun in the English language is the interrogative pronoun. Interrogative pronouns are pronouns used to ask questions. Some interrogative pronouns are technically interrogative adverbs. Interrogative pronouns express number in English. The English interrogative pronouns are:

- who
- whom
- what
- which
- whose
- how (interrogative adverb)
- why (interrogative adverb)
- where (interrogative adverb)
- whoever
- whomever
- whatever
- whichever
- whoseever

For example:

- *Who* stole the cookie from the cookie jar?
- *Which* did you give to *whom*?
- You are vacationing *where*?
- *Whatever* do you mean?

Relative Pronouns: The fifth type of pronoun in the English language is the relative pronoun. Relative pronouns are a type of subordinating conjunction that introduce adjective, or relative, clauses. Some relative pronouns are technically relative adverbs. Relative pronouns express number in English. The English relative pronouns are:

- who
- whom
- that
- which
- whose
- when (relative adverb)
- where (relative adverb)
- why (relative adverb)

For example:

- The man *who* brought the cake is my brother.
- The painting, *which* you vehemently hate, just sold for millions.
- I am not a fan of the cookies *that* you baked.
- Tell me the reason *why* you are late.

Pronouns are words that take the place of nouns, noun phrases, noun clauses, and other grammatical forms. The five types of pronouns in the English language are personal pronouns, indefinite pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and relative pronouns. The difference between them is that a pronoun is used in a place of a noun and a determiner is followed by a noun (or by an adjective, then by a noun).

1. Pronouns come in different groups including:

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

2. Determiners include these group:

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

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

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

Study these examples with much:

He doesn't have much (determiner) hope

Much (pronoun) is expected of you

Table 4.2 Personal Pronouns/ Determiners

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

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

Compare these sentences

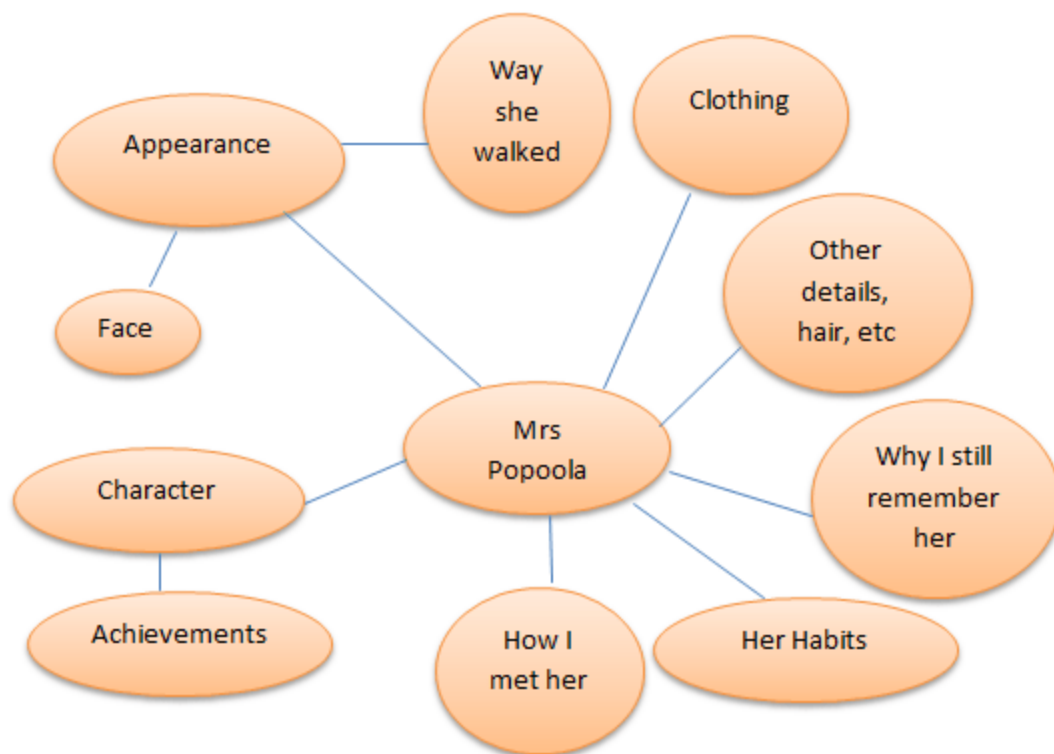
- Oke and Tony blamed themselves for losing the goat (Oke blamed himself and Tony blamed himself)
- Oke and Tony blamed each other for losing the goat (Oke blamed Tony and Tony blamed Oke)

Skill Focus: Descriptive Essay

Description

1. Describing a Person

A good description, like other kinds of writing, needs to be well organised. For example, suppose that you have been asked to write a description for the school magazine of 'The most unforgettable person I have ever met'. Brainstorming the topic, you might come up with something like this:



To organise your description you can put these ideas in four paragraphs:

- Introduction – The most unforgettable person I have ever met is Mrs P. I first met her...
- Development (1) – Appearance, clothing, habits and other details.
- Development (2) – Her character and achievements
- Conclusion – Why I still remember Mrs P.

2. Describing a Place

When you try to describe your personal experience, your job is to try to 'bring it alive' in the reader's mind. Your reader should be able to use 'the five senses'– sight, sound, touch, taste and smell.

Imagine you have a beautiful compound at home.

You know what it looks like – the different colours of the trees and crops. You know what it sounds like – peaceful perhaps except for the occasional bleating of goats or lowing of cattle, the humming of insects and the wind blowing through the banana leaves. You know too what it smells like, particularly when it has that rich earthy smell after heavy rain. You know too what the things you grow taste like – especially when they are freshly picked!

You know what it feels like, to put your hands in the stream and feel the cool water, or to cut and pick up the heavy pumpkins when they are ready, or perhaps to feel the weight of a corn cob, friendly in your hand.

We can say that you know your garden because of what your five senses have told you. A description of your garden would sound interesting if you bring in words that suggest as many of the five senses as possible.

3. The Sixth Sense

There is a sixth sense, too, in a way: call it emotion. The emotion might be sorrow, fear, anger, pain, love, regret, nostalgia – it could be many different emotions. Sometimes, the feeling or emotion will be mentioned, but often, it will only be implied.

Figures of Speech

Idiom

An idiom is commonly used expression whose meaning does not relate to the literal meaning of its words. For example:

- Be careful not to miss the boat.
- This is the last straw.
- You can't pull the wool over my eyes.

Irony

Irony is a figure of speech in which there is a contradiction of expectation between what is said and what is really meant. It is characterized by an incongruity, a contrast, between reality and appearance. There are three types of irony: verbal, dramatic and situational.

Types of irony

1. Verbal irony:

It is a contrast between what is *said* and what is *meant*

2. Dramatic irony:

It occurs when the audience or the reader knows more than the character about events. In other words, what the character thinks is true is incongruous with what the audience knows.

3. Situational irony:

This refers to the contrast between the actual result of a situation and what was intended or expected to happen.

Examples of irony

- His argument was as clear as mud.
- The two identical twins were arguing. One of them told the other: "You're ugly"
- The thieves robbed the police station

Alliteration

Alliteration is the repetition of initial sounds in neighboring words.

Alliteration draws attention to the phrase and is often used for emphasis. The initial consonant sound is usually repeated in two neighboring words although sometimes the repetition occurs also in words that are not neighbors.

Examples:

- **s**weet **s**mell of **s**uccess,
- a **d**ime a **d**ozen,
- **b**igger, **b**etter and **b**usy

Oxymoron

An **oxymoron** is a figure of speech that combines incongruous or contradictory terms. The plural is **oxymorons** or **oxymora**.

Examples:

An oxymoron can be made of an adjective and a noun:

- Dark light
- Deafening silence
- Living dead

- Open secret

Climax

Climax refers to a figure of speech in which words, phrases, or clauses are arranged in order of increasing importance.

Example of climax

Beauty is but a vain and doubtful good;
 A shining gloss that vadeth suddenly;
 A flower that dies when first it gins to bud;
 A brittle glass that's broken presently:
 A doubtful good, a gloss, a glass, a flower,
 Lost, vaded, broken, dead within an hour.

Shakespeare, The Passionate Pilgrim

Analogy

An analogy is a figure of speech that equates two things to explain something unfamiliar by highlighting its similarities to something that is familiar. This figure of speech is commonly used in spoken and written English. For example: Questions and answers, crying and laughing, etc

Assessment

1. What do you understand by a descriptive essay?
2. Write a descriptive a descriptive essay on the topic "How my Brother is"
3. Which of the following is not a figure of speech?-----
 (A. Alliteration B. Oxymoron C. Irony D. Onekomepian)

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 7

Contents:

- **Synonyms and Antonyms**
- **Pronouns – Demonstrative**
- **Reading Skills – Efficient Reading**
- **Skill focus – How to Write an Essay**

Synonyms and Antonyms

Antonyms

A word that has the exact opposite meaning of another word is its *antonym*. Life is full of *antonyms*, from the “stop” and “go” of a traffic signal to side-by-side restroom doors labeled “men” and “women.”

Most antonyms are pretty obvious, like “good” and “bad,” or “black” and “white.” Some words can be transformed into their *antonyms* simply by adding the prefixes “un,” “in,” or “non,” as when “likable” is changed into its antonym, “unlikable.” The word *antonym* itself takes the Greek word *anti*, meaning “opposite,” and adds it to *-onym*, which comes from the Greek *onoma*, or “name.” So *antonym* literally means “opposite-name.”

Example:

Panic	Keep calm
Compulsory	Optional
Fail	Succeed
Forget	Remember
Borrow	Lend

Synonyms

A *synonym* is a word that means the same thing as another word. If you replace a word in a sentence with its synonym, the meaning of the sentence won’t really change that much.

There are, of course, shades of meaning, and not every synonym is an exact substitute, but sometimes we just need a different word for a change. Two words that can be interchanged in a context are said to be synonymous relative to that context.

Examples:

Panic	Be frightened
Right	Correct
Allowed	Permitted
Important	Vital
Amazing	Surprising
Neatly	Tidily

Exercise:

Choose from the list of words in the bracket the correct synonyms that match the words listed 1-10. { build, grew, moved, anxieties, stroll, doing well, total, challenging, old}

1. wealth
2. flourishing
3. ancient
4. construct
5. expanded
6. shited
7. worries
8. complete
9. demanding
10. walk slowly

Structure: Pronouns (Demonstrative, Interrogative and Possessive)**Demonstrative Pronouns**

A determiner that points to a particular noun or to the noun it replaces.

There are four demonstratives in English: the “near” demonstratives *this* and *these*, and the “far” demonstratives *that* and *those*. A *demonstrative pronoun* distinguishes its antecedent from similar things. We use them to indicate the person, thing or place referred to. When a demonstrative precedes a noun, it is sometimes called a *demonstrative adjective*.

Examples

This is the boy who took my pen

That is the man whose car was stolen last week

Those are the pins Mr Kadri was looking for

Interrogative Pronouns

A term in traditional grammar for a pronoun that introduces a question.

In English, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *what* commonly function as interrogative pronouns.

(When immediately followed by a noun, *whose*, *which*, and *what* function as determiners.) **Interrogative pronouns** are used in asking questions. There are five of them, all of which begin with **wh-**: **who**, **whom**, **whose**, **which**, **what**. **Who** is used for people while **which** and **what** are used for things. These pronouns do not have gender.

Using Who:

Who are you?

Who is at the door?

Using Which:

Which of the bags is yours?

Which do you prefer?

Using Whom:

Whom are you looking for?

Who do you intend to see?

Using Whose:

Whose cat is this?

Who is the subject pronoun while **whom** is the object pronoun. See the following sentences:

'Case' examples:

Subjective case

- **Who** took my note?
- **Which** do i buy?
- **What** caused her illness?

Possessive case

- **Whose** dog is barking?
- **Which** of the author's books have you read?
- **What** does he want today?

Objective case

- **Whom** did you borrow that pencil from?
- **Which** pen did you take?
- **What** have you planned to do this summer?

Possessive Pronouns

A pronoun that can take the place of a noun phrase to show ownership (as in “This phone is *mine*”).

The *weak* possessives (also called possessive determiners) function as adjectives in front of nouns. The weak possessives are *my, your, his, her, its, our, and their*.

In contrast, the *strong* (or *absolute*) possessive pronouns stand on their own: *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, and theirs*. A possessive pronoun never takes an apostrophe.

The **possessive pronouns** are the possessive forms of personal pronouns. We use the personal pronouns in the possessive case to express possession. A possessive pronoun is able to stand on its own as subject, object, etc.

Possessive pronouns	
Singular	Plural
mine	ours
yours	yours
his	theirs
hers	theirs

Examples:

The red apple is **mine**. The green one is **yours**

His meat is bigger than **ours**

Possessive pronouns can be used as either subject or object:

- **Yours** has green spots. (Subject)
- Your pencil is sharper than **mine**. (Object)

We do not insert an apostrophe in possessive pronouns

(especially, **yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs**) that express ownership.

- This piece of chicken is **yours**. (**Not**: This piece of chicken is **your's**.)
- It is licking **its** paw. (**Not**: It is licking **it's** paw.)
- **Whose** books are these? (**Not**: **Who's** books are these?)

Idioms and Colloquial Expressions

Idiom is a group of words with a special meaning. E.g *Keep a cool head* means *don't panic*. The expression to *keep one's head* has a similar meaning. What is the opposite of this?

A colloquial expression is an idiom which is used in everyday speech and semi-formal writing but not suitable for formal writing. Here are some examples:

- *thanks a lot*
- *here goes* – this is a very informal way of introducing main points.
- *get hold of* – which of the following is the more formal equivalent? a. borrow b. obtain c. steal

Reading Skill – Efficient Reading

Students can't pass their exams unless they can read efficiently. This means that they must be able to read at a reasonable speed. They must be able to store in their minds or on paper, in the form of notes, the most important items of information from the text they are reading. What is the best way of going about this? First of all, it is best to survey, or preview, the text.

Why do we preview a text?

The purpose of a survey, or preview of a reading text is to get a good general idea of what it is about. Surveying a reading text in this way is rather like looking at a map before beginning a journey to an unknown place.

The preview is only the first stage in studying a text. There are several good study methods you can use. The method that is often recommended is set out in the box below. This method is called P3RU. P3RU is not the only study method possible – there are others. Many small variations are possible. The main thing is for everyone to work out a method of study which suits his or her learning style.

How to Survey or preview, a text.

Before reading, look at

- any pictures, maps or diagrams, and the captions that go with them
- headings and sub-headings
- the first paragraph, and the first sentence of each of the other paragraphs, to get some idea of the topics covered.

An efficient study method: P3RU

- P – PREVIEW the reading text
- R – READ the text carefully
- R – RECORD the main points of the text in note form
- R – REVIEW or REVISE: read through the text again. Find out the answers to any questions you have – e.g. anything you didn't understand. If there are any questions following the text, this is a good time to answer them, using both the text and your notes
- U – USE the information you have obtained from the text both in discussion and in writing.

Skill focus – How to Write an Essay

In the JSSCE examination, marks are awarded for:

- Content: What you say. Please note that in examinations in your other subjects, the person marking your papers is given a list of 'mark-earning points'. If your answer contains ten points listed on the marking sheet, you get ten marks. So it is important therefore to make sure that your answers are relevant, and contain most of the points that are likely to earn marks – i.e. the main points. In English, some compositions, and summaries, are marked in a similar way; but marks are also given for the following:
- Expression: The way you express yourself
- Organisation: The way you organise your material especially paragraphing
- Mechanical accuracy: Marks are lost through inaccurate use of language.

Here is some advice on how to write an essay in an examination.

Imagine you are asked to describe how a church or mosque in your community came to be built or improved.

It is best to plan your essay in three parts

1. Introduction: Make this one short paragraph. Don't waste time agonising how to begin! Just state the name of the building, where it is, and what it is like. You could also very briefly describe the situation before the building was put up or improved.
2. Development: This could fall into three sections: a. Early stages – how the building work was planned and funded. b. The way it was built: who built it. c. The opening: date, VIPs.
3. Conclusion: A brief conclusion, describing the important role the building has today in your community.

Note: You will probably only have time for one draft, so it is worth thinking out what you want to write before you begin. Do a rough plan. Some people find it helpful to write rough notes or

a balloon diagram first. Always check your work for careless errors at the end! Careless errors lose marks!

Assessment

1. What is an antonym?
2. Differentiate between an antonym and a synonym.
3. What do you understand by colloquial expressions?
4. Briefly explain why it is important to preview texts while reading.

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 8

Contents:

Letter Writing

Types of Letters – Formal, Semi-formal and Informal

Letter Writing

You can find four basic elements in both formal and informal letters: a salutation, an introduction, body text and a conclusion with signature.

Salutation

The salutation is also known as the greeting. Formal letters often begin with Dear Sir/Madam. If you know the name of the person you are writing to, use it instead of the impersonal Sir/Madam.

In formal and semi-formal letters, it is common to put a colon after Dear X. In informal letters you can put a comma or nothing at all.

Introduction

The introduction doesn't have to be particularly long. Explain in one or two sentences the reason for your writing. That's enough.

Body

This is where you have to outline the information you need to communicate. Be concise but don't forget to provide all the necessary information. In formal and semi-formal letters, you should also include a formal conclusion. Examples are given below.

Thank you for your time. I look forward to hearing from you.

Thank you for your help and consideration.

Closing and signature

Yours sincerely is the most common closing used in formal and semi-formal letters. When the name of the addressee is not known the phrase *Yours faithfully* should be used. Note that in American English *Yours faithfully* is not normally used.

In informal letters other closings such as *Regards* or *All the best* can be used.

Leave some space for your signature and then print or write your name underneath it

Skill Focus:

1. A note on letter writing

It is useful to distinguish between the three types of letter:

- a. Formal (Official or Business)
- b. Semi-formal (Personal, but the writers are not too on very close terms)
- c. Informal (very personal; the writers are very well known to each other)

One of the most important differences between these three kinds of writing is the style of language you use. Discuss these examples:

1. Grammar

Formal: I shall be going to Jos next month

Semi-Formal: I'll be going to Jos next month

Informal: I'm off to Jos next month

2. Idioms

Formal: Idioms are best avoided in formal letters. 'I fully agree with your proposal.'

Semi-Formal: 'What a great idea!'

Informal: 'Cool!' Your use of informal idioms very much depends on whom you are writing to. What is 'cool' for a classmate may be unsuitable for an older relative.

3. Vocabulary

Formal: How appointment was terminated

Semi-Formal: He was fired

Informal: He got the sack

4. Layout

Formal Letters: These have to be laid out properly.

Semi-Formal Letters: These should be laid out in the same way as the letters between Eddie and Taiwo.

P. O. Box 96,
Akure,
Ondo State,
Nigeria.

4th May 20_

Dear Eddie,

1 I saw your ad in the paper, and I very much hope we can be friends. This is just a short letter to start off with.

My name is Taiwo, Taiwo Adenuga. In English, the name 'Taiwo' means 'the one who came first'. I was called this because I was the first of twins. My twin sister's name is Kehinde, 5 which means 'the one who came afterwards'. Most of our names mean something in Nigeria. I wonder where you got your name.

As you would expect, Kehinde and I look quite similar. But our complexions are slightly different: I am dark brown, while Kehinde is light brown, almost tan in colour. But of course our hair is jet black.

10 I am the third of four children in the family. My older brother works in computers in Lagos, but my older sister is still at college. My father works in a bank and my mother is a teacher. My father originally came from Ibadan, but I was born here in Akure.

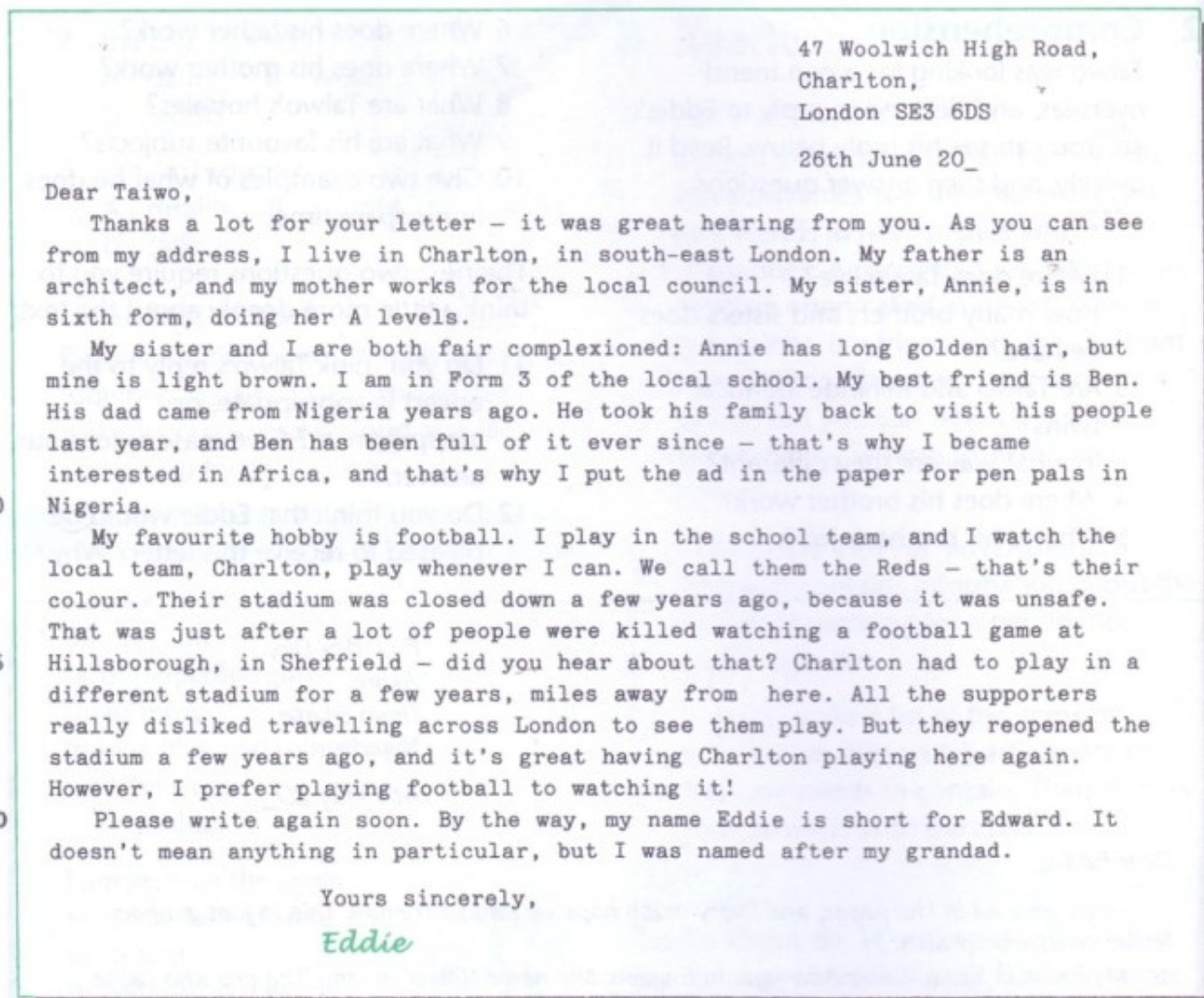
My favourite subjects at school are science, English and games. I hate history and maths. My hobbies include music (I sing in a choir), reading and ecology. I belong to a group that goes 15 tree planting every so often – we are trying to rescue an area near here from soil erosion.

I very much look forward to hearing from you. You say you are interested in music. I wonder what kind. You also say that you enjoy cycling. Does that mean you cycle round London?

Write soon!

Yours sincerely,

Taiwo



The letters between Taiwo and Eddi are semi-formal letters. Find some examples of language use which are appropriate in a semi-formal letter but inappropriate in a formal letter.

Taiwo's Letter

ad (line 1) ad or advert are both acceptable informal versions of the word advertisement

my brother works in computers (line 10) it is an idiomatic way of saying 'My brother works in the field of computers'.

every so often (line 15) is an idiomatic way of saying 'occasionally or from time to time'

Eddie's Letter

Thanks a lot (line 1) Informal English. The points about informal letters is that you can write them in a very much the same way as you might speak to a friend.

full of it (line 8) an idiom meaning 'talking enthusiastically about it'

great (lines 1 and 18) as you can see, this is one of Eddie's favourite adjectives. Again this is to be avoided in more formal contexts.

2. How to Write a Semi-formal Letter

In the examinations you have to take, marks are awarded for:

Content – what you say

Expression – the way you say it

Organisation – the way you organise your material (especially with regard to paragraphing)

Mechanical accuracy – Marks are lost through inaccurate use of language!

Note these points about Mary's Letter

1. The address and date

Notice the position and layout of the address. Here are some examples of the way dates should be written:

1st February, 2007 2nd May, 2006 3rd July, 2009

2. The salutation

We usually start letters with Dear....

Note that in more affectionate forms: My dear Lizzy, the word dear does not start with capital letter (Compare Dear Elizabeth)

3. The body of the letter

The letter is laid out in well-organised paragraphs. There is an indentation at the beginning of each paragraph. Remember, marks are awarded for sensible paragraphing.

4. The style of the letter

The language of the letter is semi-formal: it is very like ordinary speech, but a little more grammatical. The semi-formal features of the letter include the following. Can you find some examples in the letter?

- Informal expressions like *don't panic, etc*
- Contracted forms like *I'm* and *here's*.
- The use of dashes and Exclamation marks.

5. Ending the letter

The last paragraph of a letter should 'round it off' in a suitable way, and send greetings. The usual way of signing off is with the phrase *Yours sincerely* and your signature.

6. The signature

With semi-formal letter and informal letter, you just write your given name. You do not print your full name under the signature in semi-formal or informal letters – they know who you are!

Mary's Letter

P.O. Box 147,
Enugu.

23rd June, 20__

Dear Elizabeth,

1 I do hope that you and the family are all well. Is your baby brother walking yet? Thanks a lot for the super photograph!

I've just heard that you are sitting for an important exam next month. I thought you may like some advice, so here goes!

5 My first point is this: I'm sure you will do well, provided you keep a cool head. So don't panic either before or during the exam.

Secondly, get plenty of exam practice – work through several of the old tests in your own time, if you can get hold of copies. Then, as the exam gets nearer, time yourself on a few tests. Get used to working under the pressure of time.

10 Next, make sure you have the right instruments. In some exams you have to use a pencil only, while in others pens are allowed. Make sure you have a pen you are used to – otherwise it will slow you down!

I'm sure you've been told how important it is to read and understand the instructions at the beginning of an exam; yet it's really amazing the number of
15 people who don't do this! For example, you may be told to write a single letter for your answer – like A for instance. You'd be surprised how many people waste time writing out the answer in full! Another thing, you sometimes get compulsory questions. Some candidates don't answer these, and then wonder why they fail! I'd advise you to do these first, before you forget them, keeping one eye on the clock.

20 This brings me back to timing. It's astonishing how many people just seem to forget this. A watch is almost as important as a pen in an exam, so if you haven't got one, borrow one. Put it on the desk in front of you. Make a note of what time you start and ration your time in advance. If you have to answer two questions in an hour, spend about 5 minutes planning your first answer, and then do it. After
25 about 25 minutes, bring your first answer to a close and get on with the next one. Of course, do try to leave 5 minutes at the end to check for any careless errors.

Here's just a few points before I close. I've noticed that people who write clearly usually do well in exams, so do write legibly and neatly. But don't be scared of crossing things out and rewriting them if you need to. By the way, if
30 there are lots of short questions and you find some of them too tricky, don't waste time on them. Skip them and leave a space so you can go back to them later if there's time.

Well, I really must stop now, as I have to prepare for my own exams! Good luck, and do write if there's anything else you want to know. Please give my greetings to
35 the family. See you in the holidays!

Yours sincerely,

Mary

Summary of Letter Writing

Letters are marked according to the following criteria:

Content – Appropriacy and length: how far does the letter answer the question?

Organisation and Layout – Is the material properly organised in suitable paragraphs?

Expression – Marks are awarded for suitable register, including the level of formality, clarity and variety of sentence structure.

Mechanical accuracy – Grammar, punctuation and spelling mistakes are penalized.

The feature of each letter is summarised below

Formal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

The name (where known), position and address of the addressee, ranged left, again, full punctuated

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow this style: 1st March, 2010 or 1 March 2010.

4. Salutation

Dear Mr/Mrs (name), if known. If the name and gender of the person are not known, begin with Dear Sir or Madam.

5. Subject of the Letter

This goes beneath the salutation and should be underlined.

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate for formal letters.

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours faithfully* is always acceptable. If the name of the person you are writing to is personally known to you, *Yours Sincerely* may be appropriate. Always write your name clearly beneath your signature.

Semi Formal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the relationship, any of the following might be appropriate: Dear Mr/Dr/Mrs (name), Dear (first name)

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate for semi-formal letters.

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name.

Informal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the circumstances and relationship, Dear (first name/nickname) is appropriate

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate: use colloquial language, abbreviations, jokes etc

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name or nickname. Variations are possible for very close relationships e.g. *Your friend, Your sister, Lots of love, etc.*

Using Verbs + ing

With the verbs *like, love* and *hate*, you can make sentences like the following:

She	Loves	To swim, Swimming
	Likes	

Hates

There is not much difference in meaning, but using the *-ing* form suggests an activity that is going on for a longer period of time.

Note that you have to use the *ing* form with these verbs: to enjoy, to dislike, to loathe, to be keen on, to be fond of. For example:

Taiwo enjoyed reading Eddie's letter

Here are some more examples

Eddie	Is fond of	Cycling
	Is keen on	Cycling
	Often enjoys	Cycling
	Always loathes	Travelling to a stadium

English Language JSS3 Second Term

Week 9

Contents:

Literature: Features of a Play

Skill Focus: How to write a speech

Literature: Features of a Play

Plays have the following features:

- The speakers' names are printed in capitals at the beginning of their speech, with a colon following the name. E.g. DANIEL:, TOLU: e.t.c
- A play may also contain **stage directions** e.g. (Takes her hand.) These always appear in italics, and in brackets. E.g. DANIEL (He turns off the light):
- The **setting** of the play may change from time to time. For example, this **scene** takes place one morning 'in a clearing at the edge of the market'. This is also put in brackets, and italics
- The **costumes** can be very important. For example, Soyinka suggests that Lakunle is dressed in an old-style English suit – whereas Sidi is dressed in traditional clothing. What do the costumes tell you about the **characters**?
- Certain items may be required for use during the play. For example, in this scene, Lakunle tries to carry Sidi's pail – such items are called 'properties', or **props** for short.
- The **performance** can feature not just the words spoken by the actors – it can also include singing and dancing
- The **director** of the play will decide how, when and where the actors should stand and move – and exactly how the singing and dancing should be performed.
- Sometimes, the director may wish to encourage the audience to take part in the singing – and even the dancing. **Audience participation** often features in traditional performances in Africa.

Skill Focus: How to Write a Play

Here are some suggestions on how to write a play. Let us suppose you want to write a short play about Toli, Ocol and Clady. You need a title! Let's call it The Tangled Web (a spider's web that has been messed up perhaps by the wind).

You need to decide where and when the play takes place (the setting). This needs to be stated at the beginning along with suitable stage directions. e.g.

The Tangled Web

{Scene: A roadside near the market. Toli enters – and sees Ocol and Clady walking towards her}

Notice the stage directions (such as Toli enters) use present simple tense
To be interesting, a play must involve conflict of some kind: for example, one of the characters want X, another wants Y. So you need to think of what each character wants – and then imagine the kind of dialogue that takes place. It's best to keep the dialogue comparatively calm and low key to start with, so that it gradually builds up to a climax – when the exchanges become more heated.

Ideally, there should be some kind of resolution or satisfactory ending – It's not always easy. We suggest you end your play when you feel like ending it – just allow the audience to imagine the ending for themselves!

Skill Focus: How to Write a Speech

A speech should take into account three main factors:

Situation:

What is the occasion? Formal, Semi-formal or Informal?

Solemn (such as funeral or memorial service) or light-hearted?

Audience:

Just your fellow students – or very mixed?

Purpose:

What is the purpose of your speech?

What is the purpose of the meeting/occasion?

In what way can your speech help the meeting to be more successful?

There are two ways of giving a speech:

1. Writing it out in full

Some people like to write out a speech in full anyway, because it gives them confidence. Even if you do this, however, it is always best to give the speech – not read it. You can of course refer to notes. But if you avoid reading a speech, it is always much more impressive.

2. Writing your own speech in note form

Jotting down what you have to say in note form, point by point, is usually a much more effective way of giving a speech. Your audience feels that you will speak more naturally and more interestingly. You may forget a point or two, that is true but the way you speak will be much more impressive.

Your note introducing a Dr. Garba will be like this

Vote of thanks

1. Welcome distinguished visitor Dr Muhammed Garba of African Studies ABU
2. Department near the school – ex-students
3. Title: 'Am. Today – Dream or Nightmare?
4. Qualification: Phd. Social historian. Visited US many times visiting lecturer L.A. Uni.
5. Questions allowed!
6. Without more ado

All the main points are here, and can go on the back of a postcard. Once you've listed them, you hardly need to refer to them!

How to Study a Novel!

Many students faced with a novel immediately worry about its length. How can one cope with this one, long book?

These notes will help!

1. Enjoy it!

The first rule is this: Read it through, as quickly as you can, for enjoyment. The book is an opportunity for enjoyment, not a threat to one's well being!

Developing a positive attitude as much as you can will greatly ease any problems you might have. Getting a general idea of what the book is about, who the main characters are, and what happens in the novel, will give you a useful overview.

2. Make notes

Next get to grips with the major events described in the novel – the plot. Chapter by chapter, or section by section, make very brief notes summarising the main events that take place. Compare your notes with those of a partner. You will almost always find things you missed, or misunderstood. It is usual to use the Present Simple tense for this purpose. For example, your notes summarising the extract in this unit might read as follows:

Odili offers Edna a lift to the hospital on his bike, and tries to impress her with his strength. But his attempt to impress her is spoiled when they have an accident.

3. Chunking

It may be there are no chapters or sections: the novel just goes on and on! In that case, you will need to 'chunk' it. That is, you divide it into sections which seem to you to make sense. Before, during and after a particular major incident could be three such sections.

4. Character Study

So, you've made notes on the plot, what next? You can look at the main characters. Who are they, and what are they like? What do they do, and why? The novel gives you two clues about their characters:

- it says what they did, or how they behaved.
- it indicates what they say
- sometimes it states the reasons for their actions; sometimes we have to infer this.

5. Point of view

As you get further into the novel you will notice that it typically consists of different kinds of text:

Description (of people and places)

Dialogue (what people say to each other)

Narrative (the events described)

There are several different kinds of narrative, depending on the writer's point of view.

First-person narrative

Here, the novelist imagines himself (or herself – many novelists are women) to be one of the characters. So, many of the sentences start with 'I'! Normally, this is an invitation to readers to identify themselves with the person referred to.

Third-person narrative

Many novels are written as though by an unseen observer, who knows and sees everything that is going on. This kind of narrative is sometimes called 'omniscient' (from the latin word 'all-knowing'). Most novels are examples of this kind of narrative.

JSS 3

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

THIRD TERM

TABLE OF CONTENT

WEEK 1	Revision of Last Term's Work
WEEK 2:	Revision of Nouns and Pronouns
WEEK 3	verbs and Adverbs
WEEK 4	Adjectives and Prepositions

English Language JSS3 Third Term

Week 2

Contents:

- **English Structure: Revision of Noun and Pronoun**
- **Narrative Essay**
- **Monophthongs**

A. English Language: Revision of Nouns and Pronouns

Noun

A Noun is a name of a person, animal, place or things.

There are four kinds of nouns:

1. Common Nouns
2. Proper Nouns
3. Concrete Nouns
4. Abstract Nouns

a. Common Nouns

A **common noun** names a class of similar things (chair, box), and not an individual member of a specified group of people or things. We do not capitalize the first letter of a common noun unless it is the first word in a sentence.

Common nouns are names of people, things, animals and places, etc.

Examples:

- **People** – aunt, boy, butcher, carpenter, cousin
- **Things** – bicycle, book, car, computer, dress
- **Animals** – armadillo, baboon, bee, caterpillar
- **Places** – airport, beach, bullring, cemetery

b. Proper Nouns

A **proper noun** is a special name of a person, place, organization, etc. We spell a proper noun with a capital letter. Proper nouns also refer to times or to dates in the calendar.

We can use plurals for proper nouns in exceptional cases.

- There are **three Johns** in my class.

We can also use **the, an, or a** for a proper noun in special circumstances.

- This is no longer the London I used to live in.

Proper nouns are names of people, places, organization, etc.

Examples:

- **People** – Joke Thompson, Barack Obama
- **Places** – Jump Street, Museum of Modern Art
- **Things** – Financial Times, Eiffel Tower
- **Organization** – International Labour Organization, Red Cross
- **Animals** – King Kong, Lassie
- **Times and dates** – Sunday, April

b. Proper Nouns

One of the problem with proper nouns is to know whether or not you should use **the** (definite article) with them. Here are some guidelines:

Without THE –

- Names of people (with or without title) – Paul, Chief Mrs Busola, Dr Sunday, Bobola
- geographical features such as continents, countries, states, regions, cities, islands, mountains, lakes – Nigeria, Oregun, Everest, London
- Days of the week, months, festivals – Thursday, Easter, April
- Schools, colleges, universities – Government college Ketu, University of Abuja

With THE –

- Groups of mountains or islands – the Himalayas
- Seas and Oceans – the Atlantic Ocean

- Descriptive titles – a) one in which only common nouns are used – the School of Agriculture. b) one that has a common noun preceding the particular name the University of Lagos

c. Nouns: Concrete Noun

A **concrete noun** is something we see or touch. It is the opposite of an abstract noun. There are **countable concrete nouns** and **uncountable concrete nouns**

Countable and Uncountable

1. Common nouns are either Countable or Uncountable. Can you remember the rules for using each type? (Countable, but not uncountable nouns, (i) can be used in the plural as well as the singular, (ii) can be preceded by the indefinite article a(n). In the following list of common nouns, which ones are examples of which type?

road, wood, village, question, cupboard, electricity, newspaper, fuel, windscreen, box, blame, information, appointment.

2. Uncountable nouns often name a substance or abstract quality which cannot easily be separated into different parts. If we want to speak of a part of it, we need to use a Unit word (which is itself countable), followed by of, followed by the uncountable noun. For example: a cup of water, ten litres of kerosene, a bit of luck, a flash of lightning. Note that cigarette is countable, not uncountable, so it is wrong to say He was smoking a stick of cigarette; just say He was smoking a cigarette.

Assessment 1

Certain nouns are sometimes countable, sometimes uncountable; and there is some difference in meaning. For example, man when uncountable means human beings in general; when countable it means the male of the human species. Give a list of countable and uncountable nouns you know.

d. Abstract Nouns

An **abstract noun** is a quality or something that we can only think of rather than as something that we can see or touch, e.g. beauty, courage, friendship, intelligence, truth. We can form abstract nouns from common nouns (child – childhood); from verbs (know – knowledge); and from adjectives (happy – happiness).

Collective Nouns

Collective Nouns are words to represent a group of people, animals, or things. A **collective noun** is a name used for a number of people, animals or things that we group together and speak of as a whole

Common collective nouns

- An army of ants
- A flock of birds
- A flock of sheep
- A herd of deer
- A gang of thieves
- A pack of thieves
- A panel of experts

Collective nouns are nouns that in the singular refer to a collection of items: e.g. furniture, cutlery, equipment, alphabet, vocabulary e.t.c The first three of these should never be used in the plural.

The last two can be used in plural only if we are considering different languages. Use one of these words to fill the gaps below

1. They have filled their new house with some very nice ____
2. English and arabic are languages that use different ____
3. We can not eat our food because we have no ____
4. Our company's biggest problem is out of date ____
5. The English ____contains 26 letters

A collective noun can take a singular or a plural verb.

The following nouns can be singular or plural. Viewed as a single unit, the noun takes a singular verb; regarded as a group of separate members or parts, it becomes a plural noun used with a plural verb.

Examples:

- The new **government has** helped my community.
- The **Government are** determined to keep inflation in check.

A collective noun treated as singular uses a singular possessive pronoun; a plural collective noun takes a plural possessive pronoun.

Examples:

- Our **team** has won **its** first trophy. (The singular possessive pronoun is **its**. The singular possessive pronoun **its** agrees with the singular collective noun **team**.)
- Our **team** are deciding on the strategy for **their** next game. (Plural possessive pronoun: **their**)

Pronoun

A pronoun is a word we use to take the place of a noun, which can be a person, place or thing. We use it (pronoun) to avoid repeating a noun that had already been mentioned. A word (one of the traditional parts of speech) that takes the place of a noun, noun phrase, or noun clause. A pronoun can function as a subject, object, or complement in a sentence. Unlike nouns, pronouns rarely allow modification.

We can write or say, "Bobs has a bicycle. Bobs rides his bicycle every day." But there's a better way of putting it using pronouns: Bobs has a bicycle. **He** rides **it** every day. The words **he** and **it** are pronouns used to replace the nouns **Bobs** and **bicycle**.

Examples of pronoun are **I, you, he, she, it, we, they, anyone, everyone, himself, myself, nobody, yourself, who**.

Other examples include **this, that, all, any, each, none, some, that, what, which**, etc. These pronouns can also be determiners, so how can we tell whether they are pronouns or determiners. It all depends on how they are used. As pronouns, they are used independently, that is without a noun following them.

- **This** is a green apple. (**This** is a pronoun as it occurs independently.)
- **This** apple is green. (**This** comes after the noun **apple**, so it is not a pronoun.)

Here, **this** is a determiner. A determiner modifies a noun, which a pronoun does not do.

- **Some** of the goats were rather skinny. (Pronoun)
- **Some** goats were rather skinny. (Determiner).

Types of Pronouns

1. Personal Pronouns
2. Relative Pronouns
3. Possessive Pronouns
4. Demonstrative Pronouns
5. Indefinite Pronouns

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns take the place of nouns that refer to people, but not all personal pronouns refer to people. The third person pronoun **it** refers to animals and things.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Subject pronouns		Possessive pronouns	
		Determiner	
I	we	my	our
you	you	your	your
he	they	his	their
she	they	her	their
it	they	its	their
Object pronouns		Possessive pronouns	
me	us	mine	ours
you	you	yours	yours
him	them	his	theirs
her	them	hers	theirs
it	them		

Personal pronouns have number, person, and gender. The **Personal Pronoun** must be of the same **number**, **gender**, and **person** as the noun for which it represents.

Number:

The pronoun must agree with the noun it represents in number.

- **Singular:** The **boy** is playing with his ball. **He** has a blue ball.
- **Plural:** The **boys** are playing with their balls. **They** have balls of different sizes.

Person:

- **First person:** I hate eating rice.
- **Second person:** **You** should not have done it.
- **Third person:** **It** is a rare species of fish.

Gender:

The pronoun must agree with the noun it represents in gender.

- **Masculine:** Jill has a **boyfriend**. **He** comes across as a bit of a bore to her.
- **Feminine:** Jeff's **sister** loves to eat pizza. **She** eats it almost every day.
- **Neuter:** We have an old kitchen **table**. **It** has a broken leg.

Relative Pronouns

A **relative pronoun** comes at the beginning of a relative clause. A relative clause is a subordinate clause that tells us more about the noun in the main clause. The relative clause comes immediately after the noun. Relative pronouns are **that, which, who, whom, whose, whatever, whichever, whoever, whomever**, etc. **That** and **which** refer to animals and things. **That** may also refer to people. We use the relative pronouns **who** and **whom** for people, and **whose** for people and things.

- I know the dog that **ate my bone**.

In the above sentence, the relative pronoun is **that** and it introduces the relative clause (in bold). 'I know the dog' is the main clause. The relative clause **that ate my bone** tells us something about the noun **dog**.

Possessive Pronouns

The **possessive pronouns** are the possessive forms of personal pronouns. We use the personal pronouns in the possessive case to express possession. A possessive pronoun is able to stand on its own as subject, object, etc. A pronoun that can take the place of a noun phrase to show ownership (as in "This phone is *mine*").

Possessive pronouns	
Singular	Plural
mine	ours
yours	yours
his	theirs
hers	theirs

Possessive pronouns examples:

- This puppy is **mine**. That kitten is **yours**.
- I think the puppy that wandered into our house is **theirs**.
- Your bicycle is much bigger than **ours**.

The *weak* possessives (also called possessive determiners) function as adjectives in front of nouns. The weak possessives are *my, your, his, her, its, our, and their*.

In contrast, the *strong* (or *absolute*) possessive pronouns stand on their own: *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, and theirs*. A possessive pronoun never takes an apostrophe.

Examples: We were both work-study kids with University jobs. *Hers* was in the library; *mine* was in the cafeteria, *Mine* is a long and sad tale.

B. Composition: Narrative Essay

What is a Narrative?

A narrative or a narrative essay can be defined as an account of an individual experience. This explains a personal experience that had a significant impact on the individual's life. It can be of a journey, a special day such as the first day in school, one's marriage, an unforgettable day, etc. This highlights that through a narrative the individual can express and share something special with the reader. A narrative entails a sequence of events that are often related in chronological order. A narrative can be presented in the first person narration that uses words such as I, myself, me, etc. However, a narrative can be in the third person as well when relating stories. This will have various characters and a specific plot surrounding that story will be built. A narrative allows the reader to comprehend the point of view, attitudes, perspectives and construction of reality of the narrator. It allows the reader not only to be a part of the experience but also understand the personality of the narrator. In Social Sciences, narratives are usually used as empirical evidence for research purposes as they allow the researcher to understand the subjective experiences of people and also their interpretations of events.

Assessment on Narrative Essay – Topic: My Experience in my Former School

Outline

- Start by introducing the topic; tell us you felt about your former school
- The body of the message; tell us about your experience in paragraphs(not more than four)

- The conclusion or the conclusive paragraph; now you can summarize your introduction, tell us your feeling about the experience so far

C. 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.

Assessment

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.

English Language JSS3 Third Term

Week 3

Contents:

- Review of Verbs and Adverbs
- Argumentative Essay
- Diphthongs
- Figure of Speech

A. Review of Adverbs and Verbs

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. In other words, adverbs tell us in what way someone does something. Adverbs can modify verbs (here: drive), adjectives or other adverbs.

POSITIONS OF ADVERB

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*.

Verbs

A **verb** is a word or more than one word that is used to express an action or a state of being. A verb is an action or a doing word. Every sentence must have a verb. This makes the verb the most important word as far as the construction of a sentence is concerned. In a sentence, a verb connects the subject to the object. There are two different objects: **direct object** and **indirect object**.

A verb can be just a word.

- She **bought** a cake.
- They **ate** some food.

A verb can be more than one word.

- He **is running** a race.
- You **have broken** my glass.

A verb connects the subject to the object.

- Lola **rides** a bicycle. (**Subject**: Lola / **Object**: bicycle)
- Someone **has eaten** my chicken. (**Subject**: someone / **Object**: chicken)

A verb may not have an object.

- The sun **shines**.
- It **is raining**.

Types of Verbs

- Transitive and Intransitive
- Linking Verbs
- Regular and Irregular verbs

A verb that has a direct object to complete the sentence is a **transitive verb**. A verb that does not need an object to make its meaning clear is an **intransitive verb**.

The transitive verb

A transitive verb must have an object. Without an object, it does not convey a clear meaning.

- **Example**: He drove.

The question inevitably arises: What did he drive? No one in the world knows the answer to this question as there is no direct object to tell us what he drove. The meaning becomes clear when an object is added: He drove a **car**. Now everyone of us knows what he drove.

- The **subject** (**he**) performs the action: **drove**. The **object** of the action verb **drove** is **car**.

A transitive verb may take an **indirect object**. An indirect object is something or someone **to whom** or **for whom** the action is carried out.

- He bought **her** a cake. = He bought a cake **for her**.
- She is reading **grandpa** the newspaper. = She is reading the news **to grandpa**.

In the first sentence, the indirect object is **her** as it is **for her** that the cake was bought. In the second sentence, the indirect object is **grandpa** as it is **to him** that the news was read. The indirect object usually comes before the direct object as shown in above two sentences.

The intransitive verb

An intransitive verb does not have an object. Without an object, the meaning is not affected.

- **Example:** Babies **cry**. / The dog **is barking**. / Tolani **is coming**

All the verbs (cry, is barking, is coming) are intransitive as they do not need an object to make the meaning clear.

- **Example:** The villagers caught a bat yesterday, but it escaped this morning.

The verb **caught** is **transitive** as it has the **direct object bat**. The other verb **escaped** is **intransitive** since it is not followed by an object.

B. Argumentative Essay

A) Introduction to the Meaning of Argumentative Essay:

Argumentative essay writing requires a writer to establish a position on a given topic, using evidence to persuade the reader to see things from the point of view [perspective] of the writer. In order to write a good argumentative essay, it is important for the writer to first of all investigate the several aspects to any given topic. Doing this allows sides the writer to have a broader perspective of the topic and as such, arrive at an educated stance. Please note that investigating the topic is a process that involves collecting evidence, facts, statistics and expert opinions on the topic which will enable you write a great piece.

The General Approach to Writing Argumentative Essays

Two things need to be planned out:

- a. The arguments– for and against. We call these the pros and the cons
- b. The relevant facts

The skill comes in developing your arguments, and in supporting them in a logical way by the facts.

The Method

1. Make sure that you have read and understood the question. In particular, check whether you are required to develop only one side of the case, or whether you are required to consider both the pros and the cons. Usually, you will be asked to argue for or against a point of view.
2. Jot down in note form all the relevant arguments you can think of.
3. Decide which arguments seem stronger, and try to form your own opinion
4. Plan your essay. Rearrange the arguments under the headings For and Against (or Pro and Con), and jot down next to each one any relevant facts that you can think of. In your plan consider, and then demolish the arguments you disagree with first. Here is an example;

a) Introduction

b) Pros (arguments for X)

c) Cons (arguments against X; it may be that you are mentioning them in order to attack them!)

d) Conclusion

How to Write an Argumentative Essay

1. To write an argumentative essay, the writer should first of all choose a topic that gives them a platform to argue.
2. The writer then gathers information about the topic.
3. In writing, the writer provides a clear thesis statement in the first paragraph.
4. The writer then writes the essay using logical and clear transitions between the paragraphs.

C. Diphthongs

Speech Work: Diphthong Contrasting / əʊ/ and /ʊə/

/ əʊ/ sound

This is another diphthong. A long sound made up of two shorter ones. The sound begins with /ə/ in the middle of the mouth, and then moves to /ʊ/. The lip becomes very slightly rounded. The sound is spelt in different ways.

· So

- Go
- Tone
- Phone
- Moan
- Goat
- Toe
- Hoe
- Know
- Grow

/ʊə/ sound

This diphthong is the last diphthong in English. To say /ʊə/ you have to first say /ʊ/ then change it to /ə/. Say the following words.

- Poor
- Pure
- Tour
- Fury
- Endure
- Europe
- Fuel

Contrasting /əʊ/ and /ʊə/

- So sore
- To tour
- Foe fury
- Row roar

D. Figures of Speech

A figure of speech or figurative language is a literary device used to gain a particular effect. It is the use of a word or an expression beyond its ordinary or literal meaning.

There are over two hundred kind of figure of speech but the one mostly used will be discuss. They are simile, metaphor, personification, hyperbole, paradox, irony.

A figure of speech is used in prose and drama. Whenever an expression or word used to give a special effect and it is known as poetic devices in poetry. Collectively, most of the figures of speech are categorized into six groups

Category of figure of speech

- Comparison or association
- Contrast
- Exaggeration
- Under statement
- Word manipulation
- Sounds

Figures of comparison or association

Under this category, the following are simile, metaphor, personification, allusion, allegory

- **Simile:** This is a short comparison that directly or explicitly compares one thing and another by using the word “as” or “like” Simile involves figure of speech involving the comparison of one thing with another thing of a different kind, used to make a description more.

Examples: He is as short as a dwarf

Curses are like chicken

- **Metaphor:** A metaphor is a compressed comparison actually substituting one thing for another. It lets the reader makes the necessary translation from the figurative to the literal. Where a simile draws a comparison between two ideas , a metaphor goes a step further and substitutes then second idea for the first, that is why it is called compressed. Example: He is a lion on the field, she is a sheep
- **Personification:** Personification can be defined as the transfer of human traits to animate object. Personification is a figure of speech where human qualities are given to animals, objects or ideas. In the arts, personification means representing a non-human thing as if it were human.

Examples: Let the floor claps their hand,

Confusion heard his voice

- **Allegory:** This is a narrative which has a secondary and deeper meaning which may be religious, political or normal. It is used to draw a parallel between one story that is told on the surface and the deeper meaning intended. Allegory is generally designed to teach some abstract truth.

Examples: John Bunyan's pilgrim progress is a religious allegory.

- **Synecdoche:** a figure of speech in which a part is made to represent the whole or vice versa, It is the use of a part to represent a whole or a whole can be used to represent a part

Example: I want all heads on dock

She controls all the heads in the village

Thousands of eyes gaze on on him at the occasion

Assessment

1. What is an adverb?
2. What are the functions of an adverb?
3. An adverb that modifies an adjective or another adverb should appear immediately in front of the word it modifies; true or false?
4. List and explain the different types of adverb that you know.

English Language JSS3 Third Term

Week 4

Contents:

- Review of Adjectives and Prepositions
- Features of Letters

A. Grammar: Prepositions and Adjectives

Preposition

A *preposition* is a word which precedes a noun (or a pronoun) to show the noun's (or the pronoun's) relationship to another word in the sentence. (The word *preposition* comes from the idea of being *positioned before*. It is not true to say that a preposition always precedes a noun or a pronoun, but it does most of the time.) 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).

The following are all prepositions:

above, about, across, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, since, to, toward, through, under, until, up, upon, with and within.

Role of a Preposition

Prepositions are important when constructing sentences. A preposition sits before a noun to show the noun's relationship to another word in the sentence.

Examples:

- It is a container for butter.

(The preposition *for* shows the relationship between *butter* and *container*.)

- The eagle soared above the clouds.

(The preposition *above* shows the relationship between *clouds* and *soared*.)

Pitfalls with Prepositions

For native English speakers, grammatical errors involving prepositions are rare. The most common errors involving prepositions are shown on the right. That said, there are several points to be aware of:

A preposition always goes with a noun or pronoun which is called the *object of the preposition*. The *preposition* is almost always before the noun or pronoun and that is why it is called a preposition. The *preposition* and the *object of the preposition* together are called a *prepositional phrase*. The following chart shows the *prepositions*, *objects of the preposition*, and *prepositional phrases* of the sentences above.

Preposition	Object of the Preposition	Prepositional Phrase
to	the store	to the store
by	bus	by bus
at	three o'clock	at three o'clock
under	the table	under the table

Prepositional phrases are like idioms and are best learned through listening to and reading as much as possible. Below are some common *prepositions of time* and *place* and examples of their use.

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.

Prepositions of Time:

at two o'clock

on Wednesday

in an hour, in January; in 1992

for a day

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

Examples:

- She swears never to talk to me again **from** tomorrow.
- His girlfriend has been missing **since** last Saturday

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

- I had a big argument with my best friend **at** lunchtime.

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

- I usually brush my teeth **after** dinner

Prepositions of Place:

at my house

in New York, in my hand

on the table

near the library

across the street

under the bed

between the books

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

Example:

- There was a fly **on** his nose
- The boy went **outside** to play

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

Example:

- I sat **beside** a dirty man in the bus
- Someone parked a car **in front** of my house

Preposition of Direction:

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

Example:

- A fly got **into** his soup while he was eating it.
- He went **to** the cinema

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

Example:

- He warned them to keep **away from** his meat
- He fell **off** the table

Compound Preposition:

Two-word compound prepositions (according to, aside from, because of, next to, etc).

- **According to** his brother, he likes noodles.
- Her face was perfect **aside from** that one hairy mole

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

- The explosion could be heard **as far as** the police station, which is five kilometers away
- He can't sing any more **on account of** his failing health

Adjectives

An adjective is a word that is used to describe and modify a noun. It tells us more about the noun. We can identify adjectives in words by knowing their features i.e. the descriptive feature of an adjective to a noun and also the modification.

Types of Adjectives

There are different types of adjectives in English. These are:

Adjectives of Quality: These adjectives are used to describe the nature of a noun. They give an idea about the characteristics of the noun by answering the question 'what kind'.

Examples: A **beautiful** day, A **good** girl.

Adjectives of Quantity: These adjectives help to show the amount or the approximate amount of the noun or pronoun. These adjectives do not provide exact numbers; rather they tell us the amount of the noun in relative or whole terms. e.g. All, Half, Many, Few, Little, No, Enough, Great

Examples: There are **few** books on the shelf

Many people came to the fair

Adjectives of Number: These adjectives are used to show the number of nouns and their place in an order. There are three different sections within adjectives of number; they are –
Definite Numeral Adjective – Those which clearly denote an exact number of nouns or the order of the noun.

One, Two, Twenty, Thirty-Three etc. also known as Cardinals.

First, Second, Third, Seventh etc. also known as Ordinals.

Indefinite Numeral Adjective – Those adjectives that do not give an exact numerical amount but just give a general idea of the amount.

Some, Many, Few, Any, Several, All etc.

E.g.: There were **many** people present at the meeting.

Distributive Numeral Adjective – Those adjectives that are used to refer to individual nouns within the whole amount.

Either, Neither, Each, Another, Other etc.

Taxes have to be paid by **every** employed citizen.

Adjective of Size: These adjectives tell you about the size of the noun, they can be used for an object as well as living things.

Examples: A **big** rat, A **short** ladder

Adjective of Age: These are Adjectives that tell about the age of a noun either by itself or in relation to another noun.

e.g. Young, Old, Teenage, Mature

Examples: A **young** man, An **old** car

Adjective of Temperature: A **warm** evening, A **hot** bath

Adjective of Shape: These adjectives tell about the shape or appearance of the noun.

e.g. Circular, Crooked, Triangular

Examples: A **square** table, A **round** box

Adjective of Colour: These are the adjectives that tell about the shade and hue of a noun.

e.g. Pastel, Red, Blue, Metallic, Colourless

Examples: A **red** shirt, A **colourless** liquid

Adjective of Origin: These are adjectives that tell the geographical location of a noun.

Examples: A **french** car, A **chinese** watch

Descriptive Adjectives

The most common type of adjective is the descriptive adjective. These are simply words that help to describe nouns. They can be colours, sizes, or other describing words.

Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives are like possessive pronouns, but act as adjectives. They are: my, your, its, our, and their. They demonstrate a relationship of ownership. In the examples below, the possessive adjectives are in red. The nouns they modify are in blue. Remember: it's an adjective if it comes with the noun; it's a pronoun if it replaces the noun.

It is **my** ball.

Demonstrative Adjectives

Demonstrative Adjectives are identical to demonstrative pronouns, but are used for a different purpose. The demonstrative adjectives are: this, that, those, and what. In the following sentences the demonstrative adjectives are in red and the nouns they modify are in blue.

Take **this** job and shove it..

Interrogative Adjectives

Another type of adjective is the interrogative adjective. Interrogative adjectives include the words which and what. In the following sentences the interrogative adjectives are in red and the nouns they modify are in blue.

Which company do you want to invest in?

Indefinite Adjectives

It's an adjective that's not definite. Too vague? How about a word like "some" or "many." Getting clearer?

1. Some people wanted to buy stocks.
2. Many people wanted to buy bonds.
3. A few people wanted to buy gold.

4. Why indefinite? Because it's not exactly clear how many or who.

B. Features of Letters

Letter Writing: When writing a **semi-formal letter**, you must observe certain steps. Take note of the following points in Mary's letter–

1. The address and date: Notice the position and layout of the address. Here are some examples of the way dates should be written:

1st February, 2007 2nd May, 2006 3rd July, 2009

2. The salutation: We usually start letters with Dear....

Note that in more affectionate forms: My dear Lizzy, the word dear does not start with capital letter (Compare Dear Elizabeth)

3. The body of the letter: The letter is laid out in well-organised paragraphs. There is an indentation at the beginning of each paragraph. Remember, marks are awarded for sensible paragraphing.

4. The style of the letter: The language of the letter is semi-formal: it is very like ordinary speech, but a little more grammatical. The semi-formal features of the letter include the following. Can you find some examples in the letter?

- Informal expressions like *don't panic, etc*
- Contracted forms like *I'm* and *here's*.
- The use of dashes and Exclamation marks.

5. Ending the letter: The last paragraph of a letter should 'round it off' in a suitable way, and send greetings. The usual way of signing off is with the phrase *Yours sincerely* and your signature.

6. The signature: With semi-formal letter and informal letter, you just write your given name. You do not print your full name under the signature in semi-formal or informal letters – they know who you are!

Mary's Letter

P.O. Box 147,
Enugu.

23rd June, 20__

Dear Elizabeth,

1 I do hope that you and the family are all well. Is your baby brother walking yet? Thanks a lot for the super photograph!

I've just heard that you are sitting for an important exam next month. I thought you may like some advice, so here goes!

5 My first point is this: I'm sure you will do well, provided you keep a cool head. So don't panic either before or during the exam.

Secondly, get plenty of exam practice – work through several of the old tests in your own time, if you can get hold of copies. Then, as the exam gets nearer, time yourself on a few tests. Get used to working under the pressure of time.

10 Next, make sure you have the right instruments. In some exams you have to use a pencil only, while in others pens are allowed. Make sure you have a pen you are used to – otherwise it will slow you down!

I'm sure you've been told how important it is to read and understand the instructions at the beginning of an exam; yet it's really amazing the number of
15 people who don't do this! For example, you may be told to write a single letter for your answer – like A for instance. You'd be surprised how many people waste time writing out the answer in full! Another thing, you sometimes get compulsory questions. Some candidates don't answer these, and then wonder why they fail! I'd advise you to do these first, before you forget them, keeping one eye on the clock.

20 This brings me back to timing. It's astonishing how many people just seem to forget this. A watch is almost as important as a pen in an exam, so if you haven't got one, borrow one. Put it on the desk in front of you. Make a note of what time you start and ration your time in advance. If you have to answer two questions in an hour, spend about 5 minutes planning your first answer, and then do it. After
25 about 25 minutes, bring your first answer to a close and get on with the next one. Of course, do try to leave 5 minutes at the end to check for any careless errors.

Here's just a few points before I close. I've noticed that people who write clearly usually do well in exams, so do write legibly and neatly. But don't be scared of crossing things out and rewriting them if you need to. By the way, if
30 there are lots of short questions and you find some of them too tricky, don't waste time on them. Skip them and leave a space so you can go back to them later if there's time.

Well, I really must stop now, as I have to prepare for my own exams! Good luck, and do write if there's anything else you want to know. Please give my greetings to
35 the family. See you in the holidays!

Yours sincerely,

Mary

Informal Letter

Note these points about Tokunbo's Letter

1. The address and date: Notice the position and layout of the address. Here are some examples of the way dates should be written:

1st February, 2009 2nd March, 2006 3rd April, 2012

2. The salutation: We usually start letters with Dear.... and this begins with a capital letter.

Use first name when writing an informal letter.

Note that in more affectionate forms: My dear Lizzy, the word dear does not start with capital letter (Compare Dear Elizabeth)

3. The body of the letter: The letter is laid out in well-organised paragraphs. Each one has a topic. Marks are awarded for sensible paragraphing; In this letter, there are five paragraphs. There is an indentation at the beginning of each paragraph. Decide which paragraph has the following topics:

- Offer of help
- Expressing sympathy
- What the writer knows
- Communications
- Concluding attempts to cheer Harriet up

4. The style of the letter: The language of the letter is informal: it is very like ordinary speech, but a little more grammatical. The informal features of the letter include the following. Can you find another example in the letter?

- Informal expressions like *drop it in*, (paragraph 3)
- Contracted forms like *I'm* (paragraph 3)

5. Ending the letter: The last paragraph of a letter tries to 'round it off' in a suitable way, – in this case, Tokunbo tries to cheer Harriet up. A common feature of such letters is the one-liner at the end, which adds a personal touch. Other possible one-liners in this context could have been:

God bless! Please don't get too depressed

Much love!

Look after yourself, etc.

With informal letters (and even some formal letters when the writer is known to you) it is always safe to end *Yours sincerely* (on a separate line – capital Y small s).

Depending on your relationship, other possibilities include: *Yours ever* and *Much Love*.

6. The signature: With informal letter, you just write your given name. You do not print your full name under the signature in informal letter– they know who you are without that!

Tokunbo's Letter

Queen's College,
P.O. Box 14,
Enugu,
Enugu State.

20th January 2005

Dear Harriet,

I was so sorry to hear about your accident. I only heard about it yesterday, and was shocked to hear that you have already been in hospital for two weeks. It must have been awful for you.

I am still not clear what happened - I gather you were traveling in a long-distance taxi? Those things are death-traps! Gladys told me that you've broken your leg, and she said she thought that there were some complications and you were going to be in hospital for some time.

I shall visit you as soon as I can, but you know it is difficult for me to get away at the moment. I may not be able to come over until next week, but I'm giving this letter to Comfort - she said her Auntie passes the hospital every Friday, and said she would drop it in.

Please let me know if there is anything I can do, or bring for you when I come. I know you will be worried about your school work, so if you like, I could copy all my notes, and bring them in, so you won't fall too far behind.

But the main thing is to get well soon! Please don't get too depressed. My Grandma used to say that the five most important words in the language are 'It could have been worse!'. I find that quite comforting, don't you?

Take care. See you soon.

Yours sincerely,

Tokunbo

Informal Letter

Informal Introductions

Sometimes we wear smart clothes, and sometimes we wear casual clothes.

When would you wear

- very smart clothes? (formal clothes)
- casual clothes? (informal clothes)

It is the same thing with language. We use different words on different occasions.

In threes, read the dialogue below. Betty and Amy are friends. Decide

- who is talking to whom
- on what sort of an occasion they are talking

Dialogue 1: Hi Amy! Have you met Philly? She's the cleverest student in the class. But don't ask her how she does it!

Dialogue 2: Hi, Philly. Nice to meet you!

Dialogue 3: Nice to meet you, Amy. I've heard a lot of about you

Dialogue 4: Don't believe a word of it!

When we introduce people to each other, we have two main jobs:

1. To convey important information about the people to each other.
2. To put everyone at their ease.

This means that we should mention both names clearly. In addition, it is helpful to include an interesting or important fact about each person. This helps them to build a conversation with each other.

For example:

- She/He is one of my oldest friends.
- He was the goalkeeper in yesterday's match.
- I believe you met her cousin in Enugu last month

Useful Expressions:

I'd like you to meet ... He's from....

Have you met my friend...? She's ...

I'd like to introduce..., who is....

Have you two met? Fela, meet Eze. Eze, this is fela.

Summary of Informal and Semi-formal Letters

Informal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the circumstances and relationship, Dear (first name/nickname) is appropriate

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate: use colloquial language, abbreviations, jokes etc

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name or nickname. Variations are possible for very close relationships e.g. *Your friend*, *Your sister*, *Lots of love*, etc.

Semi Formal Letter

1. Your address

Top right hand corner, properly punctuated with full stops and commas

2. Addressee

Do NOT include the name, position and address of the addressee

3. Date

Below your address, you may follow either style as of formal letters

4. Salutation

Depending on the relationship, any of the following might be appropriate: Dear Mr/Dr/Mrs (name), Dear (first name)

5. Subject of the letter

Omit

6. Body of the letter

Paragraphs should be indented. The style should be appropriate for semi-formal letters.

7. Complimentary Close

This goes at the bottom of the letter. *Yours sincerely* is always acceptable, followed by your name.

Assessment

Identify and name the types of Adjective in the following sentences

1. How much rise do you want to buy?
2. Those girls are wayward
3. Tolu has five red balls
4. I gave Chika my lunch
5. The fat man couldn't walk through the tiny door
6. The English man paid 5 pennies for a cup of black coffee
7. The heavy blue round box was placed on the light table
8. The big fat black man ran as fast as his strong legs could carry him at the sound of gun fire
9. The faithful dog brought back his master's brown book

Answers

1. How – Interrogative Adj
2. Those – Demonstrative Adj
3. Five, Red – Descriptive Adj
4. My – Possessive Adj
5. Fat, Tiny – Adj of size
6. English –Adj of origin, 5 – Adjective of number, black – Adj of colour
7. Heavy – Adj of size, blue – Adj of colour, round – Adj of shape
8. Big – Adj of size, Fat – Adj of size, Black – Adj of colour, strong – Adj of Quality
9. Faithful – Adj of Quality, Brown – Adj of colour.

