ENGLISH LANGUAGE

JS 1

**Instruction: These notes (week 1 to 11) must be printed and then copied into your 'ENGLISH LANGUAGE NOTEBOOK' from week 1 to week 4 before resumption.**

**SECOND TERM SCHEME OF WORK 2024/2025 ACADEMIC SESSION**

**WEEK1:** Comprehension: What is bullying? NCE BK.1, Pg. 56-57

**Articles:** Types

**WEEK 2:** Sound Contrast: /a:/ and /æ/,/ ɔː / and /ɒ / or / ɔ /

**Grammar:** Verbs

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**WEEK 5: Comprehension:** Immunisation NCE Bk. pg. 69-71

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**WEEK 6: Grammar:** Comparison of Adjectives

 **Continuous Writing:** Formal letter, NCE Bk. 1,pg. 101

**WEEK 7: Sound Contrast:** /k/ and /g/ sounds NCE Bk. 1, pg. 66-67

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**WEEK 9: Grammar:** Adverbs: Types,Comparison of Adverbs

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**WEEK 1**

**ARTICLES**

Articles are words that are used with nouns to show whether the noun is a particular one or not. There are three articles in English. They are: ‘a’, ‘an’ and ‘the’
 **THE INDEFINITE ARTICLES**
 **A** and **AN** are indefinite articles because they indicate that the nouns they are used with is not a particular one. They are also used when we refer to a thing for the first time or when we do not mean a specific thing. Examples:
‘**A** book’ refers to any book.
‘**An** orange’ refers to any orange.

1. **A** is used with words beginning with consonant sounds such as **a** street, **a** diary, **a** calculator, **a** sweet orange, a loyal employee, etc.
2. **A** is also used with words like uniform, European, university, union, eucalyptus, etc because they begin with the consonant sound ‘j’ as in ‘*yes’*
3. **An** is used with words beginning with vowel sounds such as **an** answer, **an** egg, **an** island, **an** owl, an umbrella, an angry face, an unhappy sign, an open secret, an English man, etc.
4. **An** is also used with words like hour, honest, heir, because they begin with vowel sounds. ‘Hour’ begins with ‘a’ sound, ‘honest’ and ‘honour’ begin with ‘ɔ’ sound whereas ‘heir’ begins with ‘e’ sound.

**THE DEFINITE ARTICLE
 The** is called the ‘definite’ article because it is used to refer to a specific person or thing.
Examples: ‘**The** book over there’ refers to one specific book.
 ‘**The** orange tasted sour’ refers to a specific orange.
‘**The’** is also used:
1. before a singular noun representing a whole class. E.g. : **The** elephant is a huge animal. (It means all elephants are huge.)
2. before an adjective representing a whole class. E.g. : **The** young must be taught manners. (It means all the young must be taught manners)
3. before a noun which is the only one of its kind. E.g. **the** world, **the** sea, the stars, the Prime Minister, etc.
4. before names of certain seas, mountains, rivers, etc. E.g. : **the** South China Sea, **the** Niagara Falls, the Himalayan Mountains, the South China Sea, the Jurong Bird Park
5. before adjectives in the superlative form. E.g. : **the** easiest thing, the most beautiful girl, etc.
6. in such expressions as: **the** heat, **the** beginning, **the** truth, the top, etc
7. before these words: **the** first, **the** next
8. before names of the following countries: **The** Republic of Nigeria, **The** United States of America, The Phillipines, The Congo, etc.

9. before some names of books, newspaper; The Bible, The Qur’an, The Punch, The Daily Times, etc

**THE ZERO ARTICLE (without A, AN and THE)**

Articles are not used:

1. before common nouns used in the general sense. For example:
2. All living things need air.
3. Children are playful.
4. before names of materials used in the general sense. For example:
5. Glass is fragile.
6. Diamonds are valuable.
7. before certain proper nouns. For example:
8. Bangkok is the capital of Thailand.
9. Mr. Taiwo is flying to Chicago tomorrow.
10. Mount Faber is 115 metres high.
11. before abstract nouns used in the general sense. For example:
12. Silence means consent.
13. Unity is strength.
14. Charity begins at home.
15. before nouns in certain phrases. For example:
16. by day
17. reached home
18. went camping

**WEEEK 2**

**Vowel /a:/**

Vowel /a:/ is a long vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is, a single vowel sound. It can be spelt in different forms. Examples of words with /a:/ sound include: farm, dark, bark, park, carp, cart, star, march, pass, past, glass, heart, clerk, palm, balm, calm, psalm, half, laugh, aunt, answer, father, fast, vase, vast, etc.

**Vowel /æ/**

Vowel /æ/ is a short vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is, it is a single vowel sound. It can be spelt in different forms. Examples of words with /æ/sound include: man, back, pack, cap, cat, camp, bag, bad, pat, ram, bat, lack, catch, lad, fact, lag, fragment, sad, panel, battle, ant, etc.

**VOWEL / ɔː /**
 Vowel / ɔː / is a long vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is a single vowel sound. Examples include: saw, raw, law, jaw, caught, daughter, caution, paw, bought, sought, thought, court, war, water, broad, oar, roar, soar, boar, pork, cord, port, sport, born, borne, walk, ward, bald, all, halt, talk, coarse, course, ore, sore, whore, more, awe, wharf, short, sword, cord, naught, four, board, door, pawpaw, etc.

**VOWEL**  /ɒ / **/** ɔ **/**  Vowel / ɔ / is a short vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is a single vowel sound. Examples include: got, cot, lot, pot, cod, loss, spot, what, watch, cough, trough, because, laurel, qualify, quaff, sausage, yacht, knowledge, dog, cost, doll, document, shop, want, stop, drop, was, top, wash, cock, fox, not,totter, etc.

**VERBS**

The verb in English is the part of speech which gives information about what the noun or pronoun does, or what is happening to it. The verbs are used in relation to the time of action (tense) and how many participants are involved (number). In short, verbs are doing or action words. For example:

1. I eat bread once a week.
2. The house has been renovated.
3. A dog barked at me yesterday.

**TYPES OF VERBS**

1. **REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS**

The regular verbs are those forms of the verbs which form their past and past participle forms by the addition of letters ‘-ed’ or ‘d’ to the simple form. For example:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **PRESENT TENSE** | **PRESENT CONTINUOUS** | **PAST TENSE** | **PAST PARTICIPLE** |
| Arrive | arriving | arrived | arrived |
| Attack | attacking | attacked | attacked |
| Carry | carrying | carried | carried |
| Slap | slapping | slapped | slapped |

The irregular verbs on the other hand have different ways of forming their past and past participle. These verbs change their base forms. Therefore, they do not have a regular pattern for the formation of the past and past participle. In some cases, there may be replacement of vowels, consonants or a complete variation in the three forms. For example:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **INFINITIVE** | **SIMPLE PAST** | **PAST PARTICIPLE** |
| Arise | arose | arisen |
| Build | built | built |
| Burst | burst | burst |
| Broadcast | broadcast/broadcasted | broadcast/broadcasted |

1. **MAIN AND AUXILIARY VERBS**

Main (or lexical) verbs are those verbs that can stand alone as the verb element of the sentence. Auxiliary verbs are those that help the main verbs perform their functions. For example:

1. The baby slept soundly. (main verb)
2. She has done the work. (auxiliary verb)
3. She teaches everyday. (main verb)
4. He has taught me before.(auxiliary verb)
5. They can sing very well. (auxiliary verb)

**TYPES OF AUXILIARY VERBS**

Auxiliary verbs are two kinds

1. **Primary Auxiliary Verbs:** They are three in number; namely:
2. Be: ( is, was, were, am, are, been, being)
3. Do: (did, does, done)
4. Have: (has, had)
5. **Modal auxiliary verbs:** They are thirteen in number, namely: can, could, may, might, shall, should, will would, must, ought to, used to, need, dare. They cannot stand alone in sentences as the verb element unless used with the main verbs. Also, the auxiliaries can be used to express various things used for various purposes: permission, possibility, capacity, simple futurity, logical necessity, ability, pity, surprise, obligation, habitual practice in the past and so on.

Another auxiliary which functions as both primary (pure) and modal auxiliaries is ‘do’, it shares tense and number variation with the pure auxiliaries and behaves like a modal on the verb which follows it. Thus, after ‘do; the verb that follows remained unchanged (uninflected). For example:

I (a) I do visit him regularly. (informal)

 (b) I visit him regularly. (formal)

ll (a) He did buy the material with his own money. (Informal)

 (b) He bought the material with his own money. (Formal)

3. **TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS**

Transitive verbs are verbs that transfer the action of the subject to the object. They are therefore verbs that cannot do without an object. These groups of verbs are also referred to as action verbs. For example:

1. She won a prize.
2. Mr. Angulu gave us a test.
3. The police found the man dead.

Intransitive verbs are verbs that are used without an object. These verbs describe actions or states that stop with the subject and do not pass their actions to the objects. For example:

1. The man died.
2. She collapsed.
3. He narrowly escaped being lynched.
4. He smiles.
5. The bird flew away.
6. The car stopped suddenly.

**WEEK 3**

**NARRATIVE ESSAYS**

A narrative essay is an essay in which you tell the story or give an account of what has happened. The story could be a true one, or it could be one that you only made up yourself. Whichever way, it is important that the story you write should be true to life, that is, it should be one that is believable because it is possible in real life.

**CONTENT AND ORGANIZATION**

Think carefully about the topic, and plan what you will write. Various aspects or sides to the topic have to be developed in various paragraphs. At least you must have four points and theses points must be in four different paragraphs.

The concluding paragraph must tell us your impressions or feeling about the whole story written.

**EXPRESSION AND MECHANICAL ACCURACY**

When writing a narrative essay, only formal way of writing is allowed. You must use complete sentences and desist from using shortened forms or slang except when you are quoting from what people actually said in a conversation.

Make use of various kinds of sentences, but mostly simple present tense should be many. Use words whose meanings you understand very well and whose use you have mastered effectively.

The use of figurative expressions too is allowed, but use the ones you are familiar with.

To avoid any careless mistakes, you must revise the essay very carefully to correct errors in spelling, punctuation and the use of capital letters, tense forms, singular and plural noun forms, etc.

**NOTE:** When writing narrative essays, it is the past tense forms of verbs that are used. This is because narrative essays recount past events.

**WEEK 4**

**DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH**

**DIRECT SPEECH**

The direct speech is the actual words of a speaker either in spoken or written form and relayed by someone. The simplest way to repeat the exact words of a speaker is by using quotation marks (“...”). For example
 “I really enjoyed the meal,” he said.
 I said, “I don’t understand you.”
**INDIRECT SPEECH**
You can also report what someone has said without using quotation marks. This is called ‘indirect speech’. The usual way of doing this is to use a clause which begins with (that). For example:
 “I’m tired!” (direct)
 He said he was tired. OR He said that he was tired. (indirect)
**CHANGING FROM DIRECT TO INDIRECT SPEECH**
When changing from direct to indirect speech, you need to change the grammar in certain ways.

1. Omission of inverted commas and subordination of speaker’s words. For example:

‘This book is interesting,’ said my friend.

My friend said that, that book was interesting,

1. Present progressive changes to past progressive. For example:

“We are writing a test”, said the students.

The students said that they were writing a test.

1. Present simple changes to past simple. For example:

“I like your dress,” said my husband.

My husband said that he liked my dress.

**NOTE:** When ‘say’ and ‘ask’ is used in the direct speech, the tense does not change.

1. “The baby has already had its bath,” says the nanny. (Direct)

The nanny says that the baby has already had its bath.

1. “ Do you have some money on you?” asks Salami

Salami asks if I have some money on me.

1. Present perfect and past tenses change to past perfect. For example:
2. “I have completed my assignment,” said the boy.

The boy said that he had completed his assignment.(Present perfect)

1. “The bank robbers had left when the policemen came,” said the eye witness.

The eye witness said that the bank robbers had left when the policemen came.(Past perfect)

1. Future tense changes to conditional. For example:
2. “The students will go on excursion next week”, said the guidance counselor.
3. The guidance counselor said that the students would go on excursion the following week.
4. Questions which begin with ‘why’, ‘how’, ‘when’ and other wh-words.
5. Direct: Dike asked, “What is the correct answer?”
6. Indirect: Dike asked what the correct answer was.
7. Questions which do not begin with wh-words.
8. Direct: They said, ‘Do you want to go?’
9. Indirect: They asked whether /if I wanted to go.
10. Commands and requests:
11. Direct: Mr. Taiwo said, ‘Do your work quietly.’
12. Indirect: Mr. Taiwo told us to do our work quietly.
13. Direct: She said, “Sit down, please.”
14. Indirect: She invited us to sit down.
15. You also need to change certain personal pronouns. E.g.
Mary said to John, “I saw your cat.” (direct)
Mary said that she had seen John’s cat. (indirect)
16. If the direct speech contains will, shall, or may, these also need to change. E.g.
will →would shall → should may →might
a. She said, “I will see you soon.” (direct)
b. She said that she would see us soon. (indirect)
17. You also need to change times and places which depend on the speaker’s point of view. E.g.
He said, “I saw the car here yesterday.” (direct)
He said that he had seen the car there the day before. (indirect)
18. You use ‘if’ or ‘whether’ to introduce a ‘yes or no’ question.
a. I asked, “Does he eat meat?”
b. I asked whether he ate meat. OR I asked if he ate meat.
19. Some auxiliary verbs do not have past form and so they remain the same in the indirect forms while others use different verb forms.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Direct** | **Indirect** |
| ought to | ought to |
| must ( present) | had to |
| must (future) | would have to |
| must (obligation) | Must |
| need(n’t) | need (n’t) |

Examples:

1. “You ought to apologize to your housemistress,” said the counselor. (Direct)

 The counselor said that she/I ought to apologize to her/my housemistress. (Indirect)

1. “You need to improve on your pronunciation,” said the teacher.

 The teacher said we/I need to improve on our/my pronunciation.

1. “I must make good grades this term,” said Yemisi. (Present tense)

 Yemisi said that she had to make good grades that term.

1. “We must visit Uncle Joe next long vacation,” said father. (Future tense)

 Father told us that we would have to visit Uncle Joe next long vacation.

1. “Children, you must obey your parents,” said the pastor to the children.

 (obligation)

 The pastor told the children that they must obey their parents.

**NOTE:** ‘Said to’ changes to ‘told’ in the reported speech.

“Close the door”, the secretary **said to me.**

The secretary **told** me to close the door.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **DIRECT** | **INDIRECT** |
| I | he/she |
| You | I/we |
| We | they |
| My | his/her |
| You | my/your |
| Our | their |
| shall/will | would |
| May | might |
| Can | could |
| has/have | had |
| Now | then |
| This | these |
| These | those |
| Here | there |
| Ago | before |
| Today | that day |
| Tomorrow | the next day |
| Yesterday | the day before |
| last night | the night before |

**WEEK 5**

**ADJECTIVES**

Adjectives are words that give more information about the noun or pronoun they qualify. In other words, an adjective is used to describe nouns and pronouns. For examples: fat, old, tall, every, all, this, red, etc.

1. She bought me a striped shirt.
2. She is intelligent.
3. Benz is a rugged car.
4. Give me two loaves of bread.
5. Who owns that red car?
6. Call me that tall lady.

Some adjectives can be in form of suffixes. For example: fearful, hopeful, drinkable, smallish, etc.

Some verbs can be used as adjectives. For example: broken bottles, departed souls, baked cake, preferred idea, etc

**TYPES OF ADJECTIVES**

1. **Descriptive adjectives or Adjectives of quality** tell us about the kind or quality of a noun or pronoun. E. g. pretty, good, blue, bad, black, happy, old, etc.
2. Our school buildings are painted blue.
3. The box is heavy.
4. **Demonstrative adjectives** point out nouns and are followed by the nouns which they point out. E. g. ‘This’ and ‘That’ combine with singular nouns while ‘these’ and ‘those’ combine with plural nouns.
5. These books are falling to pieces.
6. This chair is for sale.
7. That cat killed a rat yesterday.
8. Those boys are very troublesome.
9. **Interrogative adjectives** ask questions about the nouns that follow them. E. g. Whose, What, Whose. For example:
10. Which door do you prefer?
11. What present are you giving out?
12. Whose shoes are those?
13. **Possessive adjectives** indicate ownership and are always followed by the name, thing or person that possessed them. For example: my, your, her, his, their, our, its
14. My black dog likes bones.
15. He has lost his beautiful pen.
16. The sheep has gone to its pen.
17. **Adjectives of number or quantity or numeral adjectives** come before a noun and show ‘how many’ or ‘how much’ of the noun.

E.g. Definite : one, eleven, fifty, both, double, second.

 Indefinite : all, any, few, many, much, several, some.

1. He met four ladies on the seventh floor.
2. I need several envelopes and some papers.
3. **Relative adjectives:** These are also which, what, that; but they are not used to ask questions as the interrogative adjectives. E.g.
4. The man whose son killed my dog has apologized.
5. His friend told him to see the doctor which advice he took.
6. **Indefinite adjective** is used when the speaker is not specific. E.g. few, some, several,

enough, all, such, etc.

1. Give me some water please.

**8. Distributive adjectives** are used to pick out members of a group of nouns. They include: each, any, all, every, neither, either, etc.

1. Every teacher wants his students to succeed
2. Either day will suit me.
3. Each student must bring his or her teller on resumption.

 **9. Emphasizing adjectives** are used to lay emphasis. E.g. very, own, real.

1. His own son poisoned him.

**WEEK 6**

**GRADING / COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES**

Adjectives in English language are graded to show the degree of the quality being expressed. Adjectives have three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative.

The adjectives that can be compared are grouped into two: the regular and irregular comparative.

**GRADING OF REGULAR ADJECTIVES**

1. Regular adjectives of one syllable form their comparative and superlative by adding ‘er’ and ‘est’ respectively.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Neat | neater | neatest |
| Fresh | fresher | freshest |
| Long | longer | longest |
| Smooth | smoother | smoothest |

1. Some regular adjectives of one syllable have their last letter doubled before adding ‘er’ and ‘est’

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Hot | hotter | Hottest |
| Big | biggest | Biggest |
| Thin | thinner | Thinnest |
| Cruel | crueler | Cruelest |

1. Adjectives that end with silent ‘e’ after ‘r’ have the ‘e’ dropped before adding ‘er’ or ‘est’

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Pure | purer | purest |
| Pure | surer | surest |

1. Adjectives of more than one syllable that end in ‘y’ is dropped and ‘ier’ and ‘iest’ are added respectively to form the comparative and superlative.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Lucky | luckier | luckiest |
| Pretty | prettier | prettiest |
| Clumsy | clumsier | clumsiest |
| Filthy | filthier | filthiest |

1. Some adjectives of two or more syllables add ‘more’ and ‘most’ to form the comparative and superlative.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Beautiful | more beautiful | most beautiful |
| Handsome | more handsome | most handsome |
| Difficult | more difficult | most difficult |
| Industrious | more industrious | most industrious |

 **GRADING OF IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES**

Irregular adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives by a marked change in the form of the words.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| bad, evil | worse | worst |
| Good | better | best |
| Far | farther/further | farthest/furthest |
| many/much | more | most |
| Little | less | least |

**PERFECT ADJECTIVES**

Some adjectives in English cannot be compared because the word expresses the highest degree of the adjective. They include: wrong, round, full, square, right, empty, perfect, gold, final, unique, fatal, etc.

1. With a few two-syllable adjectives, both kinds of comparative and superlative are possible. Examples of such adjectives are: common, handsome, cruel, clever, polite, quiet.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Common | commoner/more common | commonest/most common |
| Clever | cleverer/more clever | cleverest/ most clever |
| Gentle | gentler/ more gentle | gentlest/most gentle |
| Shallow | shallower/more shallow | shallowest/most shallow |

**POSITION OF ADJECTIVES (FUNCTIONS)**

Most adjectives can be used in two places in a sentence:

1. with a noun (attributive position): Adjectives perform attributive functions when they premodify the head noun by coming directly before the noun. For example:
2. He bought a new car.
3. Politics is a dirty game.
4. We had a sumptuous meal.
5. The tall player gets the ball all the time.
6. after certain verbs (predicative position): They complement the subject or object. They occupy the predicate position after the verb. For example:
7. He is dead. (subject complement)
8. Young coconut water tastes sweet. ( subject complement)
9. The doctor confirmed him dead. (object complement)

**ORDER OF ADJECTIVES**

The following are rules to guide you on adjective order when several adjectives come before a noun.

1. Adjectives of purpose come before the noun (they tell you what something is for). For example:

a walking stick.

1. Just before adjective of purpose, adjective of quality can be placed (adjectives that say what something is made of). For example:

a wooden walking stick.

1. Before adjective of quality, put adjective that tell you the origin of something – where it comes from. For example:

a Chinese wooden walking stick.

1. Before placing the origin of something, put an adjective that talks of colour of an object. For example:

a black Chinese wooden walking stick.

1. Other adjectives for age, shape, size, temperature, etc., come before all these. For example:

an old black Chinese wooden walking stick.

**FORMAL LETTER**

A formal letter is also known as an official or business letter. It is a kind of letter you would write to your school principal or class teacher requesting for permission to do something, to Police Officer reporting a robbery incident, to a Commissioner in your state pleading for help with a community project, etc. Though you write a letter to someone you know very well, you do not need to have known somebody at all before you write a formal letter to the person.

**THE FORMAT OF A FORMAL LETTER**

**The Writer’s Address and the Date** The writer’s address and the date are written exactly the way they are written in informal letter; that is, on the top right hand side.
**The Recipient’s Name and Address** In formal letter, however, the (official) name and the address of the recipient are required. They must appear close to the left – hand margin, starting from the next line below the date:
 WRITER’S ADDRESS
 DATE
The Principal,
Eucharistic Model College,
P. O. Box 4580,

Asa-dam Road,
Ilorin,
Kwara State.

**The Salutation** The salutation in a formal letter is also different from what we have in an informal letter. The salutation is usually ***Dear Sir, Dear Madam.*** The salutation in a formal letter is written close to the left-hand side margin one line below the recipient’s official name and address section.
 WRITER’S ADDRESS
 DATE
The Editor,
TELL Magazine,
P. M. B. 2174,
Ikeja,
Lagos State.

Dear Sir,

**Subject Heading**In formal letters, a subject heading is often written below the salutation. E.g.

 WRITER’S ADDRESS
 DATE

The Principal,

Eucharistic Model College,
P. O. Box 4580,

Asa-dam Road,
Ilorin,
Kwara State.

Dear Sir,
 APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO BE ABSENT FROM SCHOOL
 or
 Application for Permission to Be Absent from School

**The Body of the Letter** In a formal letter, you go straight to the point. In the very first paragraph, you explain why you are writing. In the middle paragraph, you discuss the topic you are asked to write on. In the final paragraph, you may thank the recipient for finding time to attend to your letter. You do not need to send greetings or messages to anyone. You can use any of the following in the final paragraph:
Thank you.
Please let me have your reply.
I look forward to hearing from you.

**The Ending of the Letter**The complimentary ending most commonly used in formal letters is ***Yours faithfully***. It must be written close to the right-hand margin, below the last paragraph of the letter. The complimentary ending is followed by the signature and full name of the writer, e.g.:

 Yours faithfully,
 (Signature)

Agu Hephzibah

**WEEK 7**

**SOUND CONTRAST:** /k/ and /g/

 /k/ is a voiceless consonant sound. It can be spelt in many ways. Examples of words with /k/ sound include: count, back, sack, kill, came, dock, call, rake, bulk, suck, socks, tuck, luck, duck, bask etc.

 /g/ is a voiced consonant sound. It can be spelt in many ways. Examples of words with /g/ sound include: gill, game, gasp, dog, mug, gall, gate, gas, flag, flabbergast, lag, etc.

**SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS**

**SYNONYMS**

These are words that are nearest in meaning. In choosing words that are nearest in meaning, students should know that words have different meanings in different contexts. The word that is chosen as nearest in meaning should be that which corresponds with the meaning in context. Below are few examples of words with their synonyms:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  **WORDS** |  **NEAREST IN MEANING (SYNONYMS)** |
| 1. abandon
 | desert, forsake, leave |
| 1. abode
 | habitation, residence |
| 1. accord
 | agreement, harmony |
| 1. achieve
 | accomplish, attain |
| 1. anxiety
 | uneasiness, eagerness |
| 1. beg
 | plead, implore, beseech, entreat |
| 1. begin
 | commence, start |
| 1. behavior
 | attitude, character, conduct |
| 1. huge
 | large, enormous, gigantic |
| 1. bold
 | clear, brave, confident, courageous, impudent |
| 1. frank
 | sincere, serious, straight forward, candid |
| 1. charity
 | love, benevolence |
| 1. calamity
 | disaster, crisis, misfortune |
| 1. fraudulent
 | cheat, dishonest, deceitful |
| 1. dull
 | gloomy, backward, unintelligent |
| 1. educate
 | teach, instruct, guide |
| 1. humorous
 | funny, amusing, comical |
| 1. infinite
 | endless, boundless, eternal, everlasting |
| 1. weak
 | tired, feeble, infirm |
| 1. distinguished
 | outstanding, eminent, prominent |

**ANTONYMS**

These are words that are almost opposite in meaning. In choosing words that are opposite in meaning, students should know that words have different meaning in different contexts. The word that is chosen as opposite in meaning should be that which corresponds with the meaning in context.

Antonyms can be formed in two ways:

1. by adding suffixes like ‘full’ , ‘less’, etc to the root word. For example:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **WORDS** |  **OPPOSITE** |
| 1. powerful
 | powerless |
| 1. useful
 | useless |
| 1. fruitful
 | fruitless |
| 1. harmful
 | harmless |
| 1. careful
 | careless |
| 1. shameful
 | shameless |
| 1. helpful
 | helpless |
| 1. hopeful
 | hopeless |
| 1. cheerful
 | cheerless |

1. There are also many words whose antonyms are different words entirely. For example:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  **WORDS** | **OPPOSITE** |
| 1. above
 | beneath, below |
| 1. abundant
 | scarce |
| 1. active
 | passive |
| 1. assemble
 | disperse |
| 1. construct
 | destroy, demolish |
| 1. courteous
 | reckless/careless |
| 1. mandatory/compulsory
 | voluntary/optional |
| 1. foe
 | friend |
| 1. drunk
 | sober |
| 1. ancestor
 | descendant |
| 1. barren
 | fruitful, productive |
| 1. forbid/prohibit
 | allow, permit |
| 1. certainty
 | doubt |
| 1. coarse/rough
 | fine/ smooth |
| 1. hatred
 | likeness |
| 1. celebrated/popular
 | unknown |
| 1. safety
 | danger |
| 1. guilty
 | innocent |
| 1. lazy
 | hardworking , industrious, diligent |
| 1. native, local
 | foreign |

**WEEK 8**

**SOUND CONTRAST /θ/ and /ð/**

 /θ/ is a voiceless consonant sound. It can only be found or seen in some words with ‘th’. It can appear at the beginning, middle or ending of a word. Examples of words with /θ/ sound are: path, bath, thank, thin, author, with, pathway, length, breath, strength, south, north, thought, etc.

 /ð/ is a voiced consonant sound. It can also be found or seen in some words with ‘th’. It can as well appear at the beginning, middle or ending of a word. Examples of words with /ð/sound include: breathe, them, brother, these, those, that, the, father, mother, brother, others, etc.

**WEEK 9**

**ADVERBS**Adverbs are words which modify or add to the meaning of a verb, adjective, preposition and another adverb in a sentence.
***Examples:***
1. The girl walks sluggishly (modifies verb ‘walks’).
2. The boy is very intelligent (modifies adjective ‘intelligent’).
3. The lady pointed rudely at the old man (modifies preposition ‘at’).
4. He did the work excellently well (modifies another adverb ‘excellently’).

**TYPES OF ADVERBS**Generally, there are seven types of adverbs.
1. Adverbs of ***manner*** describe ‘how’ or tell us’ how’ an action takes place. They are usually placed after the verb they describe. They include words like: cheerfully, happily, well, fast, slowly, safely, calmly, hard, quietly, easily, nicely, loudly, etc.
 She shouted joyfully.
2. Adverbs of ***time*** describe ‘when’ or tell us ‘when’ an action takes place. They also ask the question ‘when’. E.g.: soon, then, now, before, since, already, yesterday, later, today, etc.
They need the books now.
3. Adverbs of ***place*** describe ‘where’ or tell us ‘where’ an action takes place. They ask the question ‘where’. They include: here, there, everywhere, nowhere, somewhere, etc.
The boys went there yesterday.
4. Adverbs of ***degree*** describe ‘how much’, they tell you ‘what extent’ an event happens or a person does something. They are also used before adjectives or verbs to tell us to ‘what degree’, or ‘how much’ an action is performed. They include words like: almost, much, only, quite, very, rather, mostly, etc.
He is very good at chess.
5. Adverbs of ***frequency*** ***or number*** describe or tell us ‘how often’ an action takes place. Examples: once, twice, again, always, often, yearly, never, ever, everyday, frequently, sometimes, etc.
The athletes ran twice round the court.
6. Adverbs of ***interrogation/questioning*** are used for questioning. They include: when, where, how, why
Why was he late?
7. Adverbs of ***negation/affirmation:*** They include: yes, no, not, certainly, never, nothing.
 Julius certainly never saw Dora again after he was expelled from school.

**COMPARISON OF ADVERBS/GRADING OF ADVERBS**

Adverbs like adjectives have three degrees of comparison. They are positive, comparative and superlative.

1. **Grading of regular adverbs**
2. Adverbs of one syllable form their comparative and superlative by adding ‘er’ and ‘est’ respectively.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Positive** | **Comparative** | **Superlative** |
| Soon | sooner | soonest |
| High | higher | highest |
| Fast | faster | fastest |
| Long | longer | longest |

1. Adverbs that end with ‘y’ change the ‘y’ to ‘I’ and add ‘er’ and ‘est’

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Early | Earlier | earliest |

1. Adverbs of two syllables add ‘more’ and ‘most’ to form the comparative and superlative.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Slowly | more slowly | most slowly |
| Clearly | more clearly | most clearly |
| firmly | more firmly | most firmly |
|

1. **Grading of irregular adverbs**

These adverbs behave like adjective s by a marked difference in their positive, comparative and superlative forms.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **POSITIVE** | **COMPARATIVE** | **SUPERLATIVE** |
| Well | better | best |
| Badly | worse | worst |
| Far | farther/further | farthest/furthest |
| Much | more | most |
| Little | less/lesser | least |

**WEEK 10**

**SOUND CONTRAST:** /e/ and /3:/

**VOWEL**/e/
 Vowel /e/ is a short vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is, it is a single vowel sound. It can be spelt in many ways. Examples of words with /e/ sound include: bet, ten, leg, bury, tell, sell, any, many, friend, said, head, says, feather, bench, mess, dead, leopard, kept, thread, den, end, pet, met, theft, etc.

**VOWEL /3:/**
 Vowel /3:/ is a long vowel sound. It is a monophthong, that is, it is a single vowel sound. It can be spelt in many ways. Examples of words with/3:/ sound include: turn, heard, firm, confirm, her, world, word, work, girl, nurse, church, earth, journey, first, shirt, circle, burn, surge, colonel /kɜːnəl /, purse, worse, service, surf, birth, etc.

**WEEK 11**

**PREPOSITIONS**

Prepositions are words that are placed before a noun or pronouns to show their relationship with other words in the sentence. They include: in, at, on, by, from, to for, of, off, through, across, between, about, after, before, behind, into, within, during, towards.

**PREPOSITION OF PLACE (IN, AT, ON)**

**IN**

‘In’ is used to suggest that something is enclosed within an area, at a point within an area or to put something into another. For instance:

I grew up in Zaria.

The cattle are in the farm (enclosed).

**NOTE:**

The difference between ***‘on bed’*** and ***‘in bed’***

‘On bed’ means on top of the covers. Examples:

Anne lay on the bed.

‘In bed’ means under the covers.

Anne lay in the bed.

Note: There are stars in the sky.

Not: There are stars on the sky.

**AT**

‘At’ is used to talk about where people study. For example:

She is at University of Ibadan.

He is at Lagos Business School.

‘At’ is used with addresses. For example:

We live at 20 Ham Road.

Falade is still at his old address.

‘At’ is used to suggest that the position is not enclosed. For example:

There is someone at the door.

The sacrifice was placed at the cross roads.

‘At’ is used before the names of activities that are done in a group. For example:

There were many people at the funeral.

I met an old friend at the concert.

**ON**

It is used to suggest that something is on a position or on a surface. For example:

Your food is on the dining table.

There is a stain on your shirt.

**PREPOSITION OF TIME (ON, IN AT)**

**ON**

‘On’ is used for days of the week and dates. For example:

The interview is on Monday.

We go to church on Sundays.

‘On’ is used with expressions including ‘day’.

She received gifts on her wedding day.

We travelled on Christmas day.

**NOTE:** The difference between ***‘on time’*** and ***‘in time’***

**‘On time’** implies **‘punctuality’** while **‘in time’** means **‘before the appointed time’**. For example:

We arrived the airport on time and went straight to board.

We arrived the airport in time to make some purchases.

**‘IN’**

It is used with period of time. For example:

Nigeria gained independence in 1960.

We arrived in the evening.

‘**AT’**

It is used with clock time, public holiday periods and weekends. For example:

Lesson starts at 7: 45am

We usually travel at Easter.

Duration is also expressed with ‘throughout’, or ‘all through’, ‘since’, ‘for’ and ‘during’.

**PREPOSITIONS EXPRESSING PASSAGE**

Preposition used to express passage include: through, across, over, down towards, from, to and fro. For example:

The little boy ran across the busy road.

He jumped over the ditch.

**PREPOSITIONS WITH VERBS OF MAKING**

Use ‘with’ when talking about ingredients for making a product. For example:

Cake is made with flour, yeast, baking powder, etc.

Cookies is made with cheese, flour and eggs.

**‘OF’**

It is used when talking about material of a finished product. For example:

Chairs are made of wood or iron.

Buckets are made of plastic or metal.

**‘FROM’**

It is used when talking about the substance from which the finished product is made. For example:

Fufu is made from cassava.

Papers are made from wood pulp.

**PREPOSITIONS OF RESULT**

Use ‘from’ to show that something happened because something else had happened. For example:

The strike resulted from breakdown of negotiations.

Most accidents result from drivers’ carelessness.

Use ‘in’ to mean ‘to make something happen’ (lead to). For example:

The earthquake in Japan resulted in many deaths.

The inflation in the price of petroleum resulted in high cost of commodities.

**PREPOSITIONS OF MEANS OF TRANSPORT**

You go on foot.

You travel by a bus.

You travel on a plane.

**SOME PROBLEMATIC PREPOSITIONS**

**BETWEEN/AMONG**

‘Between’ is used for two and ‘among’ is used for more than two people or things. For example:

 Share it between the two of you.

 She shared the oranges among her children.

**BESIDE/BESIDES**

‘Beside’ means near, while ‘besides’ means apart from. For example:

 She sat beside her friend.

 I have another pen besides this one.

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