

NATIONAL UNIVERSITIES COMMISSION



USE OF ENGLISH

for Distance Learners in the Nigerian University System

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1.0 General Introduction

This course material, written by experts in the fields of English Studies, Language Arts, Applied Linguistics, and related fields, is an introduction to basic aspects of English language communication skills for Nigerian undergraduates. The modules are primarily developed for you – students on Open and Distance Learning mode – who need to perform many academic functions through the medium of English. This courseware covers vital aspects of the English Language such as study skills, language skills, grammatical units, grammatical usage, registers, effective writing skills and mechanics of writing. It has also provided you with essential English language tools.

It is important for you to note that:

- This course material is an integral part of your online course.
- It is to be used with your course textbook.
- You have been provided with online activities at the virtual classroom.

1.1 A Brief Course Extract from Virtual Class

1.1.1 Introduction and Purpose

You are welcome to the **Use of English** online course virtual classroom. This e-learning course is presented for your use by the collaborative effort of UI-DLC e-Teaching Team, with review support from OAU-CDL, UNILAG-DLI, UNIMAID-DLC and UNIABUJA-DLI, as a pilot course module for open and distance learning institutions in Nigeria. The content is based on the University of Ibadan General Studies material for Use of English.

This as an open and learning course comes with a virtual classroom essentially for class discussions, and also with an offline instructional package that delivers to you the instructional content of the course when you are offline. The offline instructional package, which you can download here, is self-paced with immediate knowledge feedback. The virtual classroom comprises of structured learning activities such as blogs, peer reviews, webquests and downloadable interactive webinars. It requires you to have a functional Internet that allows you to receive feedback.

1.1.2 Prerequisites

To get the most out of this e-learning course, you should have basic skill in desktop publishing.

1.1.3 System Requirements

To navigate through the course website, the following under-listed applications should be running on your computer. They are free applications and may be downloaded from the Internet:

GES 101 courseware;

Internet Browser;

Adobe Reader;

OpenWord;

Adobe Flash player.

Flowplayer plug-in

You will also need an active Internet connection. Broadband Internet access is recommended.

1.2 Course Structure

The course is presented in seven modules with each module having learning activities, including virtual class activities. You can begin with Module one and gradually make progress through the seven modules at your pace.

1.2.1 Modules

These are the titles for the study modules:

MODULE ONE: STUDY SKILLS;

MODULE TWO: LANGUAGE SKILLS;

MODULE THREE: GRAMMATICAL UNITS;

MODULE FOUR: GRAMMATICAL USAGE;

MODULE FIVE: REGISTERS;

MODULE SIX: EFFECTIVE WRITING SKILLS and

MODULE SEVEN: MECHANICS OF WRITING.

1.2.2 Learning Resources

- This e-Learning course features the following learning resources: webinars, animations, podcasts, portable document format (PDF) files and text materials. Standalone animations and slides can be downloaded. The standalone files are packaged in self executable format for easy usage.
- The text file can be viewed in either html browser or PDF reader as applicable.

1.3 Bibliography

The bibliography is a list of additional relevant materials that will assist you in your study. They are placed at the end of each module.

1.4 Feedback and Assessment Section

We have provided In-Text Questions in the body of the material. These questions come with feedback. When attempting these questions. Your focus should be on why the answers are correct.

You also have assignments at the end of each module. The assignments are based on your Learning Outcomes. You are expected to turn in your respective assignments on course website. Your tutor will provide feedback to assignments in not more than two weeks from the date of submission. Kindly see course schedule for submission deadlines.

1.5 Final Quiz

You are invited to take the final quiz that is found at the course board. You are also required to get 70 percent of the questions correct. Questions may be true/false, multiple choice, fill in the gap, matching or select the best answer.

1.6 Tutorial Support

	Name:
	Mobile No:
	Email Address:
Contact Hours on Phone & Skype:	
Tutor's note: I will be happy to support you through the entire course. I am available at the contact hours for real time discussion on phone and Skype. You can send a mail either on the course site or via my e-mail address at any time that is convenient for you, and I will respond shortly.	

2.0 Module One: Study Skills

2.1 Getting Prepared

This module takes you through some issues relevant to effective learning and comprehension. You will be acquainted with the factors that could affect you in concentrating while studying. You will also be exposed to the reasons why you should read effectively for comprehension and summary; what you could do to improve your memory and mental skills; and how you could find reading interesting and effective.

2.2 Module Goals

At the end of this module, you should be able to:

- 2.2.1 define study skills
- 2.2.2 use basic comprehension skills
- 2.2.3 point out factors affecting comprehension
- 2.2.4 organise and use personal timetable
- 2.2.5 use study materials

2.2.1 Defining Study Skills

Studying is an activity that you undertake in order to gain knowledge which you can use in solving a problem. Also, you should be aware that effective studying requires your mental, physical, communicative and intellectual readiness. It should also take place in an environment conducive to learning.

In this unit, you will be introduced to the essential skills you need to develop to be able to study efficiently and effectively. You will also be exposed to relevant study methods. This is with a view to equipping you with the strategies for effective learning such as concentration, memory and mental alertness.

a. Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

2.2.1.1 take and make notes

2.2.1.2 highlight at least two differences between skimming and scanning

2.2.1.3 make an outline

2.2.1.1 Note-Taking and Note-Making Skills

i. Note-Taking

Note-taking is an act of jotting down important points in an academic activity. This is an action carried out by you, the listener to a lecture, seminar and other related activities. You can also take notes from books and other learning resources.

ii. Note-Taking Skills

You need two learning skills simultaneously in note-taking. These are listening and writing skills. You also need to use coinage and abbreviations that will be easy for you to read later while making your full notes.

iii. Time for Note-Taking

In the university system, note-taking is required for you to remember what you have learnt. When the speaker (i.e. the lecturer) delivers a lecture, you should take down notes of the lecture and develop your notes in full afterward.

iv. Writing the Note

When developing your notes, you should take note of the following:

- a. Immediately after note-taking, you should expand in long hand all abbreviated parts of the note on the same day. If you do not fully develop the note the same day, there is the probability of completely missing out certain gaps, abbreviations and coinage that you have used.
- b. You should develop your note in clear and good handwriting in order to enhance your easy re-reading and revision.

v. Note-Making Skills

Note-making is a productive process of learning in which you study printed or e-materials on your own and develop your own note on the materials read. Note-making involves two of the four essential skills necessary for your academic success. The two skills are reading and writing skills.

vi. Some Guidelines to Note-Making

- a. Your notes should be as concise and precise as possible.
- b. You should identify the focus of the note (i.e. the subject matter of the note), the main points and off-shoots of the main points/minor points.
- c. You should also identify the underlying argument of the author of the text and the mode of presentation adopted by the author.
- d. The note should be written in clear, legible handwriting to facilitate easy reading for revision, test and examination.

Note-making can be done, for instance:

1. in your own room,
2. in a classroom, and
3. in the library.

However, the best place to make notes is the library. You can supplement the information you gather from lectures with those you find in books, journals and papers for specific, general or casual reading in the library.

- _____ is an activity that you undertake in order to gain knowledge which you can use in solving a problem.
- The answer is **studying**. It is an appropriate way of learning.
- The best place to make a note is _____.
- **Library** is the best place to make a note where you will not be disturbed.

2.2.1.2 Skimming and Scanning of Reading Materials

We have examined note-taking and note-making skills. We will continue our exploration of study skills by looking at how to skim and scan reading materials while studying.

○ **Skimming**

Skimming is recommended in your first reading of a material. This is expected to present to you an overall view of the subject. However, you should note the following:

- a. Your main preoccupation is to grasp the general view and the gist of the entire reading material;
- b. You are not yet to be preoccupied with the gathering of minute details in the reading exercise;
- c. You should read fast and guard against re-reading the areas you have already read;
- d. You should suppress all distraction, and show a high sense of self-discipline and scholarly seriousness.

ii. Scanning

Where you read a material a second time, you should use the reading skill of scanning. This will enable you to search for definite answers to specific questions in the material being read.

2.2.1.3 Outlining

An important device for securing logical development in writing is the outline. An outline gives the picture of the content and structure of an essay by showing in detail the major divisions and sub-divisions and the arrangement of ideas at different levels.

As a student, you need to identify the key ideas and words in a material you have studied or in a lecture you have listened to. These are then arranged as major and minor points in your notes.

- The two skills required in note-taking are _____ and _____.

- The answers are **listening** and **writing**. They are required skills for note-taking because you need to listen to lecture and write down the points mentioned in the lecture.
- Skimming involves searching for definite answers to questions when reading
True / False
- **False**. While skimming is an act of taking a quick look at a reading to have an overview, scanning is the appropriate term here because as a reading skill in studying, it requires you to pay attention to particular details.

b. Unit Summary

In this unit, you have been taught how to take and make notes. Also, you have been introduced to how to skim and scan reading materials. Finally, you were exposed to how to make outline.

2.2.2 Basic Comprehension Skills

Comprehension is the understanding or grasping of ideas or meaning. Comprehension requires the acquisition of a set of skills or habits to aid your understanding of spoken or written substance.

a. Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

2.2.2.1 understand how to store information into your memory

2.2.2.2. apply basic comprehension skills

2.2.2.3 identify the factors that affect comprehension

2.2.2.1 Storing Information your Memory

When you get information, you have to store it in a memory. This, as you know, is crucial to studying since you need to retain what you read or hear when and studying when receiving lectures. There are two types of memories, which are:

- a) short term memory, and
- b) long term memory.

SHORT-TERM MEMORY is the storing of information in your mind for a short time before you dismiss it or transfer it to long-term memory. Long-term memory may last for a few days or many years. However, both types can weaken due to age, stress or a variety of other reasons including clinical conditions.

Your memories are not strictly constant and are not always reliable. Therefore, there is a need to encourage long term memory use so as to imbibe the knowledge acquired not only for academic purposes but also for your day-to-day needs.

The following are ways by which you can improve your ability to remember things:

i. Chunking

This is the process of grouping things together to help you memorize them. For instance, chunking is what you do when you list a phone number with dashes which makes it easier to memorise e.g. 080-2231-7591. This is easier to memorise than 08022317591.

ii. Association

This is when you visualize or create mental images that can be used to develop or aid your memory. In trying to remember information over a long period of time, you can associate it with an image of something else. Each time you need this information, the image associated with it assists in retrieving it from your memory.

iii. Acronyms

This is the act of creating a word from the first letters of a list of words or expressions you need to learn to make it easy for you to remember them. You can create your own acronyms or use a popular one for lists that are general. For instance, WHO is an acronym for World Health Organization.

- The two types of memory are _____ and _____.
- The two types of memory are **short-term** and **long-term memory**.

2.2.2.2 Applying Basic Comprehension Skills

The following are required for comprehension:

i. Ability to Observe (Observation)

Observation is a basic activity in academic work. You observe phenomena, processes and events in a systematic way. You need to examine the facts closely to be able to discern the relationship of things. You achieve understanding of relations between events and phenomena by your habit of reasoning, abstracting, mental discipline and complete and deep observation. On the contrary, you need to know that incomplete and superficial observations as well as lack of concentration and attention hinder comprehension.

ii. Concentrated Attention

This is the skill of focusing attention on one thing at a time. It is a deliberate disengagement of your mind from all distractions which often affect human comprehension. Concentration is required in purposeful listening and reading. It helps you in enhancing the understanding of the general meaning of the subject matter and grasping of various points of discussion: key points, elaboration, illustrations and examples.

iii. Ability to Decode Larger Units of Utterances

Success or failure in comprehension may result from your ability or inability to deal with various forms and structures of utterances. You need to be able to decode simple, compound and complex sentences, phrasal and idiomatic expressions and make sense out of long utterances. Your ability to decode these utterances determines your communicative and comprehension capacity

iv. Thinking

This refers to your ability to decipher clear relationships among ideas, important points, illustrations, examples and digressions. You should realize that your skill in identifying the relevant from the less-important enhances your comprehension.

v. The Skill of Interpretation

An essential skill in comprehension is your ability to interpret the information. This involves your going beyond mere decoding or understanding of the meanings of words and sentences. Interpretation means a personal and intelligent response to the text. You interpret meanings by first recognising the writer's or speaker's meaning which you then use to infer a judgment or draw a conclusion. Diagrams and illustrations in texts are not added for nothing. They usually add relevance to the main ideas. Therefore, you must be able to relate these to the main ideas being expressed in the material.

- The ability to decipher clear relationships among ideas, important points from illustrations, examples and digressions is _____.
- The ability to decipher clear relationships among ideas, important points from illustrations, examples and digressions is **quick thinking**. This is because it has to do with processing related pieces of information.

2.2.2.3 Factors Affecting Comprehension

There are several factors that affect both your acquisition and use of listening and reading comprehension skills. They are linguistic, physiological and psychological factors.

Linguistic Factor

- Your ability to understand any spoken or written material depends on your ability to use the language of communication effectively. The more competent you are in the use of language, the more efficiently you are able to comprehend what you are listening to or reading.

Psychological Factor

- Psychological factors include memory span and emotional states. Memory span relates to your ability to retain in your mind chunks of heard or read materials. Your emotional state is crucial to comprehension. Enthusiasm and interest are highly desirable emotions you need to cultivate during studies. You must be interested in your studies, while putting everything else out of your mind. Your mind must be free from distractions. You must become one with your studies, avoid feelings of anxiety, worry and fear during your study time and examinations.
- More emotional states that might affect your comprehension include fatigue and ill health. Your comprehension is often affected when you are tired.

Physiological Factors

- Physiological factors include auditory and visual problems. Your comprehension may be affected by hearing and listening defects and eye problems.

- One of the physiological problems affecting comprehension is _____.
 - a) auditory
 - b) fatigue
 - c) ill-health
 - d) emotion
- The answer is A (**auditory**). The other options are psychological factors.
- _____ relates to your ability to understand any spoken or written material because you are able to use the language of communication effectively.
 - a) psychological factor
 - b) physiological factor
 - c) linguistic factor
 - d) environment factor
- The answer is C (**linguistic factor**). To comprehend a speech or writing in a language, you need to be proficient in it.

b. Unit Summary

In the preceding unit, you have learnt about how to develop your memory through the processes of chunking, association and using acronyms. You have also been introduced to the basic comprehension skills and you have been able to learn the linguistic, psychological and physiological factors that affect comprehension skills.

2.2.4 Using Personal Timetable with other Study Materials

a. Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. draw and make judicious use of your personal time-table and
2. make use of study materials.

2.2.4.1 Personal Timetable

For building your personal timetable, it is important for you to note the following:

- i. evaluate each of your courses carefully and note new/difficult courses that are likely to require more time;
- ii. make provision for assignments and tutorials;
- iii. make provision for study in the library;
- iv. make provision for group discussions; and
- v. include extra-curricular activities such as games and sports, club membership and other social and religious activities.

2.2.4.2 Judicious Use of Personal Timetable

As a student, your personal timetable gives direction to your daily activities. Therefore, you must use it properly and follow the time allotment strictly. A personal timetable ensures your judicious share of time to all your demands. Therefore, you must accommodate necessary adjustment to new needs and unavoidable changes.

- One of the things that you must make provision for in your personal timetable includes the following except _____.
 - a) tutorials
 - b) assignments
 - c) library studies
 - d) charting
- The correct answer is D (**charting** - recording information about a situation or set of events over a period of time. It is the only odd option out of the rest). Though an academic activity that is relevant to other choices, it does not have to appear directly in the timetable.
- A personal timetable will be only useful when you use it _____.
 - a) occasionally
 - b) every other week
 - c) every other day
 - d) judiciously
- The right answer is D (**judiciously**) because you can only use your personal timetable judiciously.

2.2.5 Study Materials

These are materials needed for acquisition of knowledge in different fields. They include basic textbooks, a good dictionary, supplementary books and other relevant materials. You should get basic and supplementary texts while you look for reference materials in the library.

i. Dictionaries

A dictionary is an indispensable tool which you need in your area of academic pursuit. You need a good English dictionary regardless of your course of study. The basic skills you need to develop to use dictionaries include:

1. speedy detection of entries, that is, quickly finding out where the word is;
2. correct selection of the meaning appropriate to the context of use;
3. understanding of correct spelling; and
4. accurate interpretation and application of pronunciation symbols.

The following dictionaries are recommended for you:

- a. A.S. Hornby's (ed.) *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*
- b. Paul Procter's (ed.) *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
- c. R.E. Allen's (ed.) *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (for the 1990's)*.
- d. *The New International Webster's Comprehensive Dictionary of the English Language*, Deluxe Encyclopedic Edition, Typhoon Media Corporation.

ii. Specialised/Subject Dictionaries

Specialized dictionaries are subject dictionaries. They are for particular subjects. Look at the following examples:

Dictionary of Chemistry;

Dictionary of Economics;

Dictionary of Genetics;

Dictionary of Pharmacology;

Dictionary of the Hausa Language;

Dictionary of the Yoruba Language and

Dictionary of the Igbo Language (Note that the list is not exhaustive).

○ **Thesaurus**

Thesaurus is a useful vocabulary resource with which you should attempt to familiarise yourself. It is a collection of synonymous, antonymous and specialised meanings. It is of

great help when you are seeking the most appropriate word because it provides variations for a large number of words and categories.

- An English dictionary helps you to do the following except one.
 - a) listen to lectures
 - b) learn accurate spelling
 - c) learn accurate pronunciation
 - d) know appropriate meaning of words.
- The correct answer is A (**listen to lectures**) because it is not one of the things you do with a dictionary.

2.2.6 Assignment

Q 1.1 (tests Learning Outcomes 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3)

Comprehension Passage

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow:

The ongoing global campaign in the fight against malaria is still on, yet malaria is having an upper hand especially in Africa. Perhaps, it is because the origin of the illness is yet to be known. Recent developments may, however, be of help. Beatrice Hahn, a virologist at the University of Alabama, Alabama, United States, US, disclosed her findings recently on malaria. After collecting faeces in sub-Saharan African forests for ten years, she disclosed that malaria originated from gorillas. Until recently, the Falciparum strain of malaria, the deadliest type of malaria was reported to have come from chimpanzees because it was found in their bodies. Hahn sequenced the genes of many of those infective agents: SIV, simian foamy virus, hepatitis and now malaria parasites.

With the assistance of primate researchers, Hahn studied about 2,700 faecal samples. What does this portend for the fight against malaria? Previous surveys had disclosed flaws in the malaria-chimpanzee findings of scientists. It was noted that

chimpanzees that were tested were those living closer to human sanctuaries and those kept in captivities.

Frank Collins, a malaria expert at the University of Notre Dame, Indiana, US, told the *New York Times* that this does not provide solutions to battling malaria. He, however, noted that Hahn's findings show promise. Collins said that since malaria had been introduced by a single gorilla long time ago, attempts to wipe out malaria from the human race were unlikely to be reintroduced from apes. In 1932, the Rockefeller Foundation gave up on its 17-year campaign to eradicate Yellow Fever. This was as a result of scientists' discovery that monkeys carried the same virus, so it would never be wiped out without wiping out monkeys.

Questions

(a) (i) What is the subject matter of (1 mark)
the passage?

(iii) According to the passage, why (2 marks)
is it that malaria is still common in
Africa?

(b) (i) What does the Beatrice Hahn's (3 marks)
study find out about malaria?

(ii) What wrong assumption has (2 marks)
been made about the origin of
malaria before?

(c) What specimen was used by (1 mark)
Beatrice Hahn in her study of malaria?

(d) According to the passage, can (2 marks)
malaria be wiped out from the human
race?

(e.) (i) What type of sentence is the first sentence of paragraph one? (1 mark)

(ii) In second the paragraph, bring out one interrogative sentence. (1 mark)

(f) '...the genes of many of those infective agents...' (2 marks)

(i) What is the grammatical name given to the above expression? (1 mark)

(ii) What is the grammatical function of the expression? (1 mark)

(g) For each of the following words, find a word or phrase which means the same as the word and can replace it as used in the passage: (5 marks)

(i) campaign;

(ii) disclosed;

(iii) samples;

(iv) battling and

(v) wiped out.

20 marks

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3.0 Module Two: Language Skills

3.1 Getting Prepared

In this module, you will be exposed to the types, basic features, rudiments and technicalities of the four language skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing.

3.2 Module Goals

By the end of this module, you should be able to:

- 3.2.1 highlight the distinguishing features of each of the four skills;
- 3.2.2 utilise the four language skills and
- 3.2.3 point out the factors affecting the proper acquisition and mastery of the four skills.

3.2.1 Listening Skills

In all spheres of life, listening is a very useful skill for effective communication. This is because effective communication requires both the ability to produce well-articulated speeches as well as the ability to receive messages adequately. This module will therefore take you through the techniques and strategies for effective listening.

a. Learning Outcomes

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- 2.1.1 differentiate between listening and hearing;
- 2.1.2 state three basic steps in listening;
- 2.1.3 highlight three goals to set in listening;
- 2.1.4 explain the types of listening and
- 2.1.5 discuss bad listening habits and how to avoid them.

3.2.1.1 Listening and Hearing

International Listening Association defines listening as the process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or non-verbal messages. It is also a conscious process by which we seek to understand and retain aural stimuli for a

future use. In the definition above, there are three key points you should note. These are:

- (1) process of receiving,
- (2) constructing meaning from spoken/non-verbal messages, and
- (3) responding to spoken/non-verbal messages.

These three points present listening as involving several actions, interactions and reactions, moving from the point of hearing, through interpretation, through attention, through retention to recall. In addition, listening helps you to make sense out of a message before communicating it to someone else. A good listener must be able to accurately receive and interpret messages in a communication process. As a good listener, you should be able to give feedback to someone else on the content you have listened to. Therefore, listening is a key skill to all effective communication. When you do not listen effectively, messages are easily misunderstood, resulting in communication breakdown. This may even make the sender of the message easily frustrated or irritated.

It is important for you to be able to differentiate between hearing and listening because they are terms that cannot be used interchangeably. The differences are:

- Hearing is a natural and passive process which requires little or no conscious effort while listening is an active, deliberate and conscious process.
 - Hearing is not a mental process while listening is an active mental process.
 - Hearing requires less energy than listening.
 - While hearing is superficial, listening is profound.
- Listening process involves receiving, constructing meaning from, and _____ to spoken and/or non-verbal messages.
- a) adjusting
 - b) responding

- c) adapting
- d) amounting.

- The correct answer is B. (**responding**), because it is part of the process of listening.
- _____ is a natural and passive process which requires little or no conscious effort.
 - a) Listening
 - b) Writing
 - c) Reading
 - d) Hearing
- The right answer is D. (**Hearing**), because hearing does not require a conscious effort.

3.2.1.2 Three Basic Steps in Listening

You need to know that listening is a linear process. The three basic steps in listening are hearing, understanding and judging as discussed below.

1. Hearing: means knowing that a sound is being made using your ear. It is the first step in listening. You cannot listen without the ability to hear.
 2. Understanding: is the step that deals with your ability to comprehend what the speaker said. As a listener, you should understand what is said in your own way which must not be in conflict with the speaker's intention.
 3. Judging: is when you evaluate what has been said. After you are sure you have comprehended what the speaker said, you need to think about whether it makes sense to you or not.
- The three basic steps in listening include hearing, understanding and _____.
 - a) judging

- b) acquitting
- c) arresting
- d) playing

- The correct answer is A (**Judging**), because it completes the steps.

3.2.1.3 Three Goals to Set in Listening

There are three goals you should often set in listening. Your listening goals should state what you personally would like to gain during and after receiving a particular message.

These goals are:

- i. **Listening to understand ideas:** When you listen to understand ideas, you listen to main ideas or central concepts. You then identify key words and phrases that will help you to accurately summarise the concepts being discussed.
 - ii. **Listening to retain information:** This involves focusing your attention on messages and then learning how to make sure that what you heard is retained. To retain information, you need certain tools. These are:
 - a. Repetition: reproducing verbatim what you have listened to;
 - b. Paraphrase: restating what someone has said in your own words and
 - c. Visualisation: forming a picture about what you have heard in your mind.
 - iii. **Listening to analyse and evaluate conflicts:** Your ability to analyse and evaluate what you have listened to calls for a greater skill than retention. When you listen to analyse and evaluate conflicts effectively, you become skillful at identifying fallacies or falsehood in the arguments and statements you encounter in communication.
- All of these tools can be used for retaining information during listening process except _____.
 - a) paraphrasing
 - b) repetition
 - c) adaptation
 - d) visualization

- The correct answer is C (**adaption**), because hallucination is not real, while listening is an active experience.

3.2.1.4 Types of Listening

Listening can be broadly categorised into two types. These are:

1. Active listening
2. Passive listening

a. Active Listening

When you engage in active listening, you are listening with a purpose. In other words, you engage all your senses, attitudes, thoughts, feelings and intentions in the communication process. It is important for you to know that all successful communicators and learners generally require active listening because it is employed to comprehend, extract information and evaluate facts and opinions.

Purposive active listening is:

- (i) serious,
- (ii) critical,
- (iii) discriminative, and
- (iv) social (appreciative, conversational etc.

- i. Serious Listening**- is a form of active, purposeful and goal-directed listening. Here, you give rapt attention to what is being said. By its very nature, serious listening requires a lot of concentration, attention, selectivity and mental processing.
- ii. Critical Listening** – is when you listen to speeches in order to distinguish between facts and opinions or logical and emotional arguments. This type of listening involves evaluating as well as analysing the ideas being listened to.
- iii. Discriminative Listening** – entails listening to draw out the main purpose of a text in order to remember essential parts of the message. To achieve this, you need sound knowledge of word discrimination and association. This helps you to use context clues to find meanings of words as well as relate details of the message to the main points.

iv. Social listening – Social listening is appreciative and conversational in nature. It is when you give total attention to the communicative process. Therefore, social listening is employed in dialogues, chit-chats, conversations, friendly arguments/discussions, gossips and others.

v. Passive Listening

you engage in passive listening, you have little or no personal involvement in the communication process. This is the type of listening which you engage in when you are present in a discussion in which you are not really involved. For example, an apprentice technician who joins the audience in an inaugural lecture will listen passively. He will just manage to listen to the sounds; he will not be able to identify meaningfully the spoken signals, least of all correctly interpret what is being said.

You must note that passive listening is a negative listening behaviour. It is, however, unavoidable and beyond the listener's control in some instances. For example, a student who is engaged in serious private study may have to listen passively to music playing nearby.

○ Listening with a purpose involves _____.

- a) passive listening
- b) active listening
- c) lazy listening
- d) abstract listening

● The correct answer is B (**active listening**), because it requires much attention.

3.2.1.5 Bad Listening Habits and How to Avoid Them

You should know that different individuals exhibit certain attitudes that negatively affect listening. These are behaviours which have the tendency to create misinterpretation or total loss of information that could be important to you.

You can train yourself to lose your bad listening habits and enhance the good ones. The following are the bad listening habits. You should identify some that you have and make conscious effort to correct them.

i. Calling the subject matter uninteresting

Many listeners conclude that the speech is uninteresting even before listening to it. When you have convinced yourself that the topic is uninteresting, you will be discouraged from making sense out of what is being said. A good listener will take time to listen to a topic even if it sounds uninteresting. You may discover that the topic, though uninteresting to you, may surprisingly turn out to be useful.

ii. Criticizing the Speaker's delivery or appearance

There is always a tendency for one to mentally criticize the speaker's manner of presentation or appearance. For example, you claim the voice is too soft, loud or that the dressing is inappropriate, etc. These criticisms make it difficult for you as a listener to absorb what is being said. Therefore, you need to concentrate on what the speaker is saying so as to get the message. Always remember that the form in which a message is presented is not as important as the content of the message.

iii. Becoming too stimulated

Sometimes, we disagree with what a speaker has said and rather than keep listening to them, we get carried away, building our counter argument and formulating questions in our mind to ask the speaker after the delivery. We therefore miss the additional comments and lose other important points. This drops our listening efficacy to nearly zero because of over-stimulation. You must always listen to the complete presentation of a speaker before drawing conclusion about it.

iv. Listening only for facts

It is ideal to identify the facts in what you listen to. However, in the course of doing this, you must not miss the primary ideas being passed across by the speaker. Therefore,

while listening, do not isolate the facts because they are only meaningful within the primary ideas.

v. Outlining ideas in a disorderly manner

Some listeners, especially at lectures and talks, outline all that is said. You must develop different styles of outlining for different speakers. Some speakers are logical in their presentation while some are not. It is good for you to identify the speaker's method for your benefit.

vi. Faking attention

Many listeners fake attention by nodding or staring at the speaker while delivering their message. Their eyes are on them but their minds are miles away. This is probably one of the most common bad listening habits. As a listener, you need to identify your faking habit and eliminate it.

vii. Tolerating or creating distractions

When you whisper or listen to someone whispering to you in an audience of listeners, you are creating distraction or tolerating distraction. You should avoid falling into this category of listeners because doing so will distract you as well as other listeners in the audience.

viii. Evading the difficult

Most listeners have a tendency to listen only to things that are easy to comprehend, avoiding things that are more difficult. You should always concentrate on all aspects of a communication process without selectively giving more attention to what is simpler and easier to comprehend.

ix. Submitting to emotional words

Some words have emotional impact on some listeners. For instance, a child who has no parents may be emotional when the word "orphan" is mentioned in a discussion. You should not allow emotional words distract your attention in the course of listening.

- _____ is a bad listening habit.
 - a) Repeating the speech
 - b) Criticising the speaker's delivery
 - c) Taking notes
 - d) Asking questions
- The correct answer is B (**Criticising the speaker's delivery**), because it makes it difficult for you to absorb what is being said.

In conclusion, making conscious effort to identify these bad habits and avoid them would enhance your listening skill.

b. Unit Summary

In the unit above, you have been taught the differences between hearing and listening, three basic steps in listening and three goals that you should set in listening. Also, you have been exposed to the types of listening as well as bad listening habits and how to avoid them.

3.2.2 Speaking Skills

Human beings differ basically from animals because they can speak. The possession and use of language to communicate is exclusive to human beings. This module therefore introduces you to the sounds of English, stress and intonation, as well as skills of effective speaking, with a view to enabling the learner speak intelligible English.

a. Learning Outcomes

After studying this unit, you should be able to

3.2.2.1 produce the sounds of English

- 3.2.2.2 apply stress appropriately
- 3.2.2.3 assign intonation tunes appropriately
- 3.2.2.4 deliver excellent speeches

3.2.2.1 The Sounds of English

It is essential for you to know the importance of the sounds human beings produce to make meaning. Speaking is a process of constructing meaningful sounds. It is a stage in the communication process of producing, receiving and processing information. It is a means by which information is encoded orally into a linguistic form or code for transmission to a decoder. The encoder is the speaker while the decoder is the listener. Speaking is a productive skill because it involves the production of meaningful sounds for the reception of the listener who must also be proficient in the language in which the message is encoded.

Pronunciation is one area where most non-native speakers of English encounter problems. You must have observed, as speakers of English, that some of the sounds of Standard English are not found in the Nigerian languages. You therefore have a tendency to substitute sounds in your native languages for such sounds for ease of production. Let us proceed to study the sound units of English in the webinar that follows.

Webinar on English sounds production

In this webinar, a facilitator explains to you the sounds of English and how they are produced. Access the instructional video of the webinar file from webinar folder. Webinar folder is inside your **Use of English** course folder.

i. Consonants

Consonants are those sounds in the production of which there is a total or partial blockage of the airstreams at some point in the vocal tract. There are twenty-four consonants in English, comprising fifteen voiced and nine voiceless consonants.

Voiced Consonants > A consonant is said to be voiced when its production is accompanied by the vibration of the vocal cords.

Voiceless Consonants > A consonant is said to be voiceless when there is no such vibration of the vocal cords during its production.

 **Listen and repeat**

Listen to Module 2 Unit 2 Audio File_1 and repeat after your instructor the pronunciation of the following words with emphasis on respective consonants.

/p/ as in pen, pray, apple, drop

/b/ as in bat, blame, rubber, bride

/t/ as in top, ten, kettle, laughed

/d/ as in day, drug, ladder, lad

/k/ as in cat, guay, baçon, quick

/g/ as in grow, grass, figure, plague

/f/ as in farm, form, trophy, rough

/v/ as in vat, vice, reveal, carve

/θ/ as in thin, thick, method, path

/ð / as in that, then, father, clothe

/s/ as in see, sword, receive, maps

/z/ as in zoo, zip, frozen, lads

/ʃ/ as in shoe, sheep, machine, wash

/ʒ / as in treasure, measure, prestige

/h/ as in hat, hoe, behue

/tʃ / as in chair, cheap, nature, watch

/dʒ / as in judge, adjust, passage

/m/ as in man, armure, tomb, comb

/n/ as in not, kneel, annual, button

/ŋ/ as in language, brung, hang

/l/ as in let, lame, select, cruel

/r/ as in right, wreck, sorry, vary

/w/ as in one, we, quick, upward

/j/ as in you, university, new huge

Consonant Discrimination

Some English sounds have very similar pronunciations. Yet, they connote different meanings. We need to know and practise these sounds so as to use them discriminatorily. E.g *pin* and *bin* are only differentiated by /p/ and /b/ but *pin* does not have the same meaning as *bin*.

 **Listen and repeat.**

/p/	/b/
pan	ban
plays	blaze
prank	brand
peak	beak
cramp	crab

 **Listen and repeat.**

/t/	/d/
tin	din
tattoo	ladle
two	do
cat	cad
tow	dough

 **Listen and repeat.**

/k/	/g/
back	bag

dock	dog
sacking	gagging
kiss	geese
crowd	growl

/f/	/v/
fine	vine
food	voodoo
rough	rev
safe	save
leaf	leave

 **Listen and repeat.**

/θ/	/ð/
bath	bathe
loath	lithe
breath	breathe
wreath	wreathe

 **Listen and repeat.**

/s/	/z/	/h/
sink	zinc	hissing
assume	zoom	whom

sue	zoo	who
cease	seas	hiss
hops	hobs	hockey

 **Listen and repeat.**

/ʃ/	/ʒ/
sure	pleasure
mission	occasion
caution	casual
confession	confusion
session	lesion

/tʃ/	/dʒ/
etch	edge
churn	John
picture	pageant
patch	page
catch	cage

 **Listen and repeat.**

/m/	/n/	/ŋ/
net	net	This sound does not start an English word.
some	nun	song
amend	annul	singing
permanent	penury	pestering
dorm	don	dong

 **Listen and repeat.**

/l/	/r/
allowed	aroused
lap	wrap
allay	array
light	write
long	wrong

 **Listen and repeat.**

/w/	/j/
weed	yield
woke	yoke
warn	yawn
wonder	yonder
wood	youth

- Identify the vowel sounds in the following underlined letter(s).
 - i. water A. /ɔ:/ B. /ɒ/ C. /ɜ:/ D. /ə/
 - ii. boil A. /ɔ:/ B. /i:/ C. /ɔɪ/ D. /ɪ/
 - iii. parent A. /ɪə/ B. /eə/ C. /æ/ D. /ɪə/
- Here are feedbacks to the above task:
 - i. The correct answer is A, /ɔ:/ because the underlined letter represents the selected long pure vowel sound.
 - ii. The correct answer is C, /ɔɪ/ because the underlined letter represents the selected diphthong vowel sound.
 - iii. The right answer is B. /eə/ because the underlined letter represents the selected diphthong vowel sound.

ii. Vowels

English vowels are in two broad groups: pure vowels (monophthongs) and diphthongs. Monophthongs are those vowels produced with single vowel nucleus. There are twelve of them. Diphthongs are produced with double vowel nuclei; that is, in the production of a diphthong, the tongue moves from one vowel position to another. There are eight diphthongs in English. In summary, there are twenty vowel sounds in English.

 **Listen and repeat.**

Monophthongs

/i:/ in as in leave, seat, foetus, quay

/ɪ/ as in live, sit, city, women, message

/e/ as in egg, bed, guest, leopard, bury

/æ/ as in axe, mad, back, tap

/ɑ:/ as in hard, park, aunt, heart

/ɒ/ as in odd, yacht, sausage, cough

/ɔ:/ as in ore, oar, court, board

/ʊ/ as in full, pull, good, could

/u:/ as in fool, pool, fruit, move

/ʌ/ as in sun, son, bus, fun, love

/ɜ:/ as in earn, serve, work, purse

/ə/ as in about, writer, actor, famous

Diphthongs

/eɪ / as in day, hate, fail, tail

/əʊ / as in so, foe, toe, soul

/aɪ/ as in high, die, tie, sky

/aʊ / as in house, how how!, allow

/ɔɪ / as in boil, toil, boy, joy

/ɪə/ as in tear, near, deer, cheer

/eə/ as in share, fare, fair, where

/ʊə/ as in poor, moor, tour, sure

Vowel sound discrimination

 **Listen and repeat.**

/i/	/i:/	/e/
Sit	seat	set
Bit	beat	bet
Tin	teen	ten
Bid	bead	bed
Pit	Pleats	pet

/æ/	/ a: /
cat	cart
pat	part
fat	fart
hat	heart
pack	park

/ʊ/	/u:/
pull	pool
cook	cool
soot	suit
stood	stool
brook	broom

/ɒ/	/ɔ:/
pot	port
don	dawn
ton	torn
con	corn
cot	caught

/ʌ/	/ɜ:/
upper	usurper
cub	curb
such	search
judge	church
mulch	merge

The / ə / sound called schwa is an important vowel in the English Language. However, it is the least used sound in Nigerian English! It only occurs in unstressed syllables and most English vowels weaken to it when the stress is removed from them. This makes it the most frequently occurring sound of English. The sound can be practised by looking at a set of English vowels that use stress to change from nouns to verbs or adjectives.

Note that when there is stress on the syllable, it does not contain a schwa vowel. However, when stress shifts away from that syllable to another syllable, the strong vowel it had before would change to schwa. E.g absent → bs nt/ / / bsent/

/ ə /	
Noun	Verb or Adjective
'absent	ab'sent
'rebel	re'bel
'project	pro'ject
'pervert	per'vert
'conduct	con'duct
'contest	con'test
'produce	pro'duce
'object	ob'ject

/eɪ/	/aɪ/
pay	pie
gay	guy
pray	pry
tape	type
claim	climb

/əʊ /	/aʊ /
no	now
tone	town

load	loud
chair	cheer
hoe	how

/eə/	/ɪə/
fare	fear
mare	mere
dare	deer
chair	cheer
there	dear

/ɔɪ/	/ʊə/
boyish	boorish
coin	cure
join	juror
toiling	tourist

Vowel sound discrimination - short and long vowels

Short Vowels	Long Vowels
sit	seat
fill	feel
pat	part
ban	barn
pull	pool
could	cooed

cot	court
pot	port
wed	word
cod	curd

- Choose the option that has the same consonant sound as the one in the underlined letters.
 - i. cheque A. machine B. chord C. curve D. ritual
 - ii. gh A. caught B. raft C. dough D. ghost
 - iii. site A. rice B. rise C. reason D. pose
- See feedback to the above task below:
 - i. The correct answer is D, (**ritual**), because it is the word that has the same sound as 'cheque'.
 - ii. The correct answer is B, (**raft**), because it is the word that has the same sound as 'laugh'.
 - iii. The correct answer is A, (**rice**), because it is the word that has the same sound as 'site'.

More sound discrimination

wad	ward	word
ton	torn	turn
won	worn	worm
cod	cord	curd

ii. Silent letters

Some letters of English words are often not pronounced in particular contexts. While some are easily mastered by learners of English, others are quite challenging. Let us take a look at some of the letters and practise how to make them silent.

 **Listen and repeat.**

Letters	Examples of words with silent letters						
B	bomb	dumb	tomb	comb	debt		
C	muscle						
D	handkerchief	sandwich	Wednesday				
G	champagne	foreign	sign	feign			
H	hour	honest	honour	heir			
L	calm	half	talk	would	should		
N	autumn	hymn					
P	psychology	receipt	pneumonia				
S	isle	island					
T	castle	Christmas	fasten	listen	often		
U	guess	guidance	guest				

3.2.2.2 Stress

In addition to mastering the sound units of English, you should also understand stress, an important feature of the English language. Simply put, stress is the prominence assigned to a particular syllable of a word which makes it stand out from the other syllables. A stressed syllable is produced with greater muscular energy and perceived as being longer and louder than the unstressed one. In English, a word that contains more than one syllable will have one of the syllables bear what we call the primary stress. Also, in English, the primary stress is indicated by a stroke occurring up before the syllable that carries the stress this way:

- I. ex'port (verb) 'export (noun)
- II. con'tract (verb) 'contract (noun)
- III. im'port (verb) 'import(noun)
- IV. re'bel (verb) 'rebel (noun)

Secondary stress, on the other hand, is placed below and before the secondarily stressed syllable e.g. edu'cation.

As it is the case in the examples cited earlier, stress is used to distinguish between words with the same spellings, but which belong to different word classes. In addition to this function, stress can also be used for emphasis.

e.g. I saw 'him. ('him' is emphasized)

'I saw him. ('I' is emphasized)

I 'saw him. ('saw' is emphasized)

It is not easy determining which syllable is to be stressed in a polysyllabic English word. However, if you regularly consult a good dictionary that indicates how a word is to be pronounced, you should be able to overcome the problem. Listening to audiobooks of English sound experts can also be helpful to you.

 **Now, listen and repeat**

ex'port (verb) 'export (noun)

con'tract (verb) 'contract (noun)

im'port (verb) 'import (noun)

re'bel (verb), 'rebel (noun)

In the examples cited above, stress is used to distinguish between words with the same spellings which belong to different word classes. In addition to this function, stress can also be used for emphasis.

 **Again, listen and repeat.**

E.g. I saw 'him ('him' emphasised)

I 'saw him ('saw' emphasised)

'I saw him (' I' emphasised)

In English, there is no rule regarding which syllable of a word is to be stressed. For instance, you cannot say always stress the first, second or third syllable. Hence, when you learn a new English word, always check its stress pattern.

🔊 **Listen and repeat.**

Contestant	Afternoon	Diligent	Colonial	education
January	Impossible	Depend	Helicopter	occupation
Educate	PHOtograph	BEAUtiful	unfortunate	captivity
Canteen	Referee	aSSIstant	Maroon	university
Commercial	Grammarian	NiGErian	emancipation	eROsion

○ **Choose the option where stress is not on the second syllable.**

- i. A. river B. induce C. import (v) D. impose
- ii. A. impossible B. export (noun) C. Nigerian D. erosion
- iii. A. intend B. driver C. colonial D. canteen

• **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is D (**river**), because stress is assigned to the first syllable instead of the second.
- ii. The right answer is B (**export**, n), because stress is assigned to the first syllable instead of the second.
- iii. The right answer is B (**driver**), because stress is assigned to the first syllable instead of the second.

3.2.2.3 Intonation

Intonation refers to the variation in the pitch level of the voice. When we speak, our voice does not remain at one level; it goes up and down and this phenomenon simply refers to intonation. This variation is not random but depends on the type of sentence i.e. whether it is a statement or question; the attitude of the speaker to what is being said or to the listener.

In English, there are different intonation tunes such as falling, rising, and falling-rising. The falling tune is basically used for declaratives, commands and wh-questions, e.g.:

- a. This is a good boy. (declarative)
- b. Get out of this place. (command)
- c. Where are you going? (Wh-question)

Usually, utterances that are made with the falling intonation tune can be made with the rising tune to indicate warmth, excitement, etc. Also with intonation, a declarative statement can be turned into a question.

Webinar on Stress and Intonation

In this webinar, a facilitator explains to you how to stress English words and assign appropriate intonation tunes. Access the instructional video of the webinar file from webinar folder. Webinar folder is inside your **Use of English** course folder.

Note the following from the foregoing webinar:

- Intonation is the variation in the pitch level of the voice.
- This variation is not random but depends on the type of sentence.
- There are different intonation tunes such as falling, rising, and falling-rising.
- The falling tune is basically used for declaratives, commands and wh-questions.
- The rising tune is used to ask polar questions (i.e. yes/no questions) make requests and reflect a doubtful attitude.
- You need to be familiar with stress and intonation as important features of the English language to be able to speak English well or use it for academic purpose.

Functions of Intonation

In English, intonation performs grammatical and attitudinal functions, among others.

Grammatical function

- Utter statements with falling tune.
- Change statements to questions with a rising tune.
- Ask Yes/No questions with rising tune.
- Ask wh-questions with falling tune.

Attitudinal function

- Make requests with rising tune.
- Give commands with falling tune.

- Show boredom with flat tune.
- Show indifference with a low-rising tune.
- Show excitement with a high rising tune.
- Show finality with a falling tune.

E.g. (a) He has  come. (a statement)
 (b) He has  come? (a question)

3.2.2.4 Speech Making and Delivery Skills

It is good for you to know that speaker's skills and speech habits determine the success of any communication. As an effective speaker therefore, you need to be able to pass your message clearly and appropriately according to purpose and audience. You also need to understand the topic you have to speak on very well. This could be achieved through research. Thorough research will guide you in planning what to say in advance and consequently build your confidence since you would have been well equipped for the task. There is a tendency for a speaker who is unfamiliar with his material to get nervous. You should therefore practise your speech or presentation several times before the time.

You also need to decide beforehand how to structure your presentation because a good presentation needs an introduction, body and a conclusion. The introduction will 'tell your audience what you are going to tell them'; the body will 'tell them' and the conclusion will succinctly 'tell them again'.

- Utter these sentences as commands and as requests, using the appropriate tunes.
 - Save a copy for me.
 - Drive carefully.
 - Go ahead.
- **Feedback**
 - Save  a copy for me. (command)/ Save  a copy for me. (request)
 - Drive  carefully. (command)/ Drive  carefully. (request)
- A good speech presentation should include an introduction, a body and a _____.

- a) conclusion
- b) middle
- c) topic sentence
- d) purpose
- The right answer is A, (**conclusion**), because it is the third part of speech presentation.

b. Unit Summary

In this unit, you have learnt how to produce the sounds of English, how to apply stress appropriately and assign intonation tunes correctly. You have also learnt how to make and deliver excellent speeches.

3.2.3 Reading Skills

This unit is on reading, an important skill you need to be proficient in as a student. It is basic to learning, and it is one of the most important skills required to be functional in a literate society. Reading provides the key to all kinds of information.

a. Learning Outcomes

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- 3.2.3.1 discuss the importance of reading;
- 3.2.3.2 differentiate two types of reading;
- 3.2.3.3 highlight methods of reading;
- 3.2.3.4 demonstrate reading and comprehension;
- 3.2.3.5 correctly comprehend and analyse sentences and
- 3.2.3.6 identify bad reading habits and how to eliminate them.

3.2.3.1 The Importance of Reading

Reading is the act of getting meaning from printed or written words. It is basic to learning, and it is one of the most important skills in a literate society. Reading provides the key to all kinds of information. It enables us to learn how to solve problems, build or

fix things, enjoy stories, discover what other people believe, exercise our imagination, broaden our interests and develop ideas and beliefs of our own.

In the simplest sense, reading means recognising letters and groups of letters as symbols which stand for particular sounds. The sounds in turn form words that express ideas in written or printed form. It involves how well the reader remembers, uses and reacts to the material. The ability to read and write is called literacy, and a person who can read is said to be literate. A person who cannot read is illiterate. Reading plays an essential role in the daily lives of most people. To survive in the literate world today, you need to be able to read road signs, maps, labels on medicine bottles, directions for operating new appliances, etc. The ability to perform all such useful activities is sometimes called functional reading or functional literacy.

A special kind of functional literacy is learner literacy. This is very important to students. University students must read to gain an understanding of a wide variety of topics. Learner literacy also requires the ability to read special kinds of materials, including charts, graphs, maps and tables. People learn throughout their lives, and so such reading skills remain very useful even after a person has completed school.

Another kind of functional literacy is workplace literacy. This involves the ability to read written materials necessary for doing a job. This is one way that a person's ability to read directly influences job success.

- is the act of getting meaning from printed or written words.
 - a. Speaking
 - b. Writing
 - c. Reading
 - d. Listening

- **Feedback**

Reading is the correct answer, option C. Of the language skills, it is the only skill that requires making sense of what someone has written to be read.

3.2.3.2 Types of Reading

i. Intensive Reading

This involves a close examination of the text to get the full meaning. This type of reading is that which one does for detail and analysis when one is aware that the material will have to be later recalled, recast, discussed and evaluated. It is often necessary to read and re-read the passage and pause to check up the meaning of some words or concepts. Comprehension is highly paramount for this kind of reading.

ii. Extensive Reading

In extensive reading, the reader develops the habit of reading for pleasure which involves the ability to read quickly. This is often enjoyable since the reader does not have to struggle through the material. This rapid silent reading is also essential for assignments which involve reference work.

- In extensive reading, you read mainly for
 - a. details
 - b. assignments
 - c. pleasure
 - d. examinations
- The answer is C (**pleasure**). Though extensive reading could be employed in assignments that involve reference work, it is mainly for pleasure.

3. 2.3.3 Methods of Reading

Some students tend to read slowly and laboriously because of uncertainty of what they are expected to learn from their reading assignments. Their uncertainty is increased when they are given tests which require accurate recall of minute details. You need to develop the ability to locate main ideas if you are to read with better comprehension. The two components of reading efficiency are the ability to read fast and the ability to

comprehend the message. The speed at which you read a particular material depends on the level of difficulty of the material being read as well as your ability and background knowledge.

Types of reading speed are listed below:

Study Reading Speed: This is the slowest reading speed, and it is used for difficult materials.

Average Reading Speed: This is what students do most of the time. Average reading speed is useful for extensive reading. Extensive reading involves reading rapidly for information as fast as possible and reading as many books or materials within the shortest time.

Skimming and Scanning: These techniques require very fast reading rate and differ significantly from regular or rapid reading in that not all the contents of the material is actually read. Skim whenever you want to get a general idea of a book's content. For example, a reader should skim to decide whether a book might be a useful reference source. Scanning involves moving your eyes quickly across a line or down a page to locate particular information. Look for key words or phrases that indicate you are close to the information you need. When you locate such a word, stop scanning and read slowly.

-, and.....are methods of reading.
 - a. Average reading speed/study reading speed/recreational speed.
 - b. Average reading speed/study reading speed/ skimming and scanning
 - c. Average reading speed/scanning/ skimming.
 - d. Average reading speed/ survey reading/skimming
- The correct answer is **Average reading speed/study reading speed/ skimming and scanning**. These are the methods by which a material could be read.

3.2.3.4 Reading and Comprehension

As a student, you need to understand the key words of this section, reading and comprehension, and their interrelatedness. Reading involves making visual contact with letters or groups of letters of alphabet and relating them to the sounds of the language which they represent. Comprehension involves making meaning out of the relationship

between letters and sounds on the one hand, and between the sounds and what they refer to in the physical and social environment of the language on the other. Making meaning or comprehension involves recognising what the words and sentences of the text say. You can know this through your own general knowledge or knowledge of the subject. In addition, this is also possible through the text being read and your knowledge of the language in which the text is written.

Effective comprehension involves interpreting the message according to the circumstances or the contexts that shape the writer's knowledge and your experience as a reader.

- **Read the following paragraph and answer the questions following it:**

However, the best kind of honey is the original one with reduced sugar content. The traditional way to identify original honey, according to *Iya Alaado* is that it sinks to the bottom of the container when poured in water. Another way is to rub it on the head of a matchstick and set it ablaze. If it is real, it will catch fire immediately.

- According to the paragraph, how can one identify original honey?

Feedback

- By dropping it in water or rubbing it on the head of a matchstick and setting it ablaze.
- '...the original one with reduced sugar content'
 - i. What is the grammatical name given to the expression above?
 - Noun phrase
 - ii. What is its function as it is used in the sentence?
 - Functions as the complement of the subject

3.2.3.5 Sentence Analysis and Sentence Comprehension

It is important for you to know that the sentence is an essential basic unit of meaning and therefore of comprehension. The sentence brings various items of information to the paragraph. Each sentence contributes some aspects of the meaning of the paragraph. It is possible for you to understand the words of a sentence without really understanding what the sentence means. This may happen where the sentence is long

and complex or complicated. To fully understand a sentence, a number of techniques can be adopted. Take a look at the following:

- (a) Sentence Analysis;
- (b) Recognising Punctuation Clues and
- (c) Recognising Signal Words.

a. Sentence Analysis: You should analyse the sentence for its focus or theme. Your focus should be on content. Main clauses provide some focus of meaning. Subordinate clauses provide some circumstances modifying the meaning derived from the main clause.

Consider the following sentence, for example:

- i. He left when we asked him to go.

The main clause supplied the fact that he left while the subordinate clause supplies the time he left.

b. Recognising Punctuation Clues: Punctuation marks can provide some clues to meaning within a sentence. Notice the difference in meaning between the following two sentences:

- (i) The man, whom I met, is your brother.
- (ii) The man whom I met is your brother.

The two sentences can be interpreted as follows:

- (i) The man is your brother. I met him.
- (ii) The man is your brother. It was him I met and no one else.

c. Recognising Signal Words: Some words or phrases function as signal devices or connectors within sentences, between sentences and between paragraphs. Wherever they are present, you must note that they point to certain directions of meaning. Some of these words and phrases are provided in the table below.

Words/word group	Direction of meaning
-------------------------	-----------------------------

and, as well as, besides, not only...but also, in addition, also, etc.	Addition
despite, but, in spite of, though, etc.	Contrast
in the same way, like, unlike, in the same vein, etc.	Comparison
until, if, when, unless, in as much as	Condition
because, as a result, hence, due to	Cause/effect relations

- **Read the following paragraph and answer the questions after it:**

We used to visit them and they used to welcome us. In addition, they prepared very good meals because they were naturally hospitable. However, we stopped visiting them because their mother took our father's land.

Identify the connectors and signal devices in the paragraph and indicate their meaning direction:

- The connectors and signal devices in the paragraph are:
 - i. In addition - addition
 - ii. Because - cause/effect relations
 - iii. However - contrast
 - iv. Because - cause/effect relations

3.2.3.6 Bad Reading Habits and How to Eliminate Them

Some of the bad reading habits can be eliminated fairly easily when identified.

- i. **Head Movement:** This involves moving the head as the reader follows the words from the left side to the right side of the page. Such movement slows down the reading speed. Therefore, while reading, avoid moving your head from left to right.

- ii. **Pointing at Words:** Do not point to words with your fingers, a ruler, pencil or pen as you read. Besides slowing down your reading speed, it may cause you to focus your attention on the wrong information. By pointing to individual words, you are prevented from taking in whole phrases and sentences, which inhibit your understanding of the writer's thoughts and ideas.
- iii. **Vocalisation:** This refers to the act of whispering while reading. It is another common fault in reading. Do not pronounce aloud each word as it is read. Vocalisation tends to tie reading speed to speaking speed. This adversely affects reading rate and therefore, comprehension. This is very undesirable in mature readers.
- iv. **Sub-vocalisation:** Sub-vocalization differs from vocalisation in that the reader does not actually move any part of the vocal apparatus, but he pronounces the words to himself in his mind. Excessively slow reading speed is often a clue to some type of vocalisation. Therefore, train yourself to speed up your reading by avoiding concentrating on the pronunciation of individual words.
- v. **Regression:** Regression refers to glancing back and re-reading words, phrases and sentences that one has already read. It is a bad habit which often results from lack of concentration. All readers make some regressions. However, while good readers make very few, bad readers make many.
- vi. **Rhythmic Eye Movement:** This refers to the way in which the eyes move across the lines of prints. When the eyes are reading a line of print, they make a series of short movements along the line, stopping after every one or two words for a very brief pause. Each time the eye stops, it sees a certain span of material and this span is called the "span of recognition". Poor readers have a small recognition span in that they can only recognise one or two words at one glance. You should train yourself to have wider span of recognition so as to be able to take several words per eye fixation.
- vii. **Physical Disability:** Inadequate brain development, vision or hearing defects can cause reading deficiencies. However, they account for only a small

percentage of all reading problems. This might be beyond a reader to correct. In this case, professional attention should be sought.

- Regression causes readers to.....
 - a. go back always to reading what has been read before
 - b. move the head from left to right while reading
 - c. whisper the words to himself while reading
 - d. point at words while reading
- The correct option is **A (go back always to reading what has been read before)** because the other options state other types of reading defects, not regression.

b. Unit Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about reading, how to differentiate the types of reading, methods of reading, reading and comprehension, sentence analysis and comprehension, as well as how to identify and eliminate bad reading habits.

3.2.4 Writing Skills

In this unit, you will be exposed to the strategies for developing effective writing skills. As a writer, you must first of all be definite about the goal of your writing assignment and the type of writing you want to embark upon. Thus, you need to plan, choose a topic, narrow the topic and prepare a dominant thesis or thesis statement.

a. Learning Outcomes

After studying this unit, you should be able to:

- 3.2.4.1 identify the steps in writing;
- 3.2.4.2 discuss the four cardinal rules in writing;
- 3.2.4.3 explain the types of writing and
- 3.2.4.4 differentiate between types of summary writing.

3.2.4.1 Writing Steps

- i. **Planning:** Planning is vital to writing a project. Failure to plan your writing before the actual writing exercise results in poor presentation of materials. Such writing is prone to poor organisation as it does not adhere to basic principles of unity, coherence and mechanical accuracy. Therefore, as a writer, you must choose a topic based on your goal and, like a builder, you have to determine its length, breadth and component parts. It is also pertinent that you must bear in mind your audience and addressee(s) and your relationship with them. The following are some other crucial steps to take while writing:
- ii. **Preparing a Dominant Thesis** - A dominant thesis or thesis statement is the sentence that summarises the contents of your writing. This is a very crucial statement around which all other sentences in the text revolve. The thesis statement sums up the central idea or theme of your message. A writer must ensure that all assertions, claims and illustrations are, as much as possible, in agreement with the thesis statement.
- iii. **Preparing an Outline** - An outline is a statement of points that are relevant to the topic. It must be prepared before your actual writing is done. It is wise to jot down the points, ideas and thoughts that you could develop to meet the goals of your writing exercise. Ideas and points come through thinking and deep reflection. The ideas you have jotted should then be arranged in order, following a logical pattern. The logical arrangement of points, which presents the main themes and the sub-themes, provides you with a working guide in the writing assignment.

There are peculiarities for different types of outline but the general rules of preparing an outline apply to all. Some of these rules include:

- Logical arrangement of main topics and sub-topics which should contain the main ideas and their parts;
- consistent numbering of all the major headings and subheadings. This means if you use the roman figure for the first main heading, it should be used for all the other main headings;

- avoidance of single topics under main topics;
- use of parallel grammatical forms and
- avoidance of vagueness.

iv. Paragraph Development- A paragraph is a number of related sentences containing one central idea. As you generate ideas, each major idea with its supporting details is built up into a paragraph. Thus, paragraphing is a way of showing the division of thoughts in writing. The most important sentence in a paragraph is the topic sentence. This is the sentence that expresses the central idea of the paragraph. It is the sentence around which all other sentences, assertions and illustrations revolve. The topic sentence, in most cases, comes first in a paragraph, but it could also appear in the middle or at the end of the paragraph, depending on your style and goal.

A good paragraph is expected to be characterised by unity, coherence and adequacy of development. You must clearly show the relationship among the various sentences in a paragraph and the relevance of the supporting details to the topic sentence. There should be a logical and sequential arrangement of the thoughts conveyed by the various sentences that form the paragraph. The following is an example of an introductory paragraph on the topic, "The menace of cultism in our tertiary institutions":

One of the greatest threats to peace and security in our tertiary institutions is cultism. Many lives have been lost through the operations of secret cult members, leading to untold anguish and sorrow on the part of the affected families. Often, innocent students, who refuse to yield to the pressure of the cultists, as well as uncompromising lecturers, who are very strict in enforcing existing rules and regulations on the conduct of examinations, are targets of attack by cult members. Also, at times, a conflict between members of rival cults could precipitate into a bloody clash, leading to loss of lives.

- True or false: Unity of idea is a basic step in writing?

- This is **false** because planning, preparing a dominant thesis, preparing an outline and paragraph development are the basic steps in writing.

3.2.4.2 Four Cardinal Rules of Writing

There are basic regulations that guide your writing. To be a successful writer, you must adhere to four cardinal rules. These are discussed below:

- i. Unity;
 - ii. coherence;
 - iii. originality of ideas and
 - iv. mechanical accuracy.
-
- i. Unity:** This implies oneness of the subject matter of a piece of writing. This requires the agreement of all your ideas and points. Contradictions to the central message and sub-themes must be avoided. Sub-themes must be in agreement with the main theme.
 - ii. Coherence:** This requires you to ensure that all ideas, thoughts and points expressed in your writing are arranged logically in sequential order. This makes your write-up to be connected and to make sense. To achieve this, you need the use of linking expressions or connectives such as *and, but, or, whenever, wherever, whoever*, etc. You also need sequence markers such as *first, next, and firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, finally*, etc
 - iii. Originality of Ideas:** The content of your text shows how creative you are. In other words, you must not simply reproduce the work of another writer. When you use extracts of other authors' works or ideas, you must give them the credit by making reference to them. This makes your readers able to distinguish between the ideas of other writers and your original ideas.
 - iv. Mechanical Accuracy:** This is a very crucial aspect of your writing and it must be given good attention. The accurate use of the mechanics of language such as tenses, concord, spelling and punctuation marks makes your writing beautiful. Thus, to be successful in writing, you need proper mastery and accurate use of the mechanics of language as errors of spelling, punctuation, tenses, concord and others discourage readers.

- The basic regulations for writing are:
 - a. unity, dominant thesis, mechanical accuracy, coherence
 - b. paragraph development, unity, mechanical accuracy
 - c. mechanical accuracy, originality of ideas, Unity, dominant thesis
 - d. coherence, unity, originality of ideas and mechanical accuracy
- The answer is **d (coherence, unity, originality of ideas and mechanical accuracy)** because they are the four cardinal rules of writing.

3.2.4.3 Types of Writing

Writing could be classified into several types. As a writer, you may simply want to tell a story or give a description of a scene, an object, a place, etc. You may also want to enlighten readers on an issue or postulate an argument with a view to taking a position on a controversial subject. You will be learning about the four major essay types, which are: narrative, descriptive, expository and argumentative.

i. Narrative Writing

A narration is when you give an account of an event. Therefore, narrative writing is a type of writing that involves the description of events. It involves giving a report of what has happened with a view to leaving an impression on your reader. It could either be a fiction or a non-fiction. While a non-fiction is a true story of what actually happened (in real life), a fiction is simply your imagination expressed in writing.

The hallmark of a narrative essay is a sense of direction or focus. You must be able to express, in clear terms, what led to what, and in what circumstances. You must clearly state the principal actors (characters) in the narration and their respective roles.

ii. Descriptive Writing

In a descriptive writing, you aim at presenting a vivid picture of a person, an object, a scene etc, to the mind of your reader in such a way that your reader has a good idea of that person, object or scene. With your power of description, your reader becomes

capable of properly appraising whatever you have described. Descriptive writing is rather difficult to separate from other forms of writing as there are elements of description in, for instance, a narration, exposition and an argumentation. There are two main types of description. These are objective description and subjective description. In objective description, you are concerned with actual details without your sentiment or emotion attached to the writing. You also present facts without bias. Subjective description, however, reflects your emotional attachment. For instance "the man was killed" is not as emotive as "the man was murdered".

iii. Expository Writing

This is a kind of writing in which you explain a concept, an idea, a process or a procedure. You encounter the phenomenon of exposition in your day-to-day use of language through what you say to or hear from people, through newspapers or the electronic media, on church pulpits and in mosques, etc. Your expository writing is aimed mainly at educating and informing your reader as well as offering them explanation and definition of things that are probably not clear to them. Here are possible topics on expository writing for you to consider:

1. How to Construct a Bridge;
2. A Look into Heavens;
3. A Dictator;
4. Dividends of Democracy and
5. Factors Responsible for Nigeria's Economic Depression.

iv. Argumentative Writing

In this kind of writing, you engage in a reasoned discussion aimed at securing your reader's acceptance of your opinion on an issue. You sometimes engage in reasoned discussions on topics that appear controversial with a view to persuading your addressees to agree with you. An argument therefore has to do with reasoning and drawing a conclusion from one or more premises. There are two types of reasoning. These are:

- a) inductive reasoning and

b) deductive reasoning.

In inductive reasoning, you make a generalisation based on the evidence you present. You can arrive at a conclusion based on a number of instances. If for instance, it is discovered that in a particular community, policemen have colluded with armed robbers to unleash terror on transporters and passengers on many occasions and it happens that another robbery incident occurs, one can conclude, by inductive reasoning, that policemen must have colluded with armed robbers in that particular robbery incident as they have always done. A single instance of robbery operation with the involvement of the police is, however, not sufficient to make a generalisation that policemen have always colluded with armed robbers in that community.

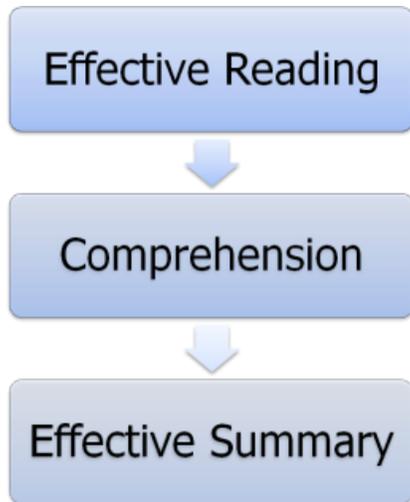
Possible Topics for Argumentative Writing

1. Developing Countries are not ripe for Democracy.
2. Co-educational Institutions are better than Non-co-educational Institutions.
3. Second Term in Office should be Discouraged in the Polity.
4. Capital Punishment should be Abolished.
 - The type of writing that aims at securing your reader's acceptance of your opinion on a topic is called _____.
 - a) narrative
 - b) expository
 - c) descriptive
 - d) argumentative
 - The right answer is D, (**argumentative**), because the aim is to convince your reader to accept your point of view.

3.2.4.4 Summary Writing

A summary is a short statement that gives the main information about something, without giving all the details. In writing, summary is a short piece of writing in which you present the main information contained in a text. It is a compressed form of a longer text without losing its original ideas and without adding to it.

As you read in the previous unit, there is a vital link between reading comprehension and summary. Your ability to write effective summary is dependent on your reading comprehension. The diagram below illustrates this link.



i. **Types of Summary**

There are two types of summary: guided summary and unguided summary. Let us take a look at each of them.

a. Guided Summary: This is a controlled type of summary. When you are engaged in this kind of summary, you are compelled to adhere to specific instructions regarding the number of words, sentences or paragraphs. If you write more than the number required of you, you are penalised. This is the type of summary favoured by the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) and National Examination Council (NECO) for Senior School Certificate Examination in the English Language.

Unguided Summary: In this type of summary, you are given a free hand to decide the length of your script. This does not mean, however, that you are totally free; you are not expected to write a long piece. The difference is that you are not subject to any form of penalty if you choose to write your summary in a given style, as long as you fulfill the basic requirements of summary writing. The general principle of this type of summary is for you to write one third (1/3) of the original passage.

ii. **Requirements for a Good Summary**

To have a good summary, you must satisfy three basic conditions, namely:

(a) brevity,

- (b) clarity, and
- (c) originality.

Let us take a look at each of the requirements so as to be able to employ them in your summary writing.

Brevity: This is the quality of expressing something in very few words, that is, being brief. To have a good summary, you must be brief. To achieve this, you must avoid explanations, examples, illustrations and other excessive details.

Clarity: This means expressing clearly. A good summary should be clearly expressed. In order to accomplish this, you can always write simple sentences, use punctuation marks appropriately, and rather than engage in mindless lifting of ideas from the text, use your own words.

Originality: This is the quality of being original. This suggests that your materials for summary should be those that are contained in the original text. You should consider as irrelevant, all ideas that are not contained in the original text. Even when you know other points that could be relevant to the topic, do not add them if they are not in the original text being summarized.

- The type of summary writing that restricts you to specific instructions based on words, sentences or paragraphs is _____.
 - a) guarded summary
 - b) guided summary
 - c) unguided summary
 - d) unguarded summary
- The correct answer is B, (**guided summary**), because it limits you to a number of words or sentences.

b. Unit Summary

In this unit, you have been exposed to the steps in writing and the four cardinal rules in writing. You have also been taught the forms of writing as well as how to write different types of summary.

3.3 Module Summary

In this module, you have learnt how to utilise the listening, speaking, reading and writing skills, the distinguishing features of each of the four skills, and the factors that affect their proper acquisition.

Assessment

Q 2.1 (Tests on Learning Outcome 2.1)

Listen to the audio passage on 'School boy tyranny' (play Module-2-audio-file 'school_boy_tyranny'; it is available in audio folder of course folder).

Questions

"Get that all swept up!....I want the whole place cleaned up, at once!". "At once!"

1. Who used to say this to the school boys?
2. Who were the tyrants in the school?
3. What were used as bribe to avoid being beaten by the tyrants?

Q 2.2 (Tests on Learning Outcome 2.2)

Insert the audio file on English word dictation

Question

Write down the words produced in this audio file and the consonant and vowel sounds in the words.

Q 2.3 (Tests on Learning Outcome 2.3)

Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow:

Buying original honey in Lagos and other metropolitan cities in Nigeria could be a tough job. The natural sweetener exists in many adulterated forms and mixtures and this confuses people who are desperate for it. People go to any length to get honey in its natural or original form mainly because of its soothing and healing qualities. Honey is a natural remedy for minor infections as well as a beauty therapy. It can be used naturally or mixed with fruits and milk to give any effect desired. It is the best substitute for sugar in foods and drinks because it is composed of sugars like glucose and fructose as well as minerals such as calcium, iron, sulphur, phosphate, potassium, and magnesium. Yet, it is

low in calories. Compared to the same amount of sugar, honey has up to 40 per cent less calories.

Honey is best used in its natural form. It is more nutritious in pap or tea. However, some sellers heat up the honey to provide a clearer look that enhances their sales. The danger in such action is that heating up honey destroys its nutrients and useful enzymes. But raw honey should be sticky and golden brown, not watery and yellowish.

According to *Iya Alaado*, a honey seller in Mushin market who spoke to *Health Xtra*, honey is useful for the treatment of injection spots that cause pain. She said honey should be put in water and used to wash the spots. It is equally good for minor burns because it will heal and dry the burns. Diabetic and ulcer patients who are on medical prescription not to eat a lot of sugar can also add honey to their tea. She stressed that honey is the best for children to drink and lick because it sharpens their brains.

She said "*there is no ailment that honey cannot heal* and there is no one who cannot use honey except those whose doctors have advised not to eat any sweetener at all,"

For stomach upsets, honey can be diluted in water to drink. In treating sore throat, mix two tablespoons of honey with four tablespoons of lemon juice and add a pinch of salt, then drink the mixture. The same process can be applied to cold and catarrh though the salt may not be added; the mixture will then be swallowed every few hours until the throat is clear. To relieve hangover and boost energy, two spoons of honey is mixed with half a cup of orange juice and half a cup of yogurt. For sleeplessness, one teaspoonful of honey is mixed with a warm glass of milk.

Also, honey can be used for beauty therapies on the skin, face and hair. It can serve as a moisturising mask for the skin when two tablespoons of it are mixed with two teaspoons of milk. The mixture is spread over the face and throat, and left for about 15 minutes. It is then rinsed with warm water after which cold water is splashed on the face. The dry patches on the elbow, knees, fingers, heels of the feet and ankles can also be restored with honey mixed with olive oil and lemon juice. Similarly, a dry and dull hair can be made lustrous by washing such hair with honey diluted in warm water. Healthy teeth that are germ free can be attained with honey mixed with a cup of warm water and used as a mouthwash.

However, the best kind of honey is the original one with reduced sugar content. The traditional way to identify original honey, according to *Iya Alaado*, is that it sinks to the bottom of the container when poured in water. Another way is to rub it on the head of a matchstick and set ablaze. If it is real, it will catch fire immediately. (640 words)

Questions

- i. What problem do those that want to buy honey in Lagos face generally? (2 marks)
- ii. According to the passage, how can one identify original honey? (2 marks)
- iii. Why do people go to any length in acquiring honey? (2 marks)
- iv. What two major functions does honey perform? (2 marks)
- v. How can someone destroy original honey according to the passage?(1 mark)

vi. *'there is no ailment that honey cannot heal'*

What figure of speech is contained in the above expression? (2 marks)

vii. *'...the original one with reduced sugar content'*

(a) What is the grammatical name given to the expression above? (2 marks)

(b) What is its function as it is used in the sentence? (1 mark)

viii. For each of the following words, find another word or phrase which means the same and which can replace it as it is used in the passage:

(a) confuses (b) substitute (c) nutritious (d) minor (e) therapies (f) similarly

(6 marks)

(20 marks)

2.4 (Tests on Learning Outcome 2.4)

Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow.

Social pressures started you smoking and have since played a major role in making you continue. But what of the forces inside you? Is smoking a physical addiction, something like the hook of hard narcotics? Doctors do not quite agree on this point. Some believe there may be a physically addictive property in nicotine or some other, perhaps yet undiscovered, ingredient of inhaled tobacco smoke. Others say the entire problem is psychological in nature, not physical. We do not know enough about the nature of addictive smoking to say one way or the other, but one thing is certain-if it is a physical addiction, it is not a serious one in the sense that, say, heroin is. In general, a serious physical addiction is usually thought of as having two main characteristics.

Firstly, the addict needs ever larger doses of the addictive substance in order to satisfy his or her craving. But the typical smoker meanders up and down from heavier smoking to lighter smoking. There is apparently no fixed or rising minimum concentration of chemical substances which his body requires him to maintain.

Secondly, the addict suffers severe illness or even death if the supply of the addictive substance is stopped. The substance, in other words, has become so inextricably tangled with the body chemistry that the body requires it physically. Such severe withdrawal symptoms are usually very mild. Thus, physical addiction is for most people only a very minor part of the smoking complex, and for all practical purposes,

you can forget it. The pleasurable effect, in other words, comes largely from the act of smoking, not from chemical changes produced in the body by the ingredients of the smoke.

You get so used to cigarettes that your life and thoughts revolve around them. You reach for your pocket automatically, without really thinking, at certain times and in certain kinds of situation every day, every week. In effect, each cigarette becomes a habit. Pure habit-a thing you do without a fully conscious decision. (334 words)

Questions

- a) In two sentences, one for each, state the two assumptions made by doctors about smoking. (12 marks)
 - b) In two sentences, one for each, state the two characteristics of physical addiction. (12 marks)
 - c) In one sentence, state what cigarette would eventually do to a smoker. (6 marks)
- (30 marks)

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4.0 Module Three: Grammatical Units

4.1 Getting Prepared

This module introduces you to the grammatical units in English, with a view to confirming that language is a structured phenomenon and that in order to achieve meaning in communication through language, you must understand how the elements or units of language should be ordered.

4.2 Module Goals

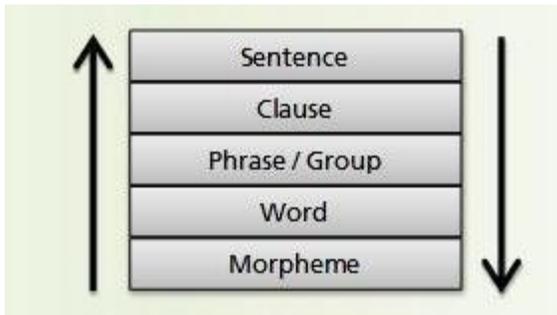
At the end of this module, you should be able to:

- i. explain what grammatical units (elements of language) mean;
- ii. mention at least four grammatical units;
- iii. differentiate among the following: morpheme, word, group (phrase), clause and sentence;
- iv. identify two types of phrases and clauses;
- v. construct correct examples of each of the grammatical units and
- vi. correctly identify the units in contexts.

4.2.1 Hierarchical Elements of Language

Language is a structured phenomenon. In order to achieve meaning in communication through language, you must understand how the elements or units of language should be ordered. A hierarchical relationship exists among these elements of language. As users of the English language, you need a proper understanding of such units or elements as morpheme, word, group (phrase), clause and sentence.

The hierarchical arrangement of the units of language is shown below:



You can look at the relationship up-down. If you look at it up-down, you will see that the units on top comprises the one below it from sentence to morpheme, such that the sentence is made up of clauses; clause is made up of groups; group is made up of words, and words comprise morphemes. Thus, the lowest level is the morpheme and the highest level is the sentence.

4.2.2 The Morpheme

4.2.2.1 Introduction to Morphemes

In this unit, you will be exposed to the meaning of morphemes and their types, based on meanings and functions. Also, you will be acquainted with how you can identify morphemes in words and how you can break words down into different morphemes.

4.2.2.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. define morphemes;
2. identify their types and
3. break down words into morphemes.

1. What is a Morpheme?

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of grammar of a language. In other words, it cannot be broken down into any other meaningful unit. It is the minimal unit used in building words in a language. A morpheme should not be confused with a

syllable - the smallest pronounceable unit of a language. However, it is possible that a morpheme may be realised as a syllable.

- The smallest meaningful unit of expression is-----.
 - a) morpheme
 - b) free
 - c) bound
 - d) base
- The right answer is A (**morpheme**), because in the hierarchy of language it is the smallest unit.

4.2.2.3 Morpheme Types

You should know that morphemes are described based on meaning and structure. Based on meaning, there are two classes of morphemes. These are free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes can easily stand alone without being joined to any other morphemes. They are also known as root morphemes or simple words. Examples of free morphemes include *boy, slow, right, vehicle, church*, etc. However, bound morphemes need free morphemes to stand. Bound morphemes are also called additive morphemes because they need to be added to free morphemes. Examples of bound morphemes are *-ness, il-, -hood, -y, -ward, -ation, -s, -ies*, etc.

Moreover, bound morphemes are classified into two: derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational bound morphemes change the class of words. They fall under affixes such as prefix, infix and suffix. Prefixes are derivational morphemes attached to root, free or base morphemes at the start of words. Examples include: *im-possible, il-legal, un-happy, a-political, mis-understand, dis-loyal, en-code, co-worker*, etc. For suffixes, they are added to words at the end. For instance, *teach-er, faith-ful, harm-less, new-ness, induce-ment, fame-ous*, etc. are examples for you. Then, the second group of bound morphemes is inflectional morphemes. They are sub-divided into plural markers and tense markers. Plural markers are italicized in these examples *boy-s, tomato-es*,

larr-*ies*, liv-*es*, etc. while tense markers are also italicized in the following examples: do-*ing*, love-*s*, want-*ed*, bake-*d*, etc.

You should also realize that there are replacive morphemes and zero morphemes. These morpheme types are closely related to inflectional morphemes. Replacive morphemes occur when one or two letters of words are replaced with others when marking plurality or tense. For examples, they are italicized here man-*mēn*; tooth-*tēeth*; see-*sāw*; weep-*wēp*; sing-*sāng*, etc. For zero morphemes, it occurs when tense and plurality are marked in words, but their morphemes cannot show physically. Examples are explained in the following words: sheep, hit, hurt, deer, cast, etc.

- The type of morphemes that can change the classification of words is called-----.
 - a) replacive
 - b) inflectional
 - c) derivational
 - d) root
- The correct answer is C (**derivational**), because it is the only one that has the ability to change word class.
- Plural makers and tense markers are sub-groups in-----.
 - a) root morphemes
 - b) derivational morphemes
 - c) inflectional morphemes
 - d) base morphemes
- The correct answer is C (**inflectional**) because plural and tense markers are only associated with inflectional morphemes.

4.2.2.4 Breaking Down Words into Morphemes

It is not enough for you to know only morphemes; you need to know how you can identify these morphemes in words. You should be able to break down words into

morphemes. Already, you have learnt that morphemes are units in a word. For instance, let us look at how these words are broken down in the following table.

Table 3.1 Morphemes

Word	Root morpheme	Bound Morpheme
dis-respect-ful	respect	dis-, -ful
un-prepare -d -ness	prepare	un-, -d, -ness
classi-fi-cation -s	class	-y, -ation, -s
un-expect-ed-ly	expect	un-, -ed, -ly
hurt	hurt	*-ed (this morpheme is zero in this word)
feet	foot	*-s (this morpheme is not realized in this word. It is realized by replacing <i>oo</i> with <i>ee</i>)

○ **Write the morphemes in the following words:**

- i. meant;
- ii. unpreparedness;
- iii. constructivists;
- iv. disjointed and
- v. broadcast (present tense).

● **Feedback**

- i. There are two morphemes in the word. The root morpheme is 'mean', while the bound morpheme is '-ed'.

- ii. There are four morphemes in the word. The root morpheme is 'prepare', while the bound morphemes are 'un-', '-d' and '-ness'.
- iii. There are four morphemes in the word. The root morpheme is 'construct', while the bound morphemes are '-ive', '-ist' and 's'.
- iv. There are three morphemes in the word. The root morpheme is 'joint', while the bound morphemes include 'dis-' and '-ed'.
- v. There are two free morphemes: "broad" and "cast".

4.2.2.5 Unit Summary

In this unit, you have been taught the meaning of morpheme and its types. Also, you have been exposed to how to break down words into morphemes, and how to identify the types of morphemes in words.

4.2.3 The Word

In speech, a word can be defined as sound or combination of vocal sounds to express meaning. In writing, it can be defined as a single group of letters that are used together with a particular meaning. Words such as *crash, bang, hiss, buzz, mew*, etc. are linguistic rendition of actual sounds.

There are so many words that have no correspondence between their sounds and their meanings, e.g. man, to, for, house, book and keg. As an independent unit of grammar of a language, the word is a meaningful unit. In written language, it is easily identifiable in that it has spaces on either side. In spoken language, however, you should know that it is difficult at times to demarcate word boundary. Examples are the following:

fight her / fighter

forever/ for ever

a. Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. discuss the types of words based on meaning and

2. discuss the types of words based on structure

4.2.3.2 Types of Words Based on Meaning

Using the criterion of meaning, you can identify two types of words, which include, *content word* and *grammatical word*.

i. Content Word: This is otherwise known as lexical word or full word. This type of word relates to actions, things, people and states in the world. Content words include nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. This class is open-ended, that is, the members of the class are limitless. They form the largest group in the vocabulary of any language. Examples include: *take, associate, sure, Bola, Funke, man, ready, assurance, joy, came, broken, education, lovely, etc.*

ii. Grammatical Word: This type is also referred to as form word, function word, or structure word. This type of word performs mainly a syntactic function, hence the name grammatical word. Grammatical words include articles, conjunctions and prepositions. They are close-ended, that is, they are limited in number. Change in membership of this class does not usually happen. If a change occurs at all, it is not easily noticeable. Examples include: *to, for, by, in, the, a, an, at, with, between, etc.* At this juncture, it has to be stressed that the claim by some scholars that grammatical words do not express meaning is not tenable. For instance, you should consider these pairs of expressions.

B1. (a) The boy is around.

(b) A boy is around.

Obviously, (B1.a) and (B1.b) are different. The differences are predicated on the different articles. While (B1.a) suggests that there has been a discussion of a particular boy being referred to, such a suggestion is not made in (B1.b).

B2.(a) The book is on the table.

(b) The book is under the table

The prepositions on and under in (B2.a) and (B2b), respectively mean different things. The positions of the book relative to the table in each case are different.

Therefore, you should know that what could be said to be the major difference between lexical and grammatical word is that the kind of meaning expressed by the latter depends, to a large extent, on the meaning of the former.

- An example of content word is -----.
 - a) for
 - b) the
 - c) several
 - d) kind
- The correct answer is D (**Kind**) because other options are examples of grammatical words.
- The classes of words that belong to grammatical words include articles, determiners, pronouns and-----.
 - a) verbs.
 - b) conjunctions
 - c) nouns
 - d) adjectives
- The right answer is B (**conjunctions**) because other options fall under content words.

4.2.3.3 Types of Words Based on Structure

- i. **Simple Word:** A simple word is a free morpheme. It is possible to add an affix to it which will change the word from being simple. But when an affix is added, the base and the affix must be separable, if the word is to be classified as simple. The words below are examples of simple words:

girl	show	church	Love	Life	sweet
sun	The	balance	A	lorry	build

- ii. **Compound Word:** A compound word is one which has two bases. In other words, it has two free morphemes. Orthographically, compound words can be formed by combining two or more free morphemes together. Examples include the following:

heartland	wetland	teaspoonful	stillborn
taskmaster	teacup	shakedown	taxman
lovesick	handbill	handshake	evildoer

You can also form some compound words by using hyphen, (-) to separate two or more free morphemes. You can find some examples below.

cutting-room	father-in-law	sound-track	counting-house	Director-General
heart-throb	heat-stroke	stumbling-block	poverty-stricken	jaw-bone

Lastly, you can form other compound words by using a space between two free morphemes. Examples are the following:

latent period	power politics	world power
index finger	travel agency	grass roots
high table	poverty line	live birth
Aso Rock	White House	chewing stick

- iii. **Complex Word:** A complex word contains one free morpheme and one or more bound morpheme. You should note that the morphemes in a complex word may or may not be easily separated. Also, complex words are derived from plural forms of irregular nouns and the past tense and past participle form of irregular/strong verbs. Examples are given below:

teeth	children	split	lice	oxen	men
feet	put	born	dug	were	sunk

geese spread mice fought sought knelt
corrections writers

- Another name for simple word is-----.
- a) free morpheme
- b) bound morpheme
- c) derivational morpheme
- d) inflectional morpheme
- The right answer is A (**free morpheme**), because it is the only morpheme that can stand as a simple word.
- -----is an example of compound word.
- a) Boys
- b) Felt
- c) Landlord
- d) Occasional
- The right answer is C (**Landlord**), because other options are examples of complex words.

4.2.4 The Phrase/Group

A Phrase is a group of related words without a subject-verb relationship. In other words, a phrase is an expression consisting of one or more words forming a grammatical part of a sentence. For your purpose, the technical terms 'phrase' and 'group' are used interchangeably. Phrase naturally forms a unit in bigger units such as clause and sentence. In order to properly understand what a phrase is, it is important for you to know what a subject and a finite verb are. A subject is the performer of the action indicated by the verb or the entity being talked about in the sentence. A finite verb is a verb that agrees with the subject in person and in number. However, you should know

that a phrase does not have a subject and a finite verb. Instead, a phrase can have a non-finite verb. Non-finite verbs include *to infinitives*, *gerunds* and *participles*. Examples of phrase include:

- (i) An African goat;
- (ii) In the morning;
- (iii) Extremely clever;
- (iv) Has been sent and
- (v) Rather fast.

4.2.4.1 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

identify and use the following types of phrase and their functions:

- noun phrase;
- verb phrase;
- adjectival phrase;
- adverbial phrase;
- prepositional phrase;
- appositive phrase;
- gerundive phrase;
- participial phrase and
- infinitival phrase.

4.2.4.2 Phrase Types

i. Noun Phrase

Noun phrase is a phrase that is headed by a noun or a pronoun. The lexical items found before and after the headword in noun phrases are called *modifiers*. Those before the head are called *pre-modifiers* while those after the head are called *post-modifiers/qualifiers*. Therefore, you should know that noun phrase can be formed by the combination of these modifiers and nouns. Noun phrases can be formed using this formula: $(m)h(q)$, where m stands for modifiers, h represents the headwords, and while (q) represents the qualifiers. The brackets around m and q indicate they are optional elements. In other words, they are not always to realize a noun phrase or nominal group. Examples of noun phrase are the following:

- (i) Girls
- (ii) The girl
- (iii) The beautiful girl
- (iv) The man in the house
- (v) The problems of the youth
- (vi) The lady that I told you about
- (vii) A woman who needs help

You should not be surprised that examples (vi) and (vii) are called noun phrases though they contain relative clauses – *that I told you about*, and *who needs help*, respectively. What we have in (iv) and (v) are instances of *embedding*. This is a situation in which a unit higher in hierarchy is found within a lower unit. Embedding may also involve a unit being found in a unit of its own rank. The relative clauses in (vi) and (vii) are functioning as post-modifiers of the nouns *lady* and *woman* respectively.

ii. Verb Phrase

Verb phrase is formed by the combination of lexical (main) verb and auxiliary verb(s). You need to be aware that verb phrase is different from phrasal verbs. Phrasal verb too is formed by the combination of a main verb with an adverbial particle or a preposition. You should know again that verb phrase consists of only the verbal elements, not the whole of the predicate.

Examples of verb phrase are underlined in the sentences below:

- i. Bolade will go there.
- ii. Oghomwen should have gone now.
- iii. Osaru will have been eating that food by now.
- iv. Chika is reading a novel.
- v. Tinuade and Kudirat were not seen at the occasion.
- vi. They are being insincere.

You should notice that in (v) not is an adverb, but because it occurs in between the phrase, it is taken to be part of the verb phrase.

However, you need to know that the expressions underlined below are examples of phrasal verbs.

- vii. He has disposed of the shirts.
- viii. That country is heading for anomy.
- ix. You don't have to answer back all your critics.
- x. I want to carve out a name for myself in music.

Lastly, you should know that both verb phrase and phrasal verb may function as predicators in the sentences.

- o Identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions.
 - i. Segun is going to stay in the house.

ii. You cannot dispute the charges against you.

- **Feedback**

i. It functions as a **predicator** in the sentence.

ii. It functions as a **predicator** in the sentence.

iii. Adjectival Phrase

An adjectival phrase is a group of related words headed by an adjective.

You should know that adjectival phrases essentially modify nouns and pronouns. They are also formed by combining intensive adverbs such as *very, quite, much, so, rather, rarely, etc.*

Examples:

i. He is very wicked.

ii. They were not all that surprised.

iii. She was almost correct.

iv. The students were so lackadaisical about their studies.

v. The lady with the big hat is my wife.

○ Identify the grammatical functions of the underlined expressions.

i. Benji looked so calm in the race.

ii. The leader behaved extremely vindictive towards his servants.

- **Feedback**

i. It **modifies** 'Benji'.

ii. It **modifies** 'the leader'.

iv. Adverbial Phrase

You should know that an adverbial phrase is a group of words that is headed by an adverb. It can be formed by the combination of intensive adverbs and other types of

adverbs. As characteristic of adverbs, an adverbial phrase modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Examples:

- (i) The assignment was very neatly written.
Modifies the verb 'was'
 - (ii) She spoke so fluently that everybody gave her a standing ovation.
Modifies the verb 'spoke'
 - (iii) We would very much want a detailed analysis of the confession.
Modifies the verb phrase 'would want'
 - (iv) She is not so much into prostitution.
Modifies the verb phrase 'is not'
- Identify the words modified by the underlined expressions in the following sentence
 - i. Sola ran so fast that she nearly broke the national record.
 - ii. Prof. Aderibigbe remarked quite frankly after the lecture.
 - **Feedback**
 - i. It **modifies** 'ran'.
 - ii. It **modifies** 'remarked'.

v. Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that is headed by a preposition. There are two obligatory elements in a prepositional phrase: a preposition and a nominal entity. Such phrases can function as adjectival, adverbial, complement of a verb, subject complement and adjunct. The underlined expressions below are prepositional phrases:

- (i) The boy on the field is my grandson.
As adjective modifying the noun phrase 'The boy'
- (ii) They eat without meat.
As adverb modifying the verb 'eat'.

(i) We love the boy in that department.

As adjective modifying the noun phrase 'the boy'.

(ii) In my opinion, Tope is the best student in my class.

As adjunct in a sentence.

(iii) The best time to eat breakfast is between 8am and 10am.

As subject complement.

o Instruction: identify the grammatical functions of the underlined expressions.

i. The man in the picture resembles my late brother.

ii. Before you, many pioneers in the field have done so much research.

• **Feed back**

i. It functions as **adjective** modifying 'the man'.

ii. It functions as **Adjunct** modifying the sentence.

vi. Appositive Phrase

This is a phrase that gives more information about a noun, pronoun, or a noun phrase. You should not confuse it with an adjectival phrase which modifies a noun. Rather than modify a noun, an appositive phrase, which can either be a noun phrase, a gerundive phrase or infinitival phrase, presents the subject in the sentence in a different way. Another important difference you should note between an appositive phrase and an adjectival phrase is that the former can be used in place of subjects that are nouns, pronouns, or noun phrases, whereas the latter cannot be interchanged with the noun. Appositive phrases are marked off by commas at the beginning and at the end, when used in a sentence.

Examples include:

i. Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, the President of Nigeria, will be at the wedding ceremony.

ii. *Things Fall Apart*, Chinua Achebe's first novel, is a classic.

- iii. Wole Soyinka, the first African Nobel laureate, is a genius.
- iv. University of Ibadan, Nigeria's premier university, remains the first and best.
- v. Success, a many-faceted concept, is not in the curriculum vitae of an indolent man.

- Identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions.

i. Your brother, the newly elected governor, is traveling today.

ii. Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, one of the Yoruba leaders, is to be honoured very soon.

- **Feedback**

- i. It is an **appositive element**.

- ii. It is an **appositive element**.

vii. Gerundive Phrase

You should know that another name for a gerund is verbal noun. Also, gerund is the '-ing' form of a verb (present participle form) used as a noun. Examples include:

i. Dancing is not ungodly.

ii. He needs spanking.

iii. They are accused of spying.

iv. Writing is an art.

Meanwhile, a gerundive phrase is a group of words that is headed by a gerund. You should also know that gerundive phrase can function as subject of a verb, object of a verb, appositive to subject, adjective modifying nouns, pronouns and noun phrase, adverb modifying verbs. The structures underlined below are examples of gerundive phrase:

a. Smoking in public places is against the law.

Subject of the verb 'is'

b. Eating well lengthens life.

Subject of the verb 'lengthens'.

- c. They were flabbergasted by his supporting their family foe.

Complement of the preposition "by"

- d. He likes travelling with celebrities.

Object of a verb 'likes'

- o Identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions.

i. Sleeping in class attracts heavy penalty.

ii. They should stop referring to him as a moron.

iii. The lady walking across the road is my fiancée.

• **Feedback**

i. It functions as the **subject** of the verb 'attracts'.

ii. It functions as the **object** of the verb phrase 'should stop'.

iii. It functions as an **adjective** modifying 'the lady'.

viii. Participial Phrase

This is group of words that is headed by the participle form of a verb. You should know that there are two participle forms of a verb: present participle and past participle. The former is the progressive form of a verb, i.e., the '-ing' form. You should not confuse it with the gerund. A gerund is used as a noun, but the present participle is used as a verb. The past participle is the form of a verb that takes the suffix '-en'. This '-en' may be realised in different forms: '-t', '-ed', '-d', etc. In other words, you should also know that the past participle form of a verb is the form that can be used sometimes after the auxiliary verb, *has*, *have*, and *had*.

Also, you should note that participial phrase functions as an adjective. This means that participial phrase is used to modify nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases in the sentences.

Examples of participial phrase are:

- (i) Driven by his promise to do his parents proud, he read thoroughly for the examination.

Modifies the pronoun 'he'

- (ii) Extremely scandalised by the write-up, the lecturer decided to change the course outline.

Modifies the noun phrase 'the lecturer'

- (iii) Shocked by outright cancellation of her work, Mary could not eat for two days.

Modifies the noun 'Mary'

- (iv) Going by his disposition to humanity, we can expect more days of enjoyment.

Modifies the pronoun 'we'

- (v) Having apologized, they can now present their case.

Modifies the pronoun 'they'

- Identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions.
 - i. Being the only survivor, James decided to offer thanks to his creator.
 - ii. Shaken by the horrors in the film, Helen withdrew into herself.

- **Feedback**

- i. It **modifies** the noun 'James'.
- ii. It **modifies** the noun 'Helen'.

It should be noted, however, that the underlined parts of the sentences above are equally referred as non-finite clauses.

ix. Infinitival Phrase

This is a group of words that is headed by an infinitive verb. You can say that infinitival phrase is a group of words that is headed by a 'to'. Infinitival phrase can function as a noun standing as subject of a verb, object of a verb, subject complement, object complement, adjective modifying nouns, an adverb modifying verbs, or an appositive in a sentence. Examples include:

- (i) To stand out among my equals is my aim in life.

Subject of the verb 'is'

- (ii) We intend to celebrate our birthday in style.
Object of the verb 'intend'
- (iii) To control a woman is difficult.
Subject of the verb 'is'
- (iv) My biggest dream, to own a house, will be achieved this year.
Appositive element
- (v) Every parent's prayer is to eat the fruit of their labour.
Subject complement
- (vi) They expect us to contribute our quota.
Object complement

Note also that the underlined parts of the sentences above are equally referred to as *to infinitive non-finite clauses*.

- Identify the grammatical functions of the underlined expressions.
 - i. To find a virtuous wife can be difficult sometimes.
 - ii. It is important to prepare well for exams.
- **Feedback**
 - i. It functions as **subject** of the verb phrase 'can be'.
 - ii. It **modifies** the adjective 'important'.

4.2.4.3 Summary

In the unit above, you have been exposed to the various types of phrase and their functions. Also, you have been taught how to identify their grammatical names and functions and usage.

4.2.5 The Clause

A **clause** is a group of words having a subject and a finite verb which makes meaning. It is essential that you know the functions and types of clauses. This will be discussed in this unit.

4.2.5.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 3.5.1 identify noun clause and its functions;
- 3.5.2 identify adjectival clause and its functions;
- 3.5.3 identify adverbial clause and functions and
- 3.5.4 identify verbless clause.

You need to know that not all clauses can stand alone. Those that express complete thoughts and as such can stand on their own are called independent/main clauses. When a sentence is comprised of an independent clause/main clause alone, it is called a simple sentence. Those clauses that cannot stand on their own, in that they do not express complete thoughts, are called dependent/subordinate clauses. Dependent clauses are usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as *if, unless, that, because, while, when*, etc. For a subordinate clause to express complete thought, it needs a main clause.

In the examples below, the underlined expressions are main clauses:

- i. Omogie is serious because she has a purpose.
- ii. They came when we did not expect.
- iii. We love one another as our God enjoins us.
- iv. She believes in herself since she has good education.
- v. However you do it, we will still appreciate your effort.

The underlined expressions below are subordinate clauses just as those not underlined above):

- i. Omogie is serious because she has a purpose.
- ii. They came when we did not expect.
- iii. We love one another as our God enjoins us.
- iv. She believes in herself since she has good education.
- v. However you do it, we will still appreciate your effort.

Apart from using the criterion of meaning to classify clauses, in which case we have main/independent clause and subordinate/dependent clause, you can also classify clause using function as a criterion. In this respect, you can still remember subordinate/dependent clauses. So, you should know that there are three types of subordinate/dependent clause. The types include noun clause, adjectival clause, and adverbial clause. We now discuss them one after the other.

4.2.5.2 Noun Clause

Noun clause is a subordinate clause used as a noun. You can identify it in a sentence by the headwords such as that, what, whatever, when, and how. Noun clause can function as subject of a verb or verb phrase, object of a verb or verb phrase, subject complement and object complement.

Below are examples of functions of noun phrase:

- (i) That we greet you always does not mean that we are sycophants.

Subject of the verb phrase 'does not mean'

- (ii) Don't let out what I want to do.

Object of the verb phrase 'don't let out'

- (iii) A famous musician is what Sade wants to become.

Subject complement

- (iv) The main problem now is when the members should meet again.

Subject of the verb "is"

- (v) They made the man who he is.

object complement

- o Instruction: identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions.

- i. Give them what you owe their parents.
- ii. When the prophet will arrive is not known by anybody.

- **Feedback**

- i. It is the **object** of the verb 'give'.
- ii. It is the **subject** of the verb phrase 'is not known'.

4.2.5.3 Adjectival Clause

Adjectival clause is a subordinate clause used as an adjective. In other words, an adjectival clause is a *relative clause*. You should know that adjectival clause modifies nouns, pronouns and noun phrases in sentences. The underlined expressions below are adjectival clauses.

(i) Those who respect me are many.

Modifies the pronoun 'Those'

(ii) One of the ladies that are brilliant in our class is proud.

Modifies the noun phrase 'One of the ladies'

(iii) Those whom he invited did not come.

Modifies the pronoun 'Those'

(iv) The house which I built is the best around.

Modifies the noun phrase 'The house'

(v) The place where I am going is known only to me.

Modifies the noun phrase 'The place'

○ Identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions:

- i. I saw the bus that plunged into the river yesterday.
- ii. The wife whose husband ran mad last week is outside.

- **Feedback**

- i. It **modifies** the noun phrase 'the bus'.
- ii. It **modifies** the noun phrase 'the wife'.

4.2.5.4 Adverbial Clause

Adverbial clause is a subordinate clause used as an adverb. Besides, you should know that adverbial clause modifies only verbs or verb phrases that are in the main clause. This is the only function it performs. Adverbial clauses are of different types. The types and what they modify will be considered below.

(a) Adverbial Clause of Time

This answers the question "when"? You should know that adverbial clause of time usually begins with *when, after, before, while* etc.

- (i) He was provoked when the man asked for a bribe.
Modifies the verb phrase 'was provoked'
- (ii) When I saw him, I was perplexed.
Modifies the verb phrase 'was perplexed'
- (iii) Before we responded, they had run away.
Modifies the verb phrase 'had run'
- (iv) As at the time I was an undergraduate, she was not yet born.
Modifies the verb phrase 'was not'

(b) Adverbial Clause of Place

This answers the question "where" You can identify adverbial clause of place usually with *where* and *wherever*.

- (i) Nobody knows where Nigeria is heading to.
Modifies the verb 'knows'
- (ii) I am ready to sleep wherever you give me.
Modifies the verb phrase 'am ready to sleep'
- (i) Where I will be tomorrow nobody can tell.
Modifies the verb phrase 'can tell'
- (ii) He stays where the gods meet.
Modifies the verb 'stays'

(c) Adverbial Clause of Reason

An adverbial clause of reason answers the question "why"? You can identify adverbial clause of reason usually with *why, because, etc.*

- (i) Because I did well they were happy.

Modifies the verb 'were'

- (ii) She cried because she was jilted.

Modifies the verb 'cried'

- (iii) Never leave an idea because nobody believes in it.

Modifies the verb 'leave'

- (iv) I will make it because God is on my side.

Modifies the verb phrase 'will make'

(d) Adverbial Clause of Concession

This adverbial clause shows contrast between the main clause and the subordinate clause. The markers of this clause include *although, though, even though, etc.* However, you should note that *but* does not co-occur in a construction where these markers occur. Examples include:

- i. Although he prepared, he did not do well in the test.

Modifies the verb phrase 'did not do'

- ii. Even though I know it, I won't tell you

Modifies the verb phrase 'won't tell'

(e) Adverbial Clause of Manner

This answers the question "how"? You should be aware that adverbial clause of manner can be identified with such words as *how, as, as if, etc.*

- (i) He talks as if he knows everything.

Modifies the verb 'talks'

- (ii) She dances as an insect does.

Modifies the verb 'dances'

(iii) They prayed as if only prayer could solve their problem.

Modifies the verb 'prayed'

(v) Constance thinks the way her father wants.

Modifies the verb 'thinks'

(f) Adverbial Clause of Condition

This gives the condition under which something or event will happen. You should know here too that adverbial clause of condition can be identified with words such as *unless, if, except, unless, until, etc.*

(i) Unless you are rightly connected, you may not make headway.

Modifies the verb phrase 'may not make'

(ii) If you think you are the wisest person, you are the king of the fools.

Modifies the verb 'are'

(iii) Except the masses voice out, the government may do nothing about their plight.

Modifies the verb phrase 'may do'

(iv) Until we believe in the sanctity of human life, this society may not witness peace.

Modifies the verb phrase 'may not witness'

(v) Provided you know him, you can consult him.

Modifies the verb phrase 'can consult'

○ Instruction: identify the grammatical functions of these underlined expressions:

(i) Although the community made peace with its neighbor, it was not spared in the blame.

(ii) Mr. Bonny has always addressed his students as if they were mates.

• Feedback

(ii) It **modifies** the verb phrase "was not spared".

(iii) It **modifies** the verb phrase 'has always addressed'.

4.2.5.5 Verbless Clause

It is good for you to know that it is possible to delete the verb be and its other forms, as well as the subject in some subordinate clauses and the expression will still be meaningful. When this happens, it usually results in a verbless clause. In other words, a verbless clause can be conceived as an elliptical form of a subordinate clause with the verb be (or its other forms) omitted.

Examples include these:

- i. If possible, see me at noon.
(If it is possible, see me at noon).
 - ii. React when necessary.
(React when it is necessary)
 - iii. Whether rough or smooth, I must get to my destination.
(Whether the road is rough or smooth, I must get to my destination).
 - iv. This proposal will yield great dividends if fully implemented.
(This proposal will yield great dividends, if it is fully implemented).
- Add the elements that have been deleted from these verbless clauses”:
- i. If uncooked, the meat tastes really bad.
 - ii. Whether done or not, the activities are already on the time-table.

- Feedback

The elements that are deleted are “it” and “is”. If **it is** uncooked

The elements that are deleted are “it” and “is”. Whether **it is** done or not

4.2.5.6 Unit Summary

In the unit above, you have been taught noun clause and its functions; adjectival clause and its functions and adverbial clause and its functions. You have also learnt how to use verbless clauses.

4.2.6 The Sentence

This unit deals with the meaning of sentence, the types and their functions.

4.2.6.1 Learning Outcomes

At end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 1 define a sentence
- 2 identify sentences based on structure
- 3 identify sentences based on function

4.2.6.2 What is a Sentence?

You need to know that the sentence can be looked at from different perspectives. For instance, some scholars see it as a group of words beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop. Some others have looked at it as a group of words having a subject and a predicate. Here, the view we want to take is that a sentence is a group of related words that express complete thought.

- The sentence has been described in the following ways except one:
 - a. as beginning with capital letters and ending with full stop
 - b. as a group of words that can't stand alone
 - c. as a complete thought
 - d. as containing subject and predicate
- The correct answer is B (**as a group of words that can't stand alone**), because a sentence actually can stand alone as far as it expresses a complete thought.

4.2.6.3 Types of Sentences

The sentence does not usually form a part of any grammatical unit. However, we can talk about such discourse units as the paragraph and the text which are above the

sentence. Also, you should know that there are two major parameters for classifying sentences: *form/structure* and *function*. We are going to first look at sentence typology from the perspective of form/structure. In this view, we look at the number of verbs and the number and types of clauses contained in the sentence. Therefore, you can identify the following sentence types: *simple, compound, complex* and *compound-complex*.

a. Sentence Based on Structure

Let us look at the classification of sentences based on their structures.

i. Simple Sentence

Simple sentence expresses a single complete thought. It has only one main verb.

Examples include:

1. Shefiyat is wise.
2. He laughed.
3. Esosa brought that book.
4. On that matter, I have crossed the Rubicon.
5. Thinking about the loss everyday has weighed her down.
6. I will win many awards.

ii. Compound Sentence

This is a combination of at least two simple sentences. You should know that in forming compound sentence, you will need to employ coordination conjunction such as *and or but*. You also know that compound sentence can actually be broken down into simple sentences.

Examples are:

1. Eat well but don't over eat.
 - Eat well.
 - Don't over eat.
2. Come and dance.

- Come.
 - Dance.
3. Leave now and never come again.
 - Leave now.
 - Never come again.
 4. We went to the manager, begged him, but he did not listen to us.
 - We went to the manager.
 - We begged him.
 - He did not listen to us.
 5. He goes to the stream every evening but he doesn't swim.
 - He goes to the stream every evening.
 - He doesn't swim.

iii. Complex Sentence

You should know that complex sentence contains a main clause and at least a subordinate clause. While coordinating conjunctions are used for compound sentences, subordinating conjunctions such as *when, if, after, where, who, which, because, etc.* are used when joining main and subordinate clauses to form a complex sentence.

Examples are:

1. The day which I will never forget has not come.
 - The day has not come. (main clause)
 - which I will never forget (subordinate clause)
2. Because he is a genius, they hate him no matter how nice he tries to be.
 - They hate him. (main clause)
 - because he is a genius (subordinate clause)
 - no matter how nice he tries to be (subordinate clause)

3. A man needs a wife, if he can find one.
 - A man needs a wife. (main clause)
 - If he can find one. (subordinate clause)
4. They laughed when I entered.
 - They laughed. (main clause)
 - when I entered (subordinate clause)
5. Some ladies appreciate you only when you are rich.
 - Some ladies appreciate you. (main clause)
 - only when you are rich (subordinate clause)

iv. Compound-Complex Sentence

This is a combination of compound and complex sentences. Essentially, it consists of at least, two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause. Examples include:

1. They came and left immediately when they saw the woman.
 - They came. (main clause)
 - They left immediately. (main clause)
 - when they saw the woman (subordinate clause)
2. Whenever you are disappointed, see the disappointment as a blessing in disguise and press on so that you can get to your haven.
 - See the disappointment as a blessing in disguise. (main clause)
 - Press on. (main clause)
 - whenever you are disappointed (subordinate clause)
 - so that you can get to your haven (subordinate clause)
3. When you are criticised, examine yourself but don't reply your detractors so that they don't feel important.
 - Examine yourself. (main clause)

- Don't reply your detractors. (main clause)
- when you are criticised (subordinate clause)
- so that they don't feel important (subordinate clause)

4. We sleep and wake up because God still needs us in the world.

- We sleep. (main clause)
- We wake up. (main clause)
- because God still needs us in the world (subordinate clause)

You should note that it is not how long or how short a sentence is that determines the name we give it; rather, it is the parts of it that indicate its name.

○ **Identify the structure of the following sentences:**

- i. Pray while you are alive so that you can live long.
- ii. The farmer toiled for so many months but could not realize sufficient harvests.
- iii. In spite of Modise's innumerable efforts to secure visa to study nursing in the US last year, he was denied his wish continuously.

• **Feedback**

- i. It is a **complex sentence**, because it has a main clause (**pray**) and two subordinate clauses (**while you are alive; so that you can live long**).
- ii. It is a **compound sentence**, because it possesses two main clauses/two simple sentences (**the farmer toiled for so many months; the farmer could not realize sufficient harvests**) joined together by a coordinating conjunction (**but**).
- iii. It is a **simple sentence**, because it has only an idea/a predicator (**was denied**).

b) Sentence Based on Function

We now want to consider sentence types based on function. You should be aware that there are four types of such sentences: *declarative*, *imperative*, *interrogative* and *exclamatory*.

i) Declarative/Statement

This is a sentence that makes a statement of fact. The statement may be true or false. It may also be in the affirmative or in the negative.

Examples include:

1. Times are hard for many Nigerians.
2. They are not trustworthy.
3. There is no sane rapist.
4. Some ladies are shameless.
5. At times, the best man for a position is a woman.

ii) Imperative/Command

An imperative sentence is one that makes a command or an entreaty. The subject is usually you but it is often deleted because it is understood.

Examples include:

1. Keep quiet.
2. Give us this day our daily bread.
3. Don't go out at night.
4. Love your neighbour as yourself.
5. Blame them for my shortcomings.
6. See me tomorrow.

iii) Interrogative/Question

An interrogative sentence is one that asks a direct question. The question may be *polar (Yes/No) question* or a *Wh-type question*. You should be aware that an interrogative sentence ends with a question mark.

Examples:

1. Have you studied him enough?
2. How promiscuous is he?
3. What is wrong with that dog?
4. Can we go now?
5. Did he read the letter?

In addition, you should note that not all sentences that end with a question mark are interrogative in function. You should consider the sentences below:

1. Will you keep quiet?
2. Shall we pray?
3. Could you send me the parcel?
4. Will you get out of my presence?

These sentences are commands that are hidden as requests and requests that are hidden as questions. They are attempts not to make the imperatives bold. They are mild imperatives. The sentences are used for politeness to the addressee(s).

iv) Exclamations

This is a sentence that is used to express sudden feelings or emotions. It ends with an exclamatory mark. At times, it looks like a question but it is not. It merely expresses outburst of strong feelings or emotions.

Examples:

1. Can this be my Constance!
 2. What a nice gift!
 3. You are a rare gem!
 4. Why are we so favoured!
 5. Can I believe this!
- Identify the following sentences based on function.
 - i. Why were you absent in my class yesterday?
 - ii. Repent and forsake your sin.
 - iii. Lanre is sanguine.

- **Feedback**

- i. It is an **interrogative sentence**, because it asks a question and ends with question mark (?).
 - ii. It is an **imperative sentence**, because it gives command.
- b. It is a **declarative sentence**, because it states a fact about Lanre.

4.3 Unit Summary

In the above unit, you have been taught what a sentence is. You have also been introduced to the classification of sentence based on structure and function.

4.4 Bibliography

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4.5 Assignment

Discuss the hierarchical elements of language.

- i. What is a morpheme? Give five examples of words with morphemes, indicating the types of morpheme that constitute the words.
- ii. Differentiate a phrase from a clause. Give five examples.
- iii. What are verbless clauses? Give two sentences with verbless clauses.
- iv. Sentences can be classified according to forms and functions. Discuss.

Mark X in the appropriate box.

	Sentence	Clause	Phrase	Word	Morpheme
In as much as you love your life					
Yes.					
Telephone					
Sister(s) <i>identify the class of sister</i>					
The beautiful well decorated house					

4.6 Module Summary

In this module, you have been exposed to the grammatical units of English, what they mean, and how to differentiate between morphemes, words, phrases, clauses and sentences. You have been exposed to the types of phrases and clauses as well as how they are to be used in contexts. You have also learnt the classification of sentences based on structure and function.

5.0 MODULE FOUR: GRAMMATICAL USAGE- WORD CLASSES

5.1 Getting Prepared

The aim of this module is to explain to you that words in English can be classified into different parts of speech based on the meaning, form and function of the words. Parts of speech are also referred to as word classes. The parts of speech you will be introduced to here are nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The sentence structure consist of elements that comprise units which can be referred to as parts of speech or word classes.

5.2 Module Goals

At the end of this module, you should be able to:

- 5.4.1 categorise words into two main groups;
- 5.2.2 identify and use determiners appropriately;
- 5.2.3 identify the types of nouns and their characteristics;
- 5.2.4 state the types of pronouns and how to use them;
- 5.2.5 state the forms of verb, tense and aspect, mood, voice and transitivity;
- 5.2.6 identify adverbs and their functions in sentences;
- 5.2.7 identify adjectives and their functions;
- 5.2.8 mention the types of preposition;
- 5.2.9 appropriately use conjunctions to link words, phrases, clauses and sentences and
- 5.2.10 correctly apply interjections in sentences.

5.2 Word Classes

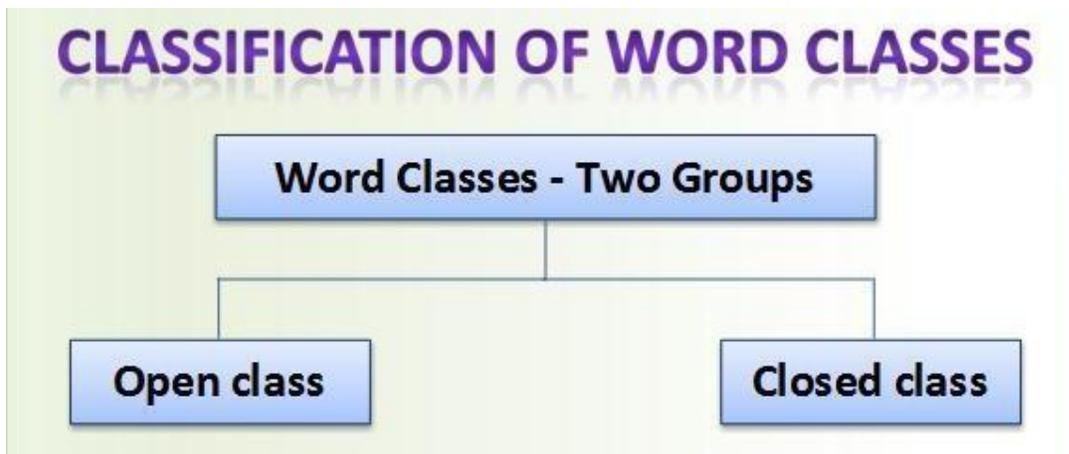
All the words in English can be broadly divided into two categories: **open** and **closed**. Words belonging to open class can have new words added to the class as the need arises. For instance, nouns have increased constantly, especially in the age of technology when new words such as *Internet, website, URL, CD-ROM, email,*

newsgroup, bitmap, modem, multimedia have emerged. There are also new verbs such as *download, upload, reboot, right-click, double-click etc.* On the other hand, closed word class is made up of finite sets of words which are never expanded. These are prepositions, determiners or conjunctions. These classes include words like *of, the,* and *but.*

5.2.1.1 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

categorise the parts of speech into open and closed classes.



5.2.1.2 Closed Class

This word class does not easily accept new words. Its members are fixed and do not usually change. Closed class words are relatively limited in number. They are sometimes referred to as grammatical or function words. These words include *pronouns, prepositions, interjections, determiners, conjunctions* and *auxiliary verbs.*

5.2.1.3 Open Class

These words belong to the major parts of speech namely: *nouns, verbs (lexical or main), adjectives,* and *adverbs.* In any language these are quite large and open-ended. This means you can create or add an unlimited number of new words to this category.

The parts of speech in this class make up about 90% of the words in your personal vocabularies. It is possible to coin new words in this class.

- Words are generally categorised into and classes.
 - a) countable/uncountable
 - b) adverb/adjective
 - c) open/closed
 - d) pronoun/preposition
- The correct answer is C (**open/closed class**). Parts of speech are generally categorised into these two classes.
- is an example of closed class.
 - a) adverb
 - b) adjective
 - c) noun
 - d) preposition
- The correct answer is D (**preposition**). Preposition in English language does not accept new words.

5.2.2 Determiners

These are words that you can use to introduce nouns in English sentences. They can also occur with other modifiers (e.g. adjectives) and nouns to form noun phrases. Some determiners can only be used with countable nouns while others can be used with uncountable nouns. Some examples of determiners that you can use with countable nouns are: **many, some, a, an, a few, few, a lot of, this, that, those, these**, etc. Some determiners that you can use with uncountable nouns include **much, some, a little**, etc.

5.2.2.1 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to identify the following determiners:

- Articles;
- Possessives;
- Quantifiers;
- demonstratives and
- numerals.

5.2.2.2 Types of Determiners

There are different types of determiners in English language. They are discussed below.

i) Articles

These are words you use with nouns to specify if the noun is specific or not. There are two types of articles. These are the definite and the indefinite articles. The definite article is '**the**', while the indefinite articles are '**a**' and '**an**'. Below, you can see how these articles are used with nouns:

Definite article

the teacher

the students

the egg

Indefinite article

a teacher

a student

an egg

It is important for you to note that 'a' is used before a word that starts with a consonant sound whereas 'an' is used before a word that starts with a vowel sound.

Identify the articles in the questions below.

- The woman has eaten some food today.
- The right word is **the**. It is the only definite article in the sentence.
- Titi said she has a book to read.

- The answer is the article **a**. It is the only article in the sentence.

ii) Possessives: These are words used with nouns to show possession or ownership of the nouns following them. Possessives are pronouns like **his, her, their, your, our, my, its**, etc

Examples:

his book **our** offices

her pencil **your** bag

Identify the possessive pronouns in the sentences below.

○ This is your book.

- The answer is **your**, because it is the only possessive determiner in the sentence.

○ They have given **us** the two results.

- The answer is **us**, because that is the only possessive determiner.

iii) Quantifiers: These are determiners that indicate or show the quantities of nouns following them. Examples are **many, any, some, a few, few, a lot of, much, both, a little, each, every, one of, several, most**, etc.

Examples:

a few people

some salt

many ladies

each student

a lot of ideas

much time

Identify the quantifiers in the sentences below.

○ All the students can read.

- The answer is **all**, because it is the word that tells us of quantity in the sentence.

○ The woman has eaten some food today.

- The answer is **some**, because it quantifies the noun food.

iv) Demonstratives: These are pronouns that point to the nouns they are referring to or modifying. These are **this, that, these and those**.

this boy **these** boys

that man **those** men

Instruction: identify the demonstratives in the sentences below.

- That pen belongs to Peter.
- The correct answer is **that**, because it points to the noun 'Pen' which is the reference in the sentence.
- Tunde owns those houses.
- The answer is **those** because it points to the noun houses.

v) Numerals: These indicate numbers and positions occupied (in a sentence). Numerals are divided into two: cardinal and ordinal. Cardinals deal with numbers. Some examples are **one, two three, four, five** etc. Ordinals indicate positions. Some example of ordinals include **first, second, third**, etc.

Identify the numerals in the following sentences.

- Two years ago, my uncle bought me a piano.
- The answer is the word **two**, and it is a cardinal numeral.
- Lola is the fourth child in her family.
- The correct answer is the word **fourth**, and it is an ordinal numeral.

5.2.3 Nouns

These are words that are used to make reference to persons, places, animals, objects and ideas. In other words, nouns are words that name persons, places, animals, ideas, etc. Some examples are *John, Adewole, Lagos, Kaduna, tiger, chimpanzee, chair, shoe, honesty, courage, happiness, goodness*, etc.

5.2.3.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i) state the characteristics of nouns and
- ii) identify the various types of nouns

5.2.3.2 Characteristics of Nouns

Nouns in English display certain features. Let us take a look at the following:

- a) Only nouns can take determiners such as the, an, a, some, this, that, etc.
Example: a lawyer, a house, the teacher, some people, my mind, an orange, etc.
- b) Nouns are mostly changed into plural forms by the simple addition of plural markers: - s, -es, -ies.

Examples:

Singular

lawyer
house
box
baby

Plural

lawyer**s**
house**s**
box**es**
baby**ies**

You can still pluralise certain nouns through some other means. For example:

- i. by changing the internal vowel as in: tooth - **teeth**; mouse - **mice**.
- ii. by foreign plural as in: stadium - **stadiums**; medium - **media**.

However, there are some nouns which cannot change their forms. Some examples are sheep-sheep; deer- deer, etc.

- c) Only nouns indicate their possessive forms by taking apostrophe, plus 's.' Here are some examples for you.

Ordinary form

John
lawyer

Possessive form

John's
lawyer's

- d) You can also form some nouns by the addition of certain suffixes like: (-tion; -ion; or; -ness; -hood; -ian; -it; -ment; -ist; -ation). Here are some examples to demonstrate this process of noun formation.

-hood	-ian	-ity
father hood	politician	Visibility

-ment	-ist	-ation
Movement	motorist	Education

- o I
- o Identify the nouns in the following sentences:

i. Mary's house is beautiful.

- "Mary's" and "house" are nouns. "Mary" can take the possessive ('s) and "house" can be pluralized. These are characteristics of nouns.

ii. He ate an apple.

- "Apple" is a noun. Only a noun that starts with a vowel sound can take the indefinite article "an".

5.2.3.3 Classes of Noun

You can classify nouns in the English language into the following types:

- Proper Noun;s
- Common Nouns and

- Collective Nouns

i) Proper Nouns

These are the names that we give to particular persons, places. Some examples are: *John, Tunde, Lagos*, etc. All these proper nouns have some characteristics which are not shared with other nouns, like the capitalization of initial letters.

You would note that proper nouns are not usually used in the plural. They always appear in the singular form. Consider the following examples:

- (i) Adewole built a house.
- (ii) Ibadan is my home.

Proper nouns can also be sub-classified into the following:

- Personal names: e.g Bayo, Goodluck, Ighodaro, etc.
- Names of countries, states, cities, rivers, oceans: e.g. Nigeria, Ghana, Cross River, Kano, Pacific Ocean, River Niger
- Names of months and days: December, Sunday, etc.
- Names of newspapers, magazines, titles of books, plays: e.g. *The Punch; The News, The Nation*
- Names of Festivals: e.g. Good Friday, Ramadan, Eid, Boxing Day, etc.
- Names of important places such as offices, buildings, hospitals, etc. Loyola College, Cocoa House, Cultural Centre.

Identify the proper nouns in the following sentences.

- John is an intelligent man.
 - The correct answer is **John**, because it is the name of a person.
- Five new pages have been added to *The Punch* newspaper.
 - The answer is **The Punch**, because names of newspapers are also proper nouns.

ii) Common Nouns

These are names that do not specify a particular person, place, animal or object. They refer to a class of people, places, animals or objects. Examples are teacher, animal, vehicle, friend, etc. Common nouns are of two types: concrete and abstract nouns.

a) Concrete Nouns

These refer to things that have physical forms. Concrete nouns are tangible e.g. car, spoon, etc.

b) Abstract Nouns

These are names of entities that have no physical forms. That is, those nouns that are immaterial e.g.; peace, hope, love, kindness, honesty, etc.

Instruction: Identify the types of nouns underlined below.

- These days **people** no longer travel by air.
- It is a common/concrete noun. It is the name given to any group of person and you can also touch them.
- **Frustration** is the cause of many deaths today.
- The answer is abstract noun. The reason is that you cannot feel, see or touch the idea.

iii) Collective Nouns

These are nouns that name or refer to groups or a collection of people, animals or things as unified entities e.g. audience, committee, family, team, etc. Collective nouns display two features, which are as follows:

(a) They can take either a singular or a plural verb.

Examples are:

- (i) The team leaves for London next week.
- (ii) The family were divided in their opinion.

In (i) above, members of the team are considered as a single unit, whereas, (ii) shows that individual members of the team are being considered.

- (b) Some of the collective nouns are specific to certain groups of people, animals, or objects. Examples: a swarm of bees, a troop of soldiers, bunch of keys, a herd of cattle, etc.

iv) **Count Nouns and Non-count Nouns**

You can also classify nouns in English into count and non-count nouns.

Count Nouns

These are nouns which can be counted and are realised in both the singular and plural forms. Example:

Singular	Plural
window	windows
room	rooms
car	cars

Count nouns can take the definite and the indefinite articles a, an, the. Examples: a room, a dog, an envelope, an elephant, the room.

You can also use count nouns with the cardinal numerals because they can be counted. Examples: one room, one dog, two elephants, etc.

b) **Non-Count Nouns**

These are nouns that cannot be counted. They are also called uncountable nouns. They are always in the singular form. You can also call them mass nouns because they exist as an undifferentiated mass. Some examples here include water, gold, furniture, equipment, information, etc. Other examples of non-count nouns in English are abstract nouns such as *loyalty, faithfulness, endurance*, etc.

However, there are many concrete nouns which are still non-count nouns. Although they can be seen or touched, they can still not be counted, because you cannot separate them into single units. For example, *paper, salt, water, oil*, etc.

Even though they can be seen or touched, they cannot be separated into single units. However, you can use certain units of measurement to indicate quantities of these nouns. For example, you can say a piece of paper, a cup of wine, a litre of oil, etc.

Instruction: What kinds of nouns are the underlined words in the following sentences?

- The crew were the last to alight from the plane.
- The word 'crew' is a collective noun. However, it can be used in both singular and plural forms.
- She likes much oil in her stew.
- The answer is collective noun. It can only be used in forms of measurements and not as individual units.

5.2.4 Pronouns

Pronouns are words that you can use instead of nouns. In a discourse you can use pronouns when you do not know the name of the person or thing you are referring to. You can also use pronouns to refer to persons or things when you do not want a third party to know what you are talking about. There are different types of pronouns in English language as you can see below.

5.2.4.1 Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

use the types of pronouns appropriately in making sentences.

5.2.4.2 Types of Pronouns

The following are the types of pronoun you can find in the English language:

- Personal pronoun;
- Possessive pronoun;
- Reciprocal pronoun;

- Reflexive pronoun;
- Indefinite pronoun;
- Emphatic pronoun;
- Relative pronoun;
- Demonstrative pronoun;
- Numerical pronoun and
- Interrogative pronoun.

i) Personal Pronouns

These are pronouns used to refer to persons and non-persons. Examples are *I, we, me, us, she, her, it, you, they, and them*. These are categorised into three in terms of person and number. Study the table below.

Person	Number	Gender	Subject	Object
1 st Person	Singular		I	We
	Plural		We	Us
2 nd Person	Singular		You	You
	Plural			
3 rd Person	Singular	Masculine	He	Him
		Feminine	She	Her
	Plural	non person	It	It
			They	Them

Identify the type of pronoun in italics in the sentences below.

- *He* can get her to do his bidding.

- The answer is **He**. It is a (masculine) third person singular subjective pronoun.
- This is *its* time of breeding.
- The answer is **its**. The word is a (non person) singular objective pronoun.

ii) Possessive Pronouns

These are pronouns that indicate possession or ownership of particular things. Examples are *mine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, and theirs*.

You can use them as indicated in the examples below.

1. The book is mine.
2. The car is theirs.
3. The building is hers.

iii) Reciprocal Pronouns

These are expressions such as *each other* and *one another*. You can use them to show mutual interaction between or among a group of people. You can use reciprocal pronouns as they are used in the following examples:

1. Husband and wife should love **each other**.

'each other' is often used for two persons or items. However, the dictionary confirms it can be used interchangeably with "one another".

2. Members of the department could not see **one another** at the conference.

'one another' is often used for more than two persons or items. However, the dictionary confirms it can be used interchangeably with "each other".

Instruction: Identify the types of pronoun used in the sentences below.

- The boys in that family love themselves.

- The answer is **themselves**. It is a **reciprocal** pronoun because it involves the interaction of all the people that constitute the subject of the sentence which is 'The boys.'
- These are their toys.
- The answer is **their**. It is a possessive pronoun.

iv) Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns function as grammatical object, and they refer to the subjects of the clauses or sentences in which they appear. Examples are *myself, yourself, himself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves* and *oneself*.

Here are some examples

1. I need to take care of **myself**.
2. We are only worrying **ourselves** for nothing.
3. They should blame **themselves** for their misfortunes.

v) Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are words that refer to quantity unknown. You should know as well that these are pronouns you use to refer to people or things in general. Examples are *many, both, few, all, any, another, every, some, everything, nothing, something, no one, none, anything* etc. However, you should know that some of these examples are compound words and always written together with no space between them. Here are examples used in sentence for you.

1. *Nothing* is impossible before God.
2. *Many* came to write the test; eventually, *few* were chosen from them.
3. I know *something* is still missing in the essay.

vi) Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns you use to ask questions. Examples include *who, what, whom, which, whose*, etc. Here are examples for you as they can be used in sentences.

1. *Who* are you?
2. *Which* do you want?
3. *What* is it exactly?

vii) Emphatic Pronouns

Emphatic pronouns are also called intensive pronouns. They lay emphasis on the subject of the sentence. They also end in "-self" and "-selves". The difference between the reflexive and emphatic pronoun is that in the former, the action performed by the subject is on the same subject, whereas in the latter, the action performed by the subject is not on the subject. Here are some examples for you.

1. Franklin failed *himself* (reflexive pronoun).
2. Franklin *himself* failed to turn up (Emphatic).

Emphatic pronouns are italicised in the sentences below:

1. Dr. Johnson *himself* sponsored the programme.
2. My friend *himself* testified to the statement.

Instruction: name the types of pronouns in the sentences below.

- Bimpe has injured herself.
 - The answer is *herself*. It is a **reflexive pronoun** because it refers back to the subject of the sentence, Bimpe.
- Lawal *himself* was present at the meeting.
 - The answer is an **emphatic** pronoun because it emphasizes the subject of the sentence, Lawal.

viii) Relative Pronouns

These are linking pronouns. You use relative pronouns to introduce relative clauses and link them with the main clauses in complex sentences. Examples are *whom*, *which*, *that*, *whose*, and *who*. Below are some examples for you.

1. The man *who* gave us a ride is around.
2. That is the car *which* I bought.
3. That is the dog *that/which* killed the antelope.

You should note the following:

- 'who' is used for human beings while 'which' is used for non-human.
- 'That' can be used to replace 'who' and 'which'.
- 'Which' cannot be used to replace 'who' and vice versa.

ix) Demonstrative Pronouns

These are pronouns that point out the nouns they are referring to in sentences. Examples are *this, these, that, those*. They are divided into singular and plural forms, *this, that* (singular); *these, those* (plural). Demonstrative pronouns are used in the sentences below.

1. *This* is my pen.
2. *That* is the house where I live.
3. *These* are our books.
4. *Those* are the people that misbehaved yesterday.

From the above examples, you can see that 'this' and 'these' are used to refer to objects or people that are nearby, whereas 'that' and 'those' are used to refer to objects or people that are far away.

Instruction: identify the type of pronouns in the following sentences.

- Those oranges are sour.
 - The answer is *Those*. It is a **demonstrative pronoun**.
- The man who bought the kettle has travelled.
 - The right answer is *who*. It is **relative pronoun**.

x) Numerical Pronouns

You use these to show the number or position a thing or a subject occupies in a scheme or arrangement. Numerical pronouns are of two types:

- Cardinals are words such as *one, two, three*, etc.
- Ordinals are words like *first; second; third*, etc.

1. Many people were invited but only *two* will be interviewed.

2. My father has *two* houses, the *first* is in Lagos and the *second* is in Ibadan.

Instruction: identify the types of numerical pronoun used in the sentences below.

- Bola is the fourth child in her family.
- The correct word is *fourth*. It is an **ordinal numerical** pronoun because it refers to position.
- My mother bought five chairs for the family.
- The correct answer is *five*. It is a **cardinal numerical** pronoun because it talks about number.

5.2.5 The Verb

A verb is a word that expresses an action or a state of being. It talks about the action the subject is involved in or the state of being of the subject (reference). It is important for you to know that without a verb, a sentence will be ungrammatical. Verbs are classified into different types depending on the function they perform in sentences. These are *lexical or main verbs, auxiliary verbs, linking verbs and transitive/intransitive verbs*.

5.2.5.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

classify verbs and use them

identify the verbal elements and apply them appropriately

5.2.5.3 Lexical or Main Verbs

One of the types of verbs as mentioned earlier is lexical or main verb. Lexical or main verbs are those single action words that do not require other words before the actions they express are understood. Below are some examples for you to consider.

- i. I *go* home every day.

- ii. We *eat* rice.
- iii. Johnson *sleeps* in the room.

Unless you have lexical verbs assisted by pure auxiliaries, they cannot occur in the "-ing" form. It is therefore wrong for you to say or write the sentences above in the following ways.

*I going home.

*We eating rice.

*Johnson sleeping in the room.

i) Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are those words that help the lexical verbs to express their actions. Examples:

1. I *am* jumping.
2. They *are* coming.
3. He *has* finished his work.
4. They *have* gone to school.

Auxiliary verbs are of two types, which you must note. These are primary and modal auxiliaries.

a) Primary/ Non-Modal Auxiliary Verbs

The primary auxiliary verbs are further divided into three sub-types. These are as listed for you below:

- **verb to be** (am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been)
- **verb to have** (has, have, had, having)
- **verb to do** (does, do, did)

You should note that the primary auxiliary verbs manifest in various forms, depending on the tense and number of the subject.

b) Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Modal auxiliary verbs are used to express the mood of the verb. The mood can be that of ability or capability, permission, probability, obligation, willingness, volition, intention and compulsion. The following are modal auxiliaries that you need to know. *will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must; ought; dare; need*. Here are some examples for you to consider:

- a) I *will* do the work. (willingness)
- b) They *should* go and see their sister. (obligation)
- c) I *can* work for three days. (ability)
- d) You *must* not go out today. (compulsion)
- e) I *will* not disturb your privacy. (volition)
- f) You *may* go there yourself. (permission)
- g) *May* I open the door? (permission)

ii) Linking Verbs

You use linking verbs to connect the subject of a sentence and its predicate together to show some kind of equality between them. Here are some examples:

1. Franklin *is* a student.
2. Teachers *are* loving and caring.
3. Everybody *is* worn out.
4. The work *seems* easier.

iii) Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

A transitive verb takes an object to complete the sense of a sentence while an intransitive verb makes sense without an object. In most cases, when the question 'what' is asked after the verb in a sentence, if there is an answer to that question, the answer is the object of the verb while the verb is a transitive verb. However, when there is no answer to that question, the verb is intransitive. Let us take a look at the following sentences:

A boy **broke** the car window.

He **died** peacefully in his sleep.

There are two verbs in these two sentences they are *broke* and *died*. If the question 'what' is asked after *broke* in the first sentence, the answer will be *the window*. This means *broke* is a transitive verb. However, if the question what is asked after *died*, there is no answer because *peacefully in his sleep* answers the question 'how' not 'what.' This makes *died* an intransitive verb.

In some cases a verb could be both transitive and intransitive, depending on how it is used. Let us look at the following sentences:

Plants **grow** fast in the bush.

I **grow** plants.

In the first sentence *grow* is intransitive while it is transitive in the second sentence.

- Mark X in the correct box to indicate the type of verb used in the following sentences.

Sentence	Transitive	Intransitive
The baby is sleeping peacefully in his crib.		
We must punish the offenders.		
He has bought another car.		
The students blocked all the gates into the campus.		
The woman wept bitterly.		

Feedback

Sentence	Transitive	Intransitive
The baby is sleeping peacefully in his crib.		X
We must punish the offenders.	X	
He has bought another car.	X	
The students blocked all the gates into the campus.	X	
The woman wept bitterly.		X

5.2.5.4 Verbal Elements

Verbs can also be studied based on their properties. These include tense, aspect, mood and voice.

1) Tense

The term "tense" is derived from the Latin word "tempus" meaning "time". In English language, reference to the time an action takes place or state of being (whether at the moment, in the past or future) is indicated in verbs. In this unit, you shall be exposed to the following forms of tense, simple present tense, simple past tense and future tense.

i) Simple Present Tense

The simple present tense is used to express:

(a) a state of being at the moment of utterance e.g.

1. We **are** very busy now.
2. I **am** pleased.
3. Your old man **is** dead.

(b) a report of an ongoing action e.g.

1. Here **comes** the rogue.
2. Oriaku **passes** the ball to Okparaji.

(c) express general truths or facts e.g.

1. Knowledge **is** power.
2. Time **is** money
3. Death **is** inevitable.
4. The sun **rises** in the east.

(d) references made to books, or any document as exemplified in the following sentences:

1. The Bible **maintains** that Jesus died for the sins of man.
2. The constitution **states** that no citizen should be unlawfully detained.
3. The novel, So Long a Letter, written by Mariama Ba **exposes** the problems faced by women in polygamous homes.

(e) habitual actions e.g.

1. I **study** the Bible every Sunday.
2. Chioma **goes** to school by bus.
3. The children **eat** a lot on weekends.

(f) future events or actions

However you need to note that when the simple present tense is used to express future actions, an adverb indicating time should be stated.

1. The president **addresses** a world press conference tomorrow.
2. The new TV-station **begins** transmission early next month.
3. The seminar **comes** up next week.
4. She **leaves** this place first thing tomorrow.

ii) Simple Past Tense

The simple past tense is marked by the use of the past form of a verb. It is usually expressed using single verbs that are in the past form. The simple past tense is used when:

(a) reporting an action or event that took place in the past.

1. The examiners **awarded** marks generously.
2. The tutorial classes also **helped** a lot.
3. However, the unlucky few **cursed** their stars.

(b) narrating or lamenting an experience or state of things in the past.

1. Dedication to duty **used** to be admirably high in the Civil Service.

2. The University of Ibadan **used** to admit, as well as employ, only the decent and diligent people.

(c) an event scheduled for a particular time in the future is changed or aborted.

1. They **were** to travel to the United States tomorrow.
2. We **expected** to see them at the occasion.
3. The salaries **were** supposed to be paid tomorrow but for certain crucial reasons, they will be paid next week.

(d) referring to a past habitual action, e.g.

1. We **were** always at home after church on Sundays.
2. She **was** always out of school during the weekends in her undergraduate days.
3. They **were** never friendly as neighbours.
4. I **went** to school by bus.

You are to know that verbs can be categorised based on how they form their past tense and past participle. Thus, they can be classified into regular and irregular verbs.

Regular verbs derive their past tense and past participle forms by taking past tense suffix "-d" or "-ed" or 't' as in the following:

(a) "-d"

Present	Past	Past Participle
note	noted	noted
dance	danced	danced
phone	phoned	phoned
decide	decided	decided

(b) "-ed"

Present	Past	Past Participle
count	counted	counted
pass	passed	passed
add	added	added
rush	rushed	rushed

(c) "t"

Present	Past	Past Participle
sleep	slept	slept
Weep	wept	wept
Deal	dealt	dealt
Feel	felt	felt

Irregular verbs on the other hand, do not form their past tense and past participle this way. They are in three categories:

- a. There is no change in the present, past and past participle forms :

Present	Past	Past Participle
Cut	cut	cut
spread	spread	spread
Put	put	put
Hurt	hurt	hurt

- b. The past and participle forms are different :

Present	Past	Past participle
do	did	done
See	saw	seen
Go	went	gone
Speak	spoke	spoken
Write	wrote	written
Eat	ate	eaten
Run	ran	run
Ring	rang	rung

- c. The past and participle forms are the same

Present	Past	Past Participle
Tell	told	told
Catch	caught	caught
teach	taught	taught

iii) Future Tense

Some scholars believe that there is no future tense in English. However, you can express futurity in a number of ways, some of which are by using:

(1) "will". or "shall" e.g.

1. I **will** come tomorrow morning.
2. I **shall** come tomorrow morning.

You should note that "shall" is used with the first person (I, we) to express the simple future, while "will" is used to express a promise or certainty. Therefore, sentence (1) above expresses the strong intention of the speaker to come tomorrow morning while (2) simply expresses the simple future. On the other hand, when "will" is used with the second and the third persons (you, she/he/it/they), the simple future is expressed, whereas the use of "shall" in this case expresses an obligation.

(2) simple present tense e.g.

1. The president **leaves** for Togo tomorrow.
2. Our examination **starts** next week.

This is the case when the future action has been planned or fixed.

(3) present continuous tense e.g.

1. The president is **leaving** for Togo tomorrow.
2. Our examination is **starting** tomorrow.

The present continuous tense is used here just like the simple present explained above.

- **Instruction: Identify the correct sentence, using the simple present tense from the following list of sentences:**
 - a) I had read before the examination started.
 - b) He was reading when you looked.
 - c) Who reads next?
 - d) She will be reading the news tonight.
- The correct answer is option c. **Who reads next?** because "reads" is a simple present verb.
- Instruction: Tick the correct sentence using the simple past tense from the following list of sentences:
 - a. They read all day.

- b. He played football.
- c. She needs the money.
- d. You have been reading since morning.
- The correct answer is option a. **They read all day** because of the simple past verb, "read".
- **Instruction:** Tick the correct sentence using the future tense from the following list of sentences:
 - a. He will have been reading the news by 9:15 p.m.
 - b. You will be reading the news tonight.
 - c. She has read all day today.
 - d. She will have read the news by 10:00 p.m.
- The correct answer is a. **You will be reading the news tonight**, because the use of the verbs "will be reading" with the time adverb "tonight" expresses a future event.

2) Aspect

Aspect, like tense is also connected with the verb, or more generally, with the predicate. It relates to the perspective from which a verbal action is considered i.e. as being in progress (progressive aspect) or as having been completed (perfective aspect).

Aspect is shown through verbal inflections, and this applies to:

1. continuity
2. completedness

This now leads you to the different types of aspects.

i) Progressive Aspect (Continuity)

This aspect of verbs shows that the action described is, was, or will be continuous. The following sentences are examples:

- a. I *am learning* English grammar.
- b. You *are solving* some Mathematical problems.
- c. She *is rehearsing* her lines.
- d. We *are all doing* something.

The sentences above are in the present continuous form; they can be converted to:

- i. the past continuous form thus:

- 2a. I *was learning* English grammar.
- 2b. You *were solving* some mathematics problems.
- 2c. She *was rehearsing* her lines.
- 2d. We *were all doing* something.

ii. the future continuous. Thus, the sentences will become:

- 3a. I *will be learning* English grammar.
- 3b. You *will be solving* some mathematical problems.
- 3c. She *will be rehearsing* her lines.
- 3d. We *will all be doing* something.

ii) Perfective (Completedness)

This shows that an action or activity described has been completed. In other words, the action or activity described is already concluded. Examine the sentences below:

- a. I *have danced* (completed action)
- b. I *am dancing*. (action in progress)

Note that both progressive and perfective aspects can be contained in the same sentence e.g.

- a. I *have been reading*.
- b. We *have been dancing*.

3) Combination of Tense and Aspect

You would need to know that in English, tense and aspect can combine and when they do, we have what people commonly describe as:

(1) Present Progressive Tense

This is a combination of present tense and progressive (continuous) aspect. It is used to indicate an action in progress in the present.

Examples:

- (a) I am dancing merrily.
- (b) We are reading now.

(2) Past Progressive Tense

This combines past tense and progressive aspect. It is used to indicate an action in progress in the past.

Examples:

- (a) I was dancing merrily.
- (b) We were reading when you called.

(3) Present Perfect Tense

Here, you have the present tense plus the perfective aspect. It is used for a completed action in the past but which is still relevant to the present.

Examples:

- (a) I have written the note.
- (b) We have washed the plates.

(4) Past Perfect Tense

This is a combination of past tense and perfective aspect. This tense is used when at least two actions occurred in the past, with one occurring before the other. The action which occurred before the other is expressed in the past perfective, while the second action is expressed in the simple past.

Examples:

- (a) We *had written* the note before you came.
- (b) We *had washed* the plates before you finished cooking.

(5) Future Progressive

This also shows the combination of tense and aspect. It is used to express an action that will be in progress in the future e.g.

- (a) I *will be dancing* this time tomorrow.
- (b) We *shall be discussing* the matter with him this time tomorrow.

Some other combinations involving tense and aspect include:

(6) Present Perfect Progressive

- (a) I *have been reading*.
- (b) She *has been reading*.

(7) Future Present Progressive

- (a) I *shall have been dancing*.
- (b) I *will have been reading*.

(8) Future Present Perfective

- (a) I *shall have seen* the man.
- (b) We *will have done* the job.

Instruction: Pick the correct option.

- The police claim that a number of stolen vehicles ----- recovered.
 - a) have been
 - b) has being
 - c) is being
 - d) has been
- The correct answer is option d. **has been** because "a number" goes with the singular verb "has" which is usually followed by "been" not "being".
- Indian summer is a period of mild weather ----- during the autumn.
 - a) occurring
 - b) it occurring
 - c) it occurs
 - d) occurs
- The correct answer is **occurring** because it requires the "-ing" form and does not require another subject.
- Many of the herbs-----today originate from plants native to tropical regions.
 - a) being used
 - b) to use
 - c) been used
 - d) using

- The correct answer is option a. **being used** because the sentence requires a "BE" in the "-ing" form.

4) Mood

Mood is the attitude towards a subject. They are of five types: declarative mood, imperative mood, interrogative mood, exclamatory mood and subjunctive mood.

- Declarative mood:** You use the declarative mood to make statements. e.g.
 1. The children had fun at the party today.
 2. Playing football is my hobby.
- Imperative mood:** You use the imperative mood to give command. You should take note that the subject is removed in most cases. e.g.
 1. Come here now.
 2. Get up at once.
 3. Hurry up with your meal and join me in the kitchen.
- Interrogative mood:** You use the interrogative mood when you ask questions. e.g.
 1. Who are you?
 2. Why would she want to do that?
 3. Have you seen my friend recently?
- Exclamatory mood:** This is used when you express outburst of emotions or feelings. e.g.
 1. What a day!
 2. My God!
 3. Hurray!
- Subjunctive mood:** This is used to express wishes, desires or prayers e.g.
 1. We wish he were alive.
 2. May God bless you.
 3. Long live the king.

Instruction: Identify the mood in the following sentences:

- How did you get here?
- It is **interrogative** because it asks a question.
- I pray she gets well before her exams.

- It is **subjunctive** because it expresses a wish or prayer.
 - What have you done!
- It is **exclamatory** because it is expressed with emotion.
 - I would be there in ten minutes time.
- It is **declarative** because it is a statement.

5) Voice

The voice shows whether the subject is the performer or the receiver of an action. You need to know that the subject might not necessarily be the performer of the action (as indicated by the verb). There are usually participant roles that indicate meaning. Some of these roles include the actor (subject), affected (object), process (predicator or the verb).

This leads you to the two types of voices in English: active voice and passive voice .e.g.

- a. **Active:** Tolu stole the meat.
- b. **Passive:** The meat was stolen by Tolu.

In your active voice construction, the performer of the action is emphasized, unlike what you have in your passive voice sentence construction. The subject in the active voice construction acts as the actor, while in the passive, it functions as the affected.

To change a statement from active to passive voice, you would need to do the following:

- a. take the subject from the subject position to the object position and vice-versa.
- b. ensure the simple verb in the active is changed to past participle form which is usually preceded by a BE verb. However, the tense of the verb remains. e.g.

Active: He washes the baby's clothes. (Present tense)

Passive: The baby's clothes are washed by him.

Active: I bought the book (Past tense).

Passive: The book was bought by me.

Active: The man was teaching the students. (Past progressive)

Passive: The students were being taught by the man.

Active: We have cooked the food. (Present perfect)

Passive: The food has been cooked by us.

The BE verbs in the above passive constructions include "are", "was", "were", "being", "been".

- a. introduce a *by*-phrase , which is then followed by the actor (as indicated in the active voice).

a. Change the following from active to passive voice.

- The dog **was chasing** the children.
- The children **were being chased** by the dog.
- The young woman **has broken** the plates.
- The plates **have been broken** by the young woman.
- She **washes** the dishes every morning.
- The dishes **are washed** by her every morning.

b. Change the following from passive to active voice.

- The bell **was being rung** by the prefect when the teacher called him.
- The prefect **was ringing** the bell when the teacher called him.
- The food **was eaten** by John.
- John **ate** the food.

6) Direct and Indirect (Reported) Speeches

A direct speech is the real speech, usually made by the original speaker. When you write a direct speech, you are to enclose it in quotation marks. The indirect speech is the reported version of the direct speech. That is why it is also called the reported speech. For instance, a man asks you, "Why are you here?" If you want to tell a friend about it, it would be most appropriate to say: *The man asked me why I was there.* The statement made by the man is the direct speech, while the report to the friend is the reported speech or indirect speech.

i) Changing Direct Speech to Indirect Speech

To change a direct speech to indirect speech, you have to do the following:

- i. remove the quotation marks;
- ii. change the tense of the verb e.g. you change the present tense verb to past tense and the past tense to past perfect. This is called distancing.

Present tense → past tense

Past tense → past perfect

- iii. use reporting verbs like "said", "asked", "ordered", etc. to introduce the indirect speech
- iv. include "that" (this is optional)
- v. change words indicating closeness to words indicating distance e.g.

Direct Speech

Reported Speech

today

that day

tomorrow

the following day

yesterday

the previous day

here

there

I

he/ she

we

they

this

that

these

those

now

then

now

that moment (for commands)

next.....

the following.....

last....

the previous.....

However, you should not change lasting truths and accepted facts. Let us illustrate these rules with examples:

i. Olaolu said, "We will visit Ibadan next month" (direct).

Olaolu said that they would visit Ibadan the following month (reported).

ii. "The earth moves round the sun," the teacher said.

The teacher stated that the earth moves round the sun.

iii. "Have you eaten?" she asked me.

She asked me if I had eaten.

a. **Change the following from direct speech to indirect speech.**

- "Sit down," his father ordered him.
- His father ordered him to sit down.
- "What would you like to eat?" the hostess asked Femi.
- The hostess asked Femi what he would like to eat.
- "Go home and have some rest", the doctor advised him.
- The doctor advised him to go home have some rest.
- "I will be travelling to Abuja this week", the manager said.
- The manager said that he would be travelling to Abuja the following week.

7) Concord

In grammar, concord means the agreement between parts of sentences. For you to make a sentence that is meaningful and correct, its constituent parts must be in perfect agreement. For instance, the subject and the pronoun must agree with the verb in the sentence. Also, a pronoun used must agree with its antecedent noun or pronoun. There are rules governing these. Thus there are different categories of concord.

The various categories of concord include: **subject-verb concord, subject-object concord, pronoun-antecedent concord, subject/object-complement concord, voice- tense concord, participle/subject/verb concord, concord of ellipsis and, concord of comparison.**

KEY:

s/sub = subject

v = verb

comp = complement

obj= object

ant= antecedent

pron = pronoun

vp= verb phrase

pp= participial phrase

i) Subject-Verb Concord

This rule states that a singular subject (the performer of the action of the verb or the part the sentence focuses on) takes a singular verb; and a plural subject takes a plural verb. e.g.

- i. **The boy**^{subj} **comes**^{verb} here often.
- ii. **The boys**^{subj} **come**^{verb} here often.
- iii. **He**^{subj} **is**^{verb} here.
- iv. **They**^{subj} **are**^{verb} wonderful.

a) Singular Subjects: If the subject is singular, the verb is singular. You can identify them by their various forms:

- a. A singular noun as subject e.g **Bunmi**^s is my friend.
- b. In a subject –verb inversion e.g.
The bride is here= Here **is**^v **the bride**^s.
- c. A singular noun phrase e.g. **The story** ^s**is**^v interesting.
- d. A noun clause e.g. **Whatever the man does**^{noun clause} **is**^v none of my business.
- e. Nominals joined by expressions like: in addition to, as well as, together with, in association with e.t.c. take singular verb. e.g.
The man^{1st s} as well as **his wife**^{2nd s} **goes**^v to the farm.

- f. Appositive nominals (where both refer to each other) and they are joined by "and" take a singular verb. e.g. **My father and teacher^sis^v** here. You should take note that "my" functions as the modifier for "father" and "teacher".
- g. Joined nominals that refer to an entity like meals, companies, e.t.c. take singular verb e.g.
 - i. **Rice and beans^sis^v** his favourite meal.
 - ii. **Alabi and Sons^sis^v** where my father works.
- h. A "to- infinitive" phrase is singular e.g. **To kill^sis^v** what I can't do.
- i. An "-ing infinitive" phrase is also singular e.g. **Stealing^sis^v** not allowed in this house.
- j. Nouns that end in "-s" but have singular meanings (e.g. physics, mathematics, linguistics, measles, news, e.t.c.) take singular verbs. e.g. Here **is^v the news^s**.
- k. Amount of money is singular e.g. **50 million Naira^s is^v** a huge sum of money.
- l. Percentages (for uncountable nouns) and nouns indicating weight, distance, period, e.t.c. take singular verbs. e.g.
 - i. **Eighty-per cent of the work^s has** been done.
 - ii. **10 months^s is^v** too much.
- m. Collective nouns take singular verbs.
 - e.g. **The audience^s is^s** not happy.
- n. Indefinite pronouns (e.g. every, some, no, nobody, something, anything e.t.c.) take singular verbs e.g. **Anything^s is^v** possible.

b) Plural subjects: A plural subject takes a plural verb. Here are some more rules:

- a. "I" and "you" take plural verbs, though they are singular pronouns (you can be either singular or plural, depending on the context of use). e.g
 - i. **I^s love^v** him.
 - ii. **You^s are^v** very funny.
- b. Nouns joined together by 'and' take plural verbs e.g.
 - i. **My mother and I^s go^v** for shopping on weekends.
 - ii. **Clara and Ifeanyi^s are^v** my siblings.
- c. Nominalised adjectives take plural verbs e.g.
 - The rich^s cry^v**.
- d. When an expression like: in addition to, together with, in company of, e.t.c. is used after plural nominals, the verb is plural. e.g.

The men^{1st sub} together with **Amina**^{2nd sub} **go**^v to the farm on weekends.

e. Percentage takes a plural verb if the percentage is part of a countable noun.e.g.

Fifty per cent of the books^s **are**^v mine.

f. Collective nouns can be take the plural verb if the meaning in context is plural

The audience^s **are**^v unhappy.

C) Other Rules of Subject-Verb Concord

There is a rule of concord which states that the noun closer or closest to the verb determines the verb. This rule is called the proximity concord. It is common with the correlative pronouns: either...or; neither...nor e.g.

i. Neither **you**^{1st sub} nor **I**^{2nd sub} **is**^v to blame.

ii. Either **Funke**^{1st sub} or **you**^{2nd sub} **cook**^v the food.

ii) Subject-Pronoun Concord/ Pronoun-Antecedent Concord

This rule states that the subject agrees with the pronoun. Your pronouns should agree with their antecedents in number and person e.g.

i. **He**^{ant} cut **himself**^{pro}.

ii. **Mary**^{ant} has seen **her**^{pro} results.

iii) Subject/Object-Complement Concord

You should ensure that your complement (grammatical element that makes the identity of the subject or object complete) of a verb agrees with your subject or object. e.g.

i. **She**^s is my **daughter**^{sub com}

ii. We made **Akin**^{obj} **the chairman**^{obj comp} .

iv) Tense-Voice Concord

This rule states that whenever you have more than one verb (or verb phrase), the voice and the tense should agree. e.g.

i. He **sleeps**^{v1} and **wakes**^{v2} up whenever he **likes**.

ii. When he **came in**^{vp1} and **sat down**^{vp2} , he **asked**^{vp3} for a drink.

v) Participle-Subject-Verb Concord

There should be an agreement between the participle, the subject and the verb.

e.g. **Having walked**^{PP} a long distance, **he**^S **became**^V hungry.

vi) Concord of Ellipsis

When you omit words, you should ensure they could be recovered within the sentence. e.g.

I **have played** my part and (I) **still do**.

vii) Concord of Comparison

When comparing objects you should ensure that you use the proper comparative forms. e.g.

My father is taller than **she is (tall)**.

I love my father than **she loves** him.

Or

I love my father more than **she does**.

Instruction: Choose the correct option.

- Twenty years ----- too long to be away from home.
 - a) were
 - b) are
 - c) is
 - d) have been
- The correct answer is c. **is** because "twenty years" expresses time distance, thus it takes a singular verb.
- Tastes in Nigerian dressing -----.
 - a) differ
 - b) differs
 - c) different
 - d) differing
- The correct answer is A: **differ** because the main word in the noun phrase "tastes in Nigerian dressing" is "tastes" and therefore requires a plural verb.
- The driver, along with the car owner, -----badly burnt in the accident.

- a) was
- b) were
- c) must not
- d) have

- The correct answer is C **was** because the expression “along with” makes the first subject only to determine the verb

5.2.6 Adverbs

An adverb is a word belonging to one of the major parts of speech. You can use adverbs to modify verbs, adjectives, adverbs or an entire clause or sentence.

5.2.6.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 1) use adverbs to modify verb, adjective and other adverb in sentences
- 2) identify the types of adverbs and what they modify

5.2.6.2 Adverbs as Modifiers of other Word Classes

Adverbs can modify the following parts of speech, verb, adjective and another adverb.

1. Adverbs as modifiers of verbs:

- 1a. Johnson came *here*.
- 1b. Roseline ate her food *hurriedly*.
- 1c. I take my drug *regularly*.

2. Adverbs as modifiers of adjectives

- 2a. The man is *relatively* young.
- 2b. The story is *very* interesting

3. Adverbs as modifiers of other adverbs:

3a. He walked *very* slowly.

Hint: very modifies slowly

3b. They performed *averagely* well.

Hint: *averagely* modifies well

4. Adverbs as modifiers of clauses:

4a. He passed the examination; *meanwhile*, he is already in a university.

4b. *Finally*, he passed the examination.

There are different types of adverbs. The following are some types of adverbs and how they are used in sentences.

5.2.6.3 Types of Adverbs

There are different types of adverb in English language. Some of them are explained below.

i) Adverbial of Time: This answers the question, "when?." You use it to indicate when an action takes place. e.g.

i. She went to school *yesterday*.

ii. We arrived home by *5 p.m.*

ii) Adverbial of Place: This answers the question "where?". You use it to indicate where an action takes place. e.g.

i. My uncle lives *here*.

ii. My boss will leave for *Abuja* tomorrow evening.

iii) Adverbial of Manner: This answers the question "how?" You use it to indicate how an action is carried out. e.g.

i. The man walked into his office *sluggishly*.

ii. She shouted *angrily* at me.

iv) Adverbial of Frequency: An adverb of frequency answers the question "how often?" You use it to describe how often an action is carried out. e.g.

i. She *rarely* eats at home.

ii. Folake reads *daily*.

v) **Adverbial of Degree:** It answers the question "how much" or "to what extent?"

You use it to show the extent in which an action is performed. e.g.

i. It is *very* beautiful.

ii. The work is *completely* done.

vi) **Adverbial of Cause/Reason:** This answers the question "why?" It is used when stating why an action is performed.

i. Mr Tayo was late for the interview *because* his car broke down.

ii. We were punished *for* insulting the lecturer.

vii) **Adverbial of condition:** It answers the question "under what condition?" You use adverbial of condition when the fulfillment of an action depends on another action. e.g.

i. *If* you love me, you will marry me.

ii. *Unless* you stop misbehaving, I won't allow you to go out of this house.

Instruction: identify the adverbs in bold letters and state their functions in the sentences below.

- The elephant moves **very** slowly.
 - 'Very' is an adverb of degree used to modify the adverb 'slowly'.
- Harry ate **hurriedly** in order to catch the school bus.
 - 'Hurriedly' is an adverb of manner and it modifies the verb 'ate'.
- He left the room **as soon as** he heard his father's voice.
 - 'As soon as' is an adverb of time and it is used to modify the verb 'left'.
- This book is **fairly** old.
 - 'Fairly' is an adverb of degree and it is used to modify the adjective 'old'.
- Maso talks **quietly**.

- 'Quietly' is an adverb of manner and it modifies the verb 'talk'.
- He left the country **because** things were getting too tough for him.
 - 'Because' is an adverb of reason and it modifies the verb 'left'.
- Some people live **as if** they have two lives.
 - 'As if' is an adverb of manner and it modifies the verb 'live.'
- The dog goes **wherever** it pleases.
 - 'Wherever' is an adverb of place and it modifies the verb 'goes'.
- I will come with you **if** you will tell me the truth.
 - 'if' is an adverb of condition modifying the verb 'come'.
- Women from this region are **highly** industrious.
 - 'Highly' is an adverb of degree and it modifies the adjective 'industrious'.
- I came in **when** you were sleeping.
 - 'When' is an adverb of time modifying the verb 'came'.

5.2.7 Adjectives

Adjectives are words that you use to describe nouns such as person, places, objects and ideas. Adjectives are also used to describe pronouns. By using adjectives, you give specific descriptions of the nouns or pronouns you are referring to. Adjectives are of different types.

5.2.7.1 Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 5.2.7.2 state the different types of adjectives and their functions
- 4.7.1 correctly arrange adjectives to qualify nouns, noun phrases and pronouns in sentences

4.7.1 Types of Adjectives

Adjectives are of different types. In this unit, you will learn about the following types of adjectives.

Proper Adjectives

These types of adjectives are derived from personal names and are used to describe nouns. For example, *Platonic* love (from the personal name – Plato); *Caesarean* section (derived from the name Caesar) etc.

Common Adjectives

This an adjective used to qualify a common noun. Examples, of this include *lazy* girl, *broken* table etc.

Interrogative Adjectives

These are words used in asking questions. Consider the following examples. (a) *Whose* books are these? (b) *When* will you travel to Lagos?

Numerical Adjectives

This type of adjective has to do with numbers. There are two types of this type of adjective namely Cardinal and Ordinal. Cardinals include words like: *one, two, three*, etc. For example: (a) There are *three* boys in the class. (b) We have *five* houses in Ibadan.

Possessive Adjectives

You use this type of adjective to show possession. For example: (a) This is *my* bag. (b) Taye has found *your* textbooks.

Limiting Adjectives

This type of adjective consists of the articles '*a/an*' (indefinite article) and '*the*' (definite article). They place restriction on the number of reference. For example: (a) I saw *a* monkey in the zoo. That means I did not see more than one monkey. (b) *The* man is

sleeping. This implies that I am referring to a particular man known to both the listener and I.

Relative Adjectives

This is the kind of adjective that you use to modify a noun or pronoun that has already been mentioned in the same sentence. For example: (a) This is the boy *whose* uniform was torn. (b) The shoe *which/that* the cobbler made is bad.

It is important for you to know that more than one adjective can be used in describing a single noun or pronoun in a sentence. For example: This is the *big bad* wolf. Therefore, it is essential for you to know the order of adjectives in a sentence.

4.7.2 Order of Adjectives

The proper arrangement of adjectives is as shown below:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Adjective of size/shape | big, tall, round, triangular, etc |
| 2. Adjective expressing facts | soft, hard, rough, tight, etc |
| 3. Adjective expressing value/quality | beautiful, intelligent, fresh, good, etc |
| 4. Adjective of colour | blue, yellow, gray, green, etc |
| 5. Adjective of age | old, new, archaic, modern, etc |
| 6. '-ing' adjective | interesting, disturbing, discouraging, etc |
| 7. '-ed' | beloved, disillusioned, fatigued, etc |
| 8. Adjective of origin/nationality | Nigerian, Italian, American, etc |
| 9. (Noun) | |

Here are some examples of how to order adjectives in English sentences:

1. The tall intelligent young Nigerian man won the prize for science.
2. The soft gray Italian belt has been stolen.
3. The fat middle-aged Chinese disillusioned woman has committed suicide.

Adjectives can also be used in making comparison in different degrees. There are three forms of comparison namely: positive, comparative and superlative. The adjectives that take regular form in this sense are also known as gradable adjectives. Below are some examples for you.

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
tall	taller	tallest
fine	finer	finest
wise	wiser	wisest
easy	easier	easiest

There are other types of adjectives which cannot follow the regular pattern above to show degrees. These are also referred to as non-gradable adjectives. Some examples include:

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
many	more	most (used for countable nouns)
much	more	most (used for uncountable nouns)

Instruction: in each of the sentences below, identify the types of adjectives and state their functions.

- Many women go through Caesarean section to deliver their babies.

- The word 'Caesarean' is a proper adjective qualifying the noun 'section'.
 - If you want to plant crops, the first thing to do is to clear the land.
- The word 'first' is an ordinal adjective, qualifying the noun 'thing'.
 - Five fingers of bananas sell for fifty Naira.
- 'Five' is a cardinal adjective and it qualifies the noun 'fingers'.
 - They are planning to use your house for the party.
- The word 'your' is used as a possessive adjective to qualify the noun 'house'.
 - Which of the items do you want to buy?
- The word 'Which' is an interrogative adjective qualifying the noun 'items'.
 - Walter has the bad lamp on the table.
- The word 'bad' is a common adjective used to qualify the common noun 'lamp'.
 - The bicycle has a broken spoke.
- The word 'broken' is a common adjective qualifying the common noun 'spoke'.
 - The angry boy has eaten the unripe mango.
- The word 'unripe' is a common adjective, qualifying the noun 'mango'.
 - Whose books are these?
- 'Whose' is an interrogative adjective used in the sentence to qualify the noun 'books'.
 - He has a lazy daughter whose interest is only on ready-made things.
- The word 'lazy' is a common adjective used in the sentence to qualify the common noun 'daughter'.

4.8 Prepositions

A preposition is a word that is used to show the relationship between different items. A preposition is usually followed by a noun phrase. There are two types of prepositions namely: simple preposition and complex preposition.

Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

4.8.1 correctly use the types of prepositions in relation to nouns, noun phrases and pronouns in sentences.

4.8.1 Types of Preposition

You will, in this unit, learn about two types of prepositions in English language. These are named and explained below.

Simple Prepositions

These are single-word prepositions, *such as in, at, beside, on, behind, into, against, outside, from, for, of, above, over, across*, etc. Some of these are used in the sentences below:

1. He came *from* London.
2. The book is *on* the table.
3. The boy walked *across* the road.

Complex Prepositions

A complex preposition is made up of more than one word. Some examples include *in compliance with, in view of, in addition to, by means of, as a result, with regard to*, etc. Some other kinds of complex prepositions are made up of an adjective or an adverb or a conjunction followed by a simple preposition, e.g. *but for, except for, due to, because of, according to, as regards*, etc.

Instruction: identify the italicised prepositions in the following sentences according to their types.

- He leaves his children *in* the car each time he wants to buy things from the shop.
- 'in' is a simple preposition.
- Birds do not live *under* trees.
- 'under' is a simple preposition.

- Goods are taken to markets *in compliance with* government directive.
- 'in compliance with' is a complex preposition.
- Some children would have been taken away *but for* the quick intervention of the principal.
- 'but for' is a complex preposition.
- Rodger was asked to take his dog *along* on the trip.
- 'along' is a simple preposition.

4.9 Conjunctions

These are words that are used to join words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence. Examples: *and, but, or, so, yet, either-or, neither-nor, that, who, whom, after, which, since, because, until, whenever, while, etc.*

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 4.9.1 correctly use conjunctions to join words, phrases, clauses and sentences
- 4.9.2 appropriately use subordinators and coordinators

4.9.1 Types of Conjunctions

There are two types of conjunctions in English language. These are subordinating conjunctions (subordinators) and coordinating conjunctions (coordinators)

Subordinating Conjunctions

These are conjunctions you can use to introduce subordinate or dependent clauses and also connect them to the main clauses to form complex sentences. Some examples are *because, that, what, how, which, whose, if, wherever, etc.*

You can study these examples for clarity:

1. You can go *wherever* you want to go.

2. I will give you the money, *if* you work for it.
3. I want to have *what* you wish to give me.
4. A thief entered the house *because* nobody was in.

Coordinating Conjunctions

You can use coordinating conjunctions to join or connect words, phrases or clauses that belong to the same grammatical class. Coordinators are used to join two or more nouns, verbs, or adjectives or clauses that have the same status. Some examples are: *but, or, so, yet, either-or, neither-nor, and, etc.*

Below are some examples for you to consider:

1. Johnson *and* Fredrick are friends.
2. He worked hard *but* could not win the competition.
3. I want to see the programme director *or* his assistant.

Instruction: Chose the appropriate conjunction from the following (although, as soon as, because, if, unless, who, which, since, when, wherever) to join each of the pairs of clauses below and rewrite the sentence.

- He came early. He did not see his brother.
 - The correct answer is **because**. The sentence then reads: He came early because he did not see his brother.
- I want to see you. You finish the work.
 - The answer is **when**. The sentence then becomes: *I want to see you when you finish the work.*
- Nobody will allow you to stay here. You behave well.
 - The correct answer is **unless**. The sentence then becomes: *Nobody will allow you to stay here unless you behave well.*
- I saw the pen. I have been looking for.

- The answer is **which**. The sentence then reads: I saw the pen which I have been looking for.
- He allowed me into the place. I had waited for long.
 - The answer is **because**. The sentence then becomes: *He allowed me into the place because I had waited for long.*

4.10 Interjections

Interjections are words that you can use to express different kinds of feelings or emotions like surprise, pain, shock, happiness, excitement etc. In writing, you indicate these feelings with exclamations mark (!).

Learning Outcome

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

4.10.1 correctly apply interjections in sentences.

Interjections can better be explained by using them in sentences. Below are some examples to show you how it is used in sentences.

Examples:

1. *Oh!* The boy died at last.
2. *Alas!* The journey was not interesting.
3. *Gosh!* He missed that beautiful opportunity to score the goal.

Instruction: apply interjections in the appropriate places and correctly write the sentences below.

- Mine shouted the boy whose cup fell.
- **Mine!** Shouted the boy whose cup fell.
- Good now I can let you go home.
- **Good!** Now I can let you go home.

- Oh goodness run away quickly.
- **Oh goodness!** Run away quickly.
- What an idea you must be a genius.
- **What an idea!** You must be a genius.

Unit Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about the general categories into which the parts of speech are classified. You have also been introduced to the eight parts of speech and their uses in sentences, as well as determiners and their forms and uses.

Assignment

Instruction: answer all the questions below.

1. Words can be categorized into open and closed classes. Discuss.
2. Mention some of the characteristics of noun.
3. Name and explain with appropriate examples, the different types of conjunction.
4. What is the difference between an adverb and an adjective?
5. What are determiners? Give at least four types using sentences.
6. Mention the types of verbs using functional classification (illustrate with two examples for each).
7. Give five sentences that illustrate the present perfect progressive.
8. Illustrate with five examples, the subjunctive mood.

Module Five: Registers

Getting Prepared

Register can exhibit variations in all or some of the elements of language such as vocabulary, syntax, phonology, morphology, pragmatic rules or different prosodic features such as pitch, volume and intonation in spoken form of a language. For example, the vocabulary of scientific English can differ from the vocabulary of the language of law or politics. With regards to register variation, there is no end to the number of different registers that can be identified. This is because in every field of human endeavour where language is used, there is the tendency for that language to be different or unique in particular elements of the language. Thus, you can recognise an endless number of registers with clear boundaries.

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this module, you should be able to:

- 5.1 define register
- 5.2 identify and use various types of register

5.1 What is Register?

Register is used in language study to refer to a form a language is used for a particular purpose in a particular situation. It distinguishes between variation in language according to use. That is, context situation such as formal/informal settings or writing/speech situations. Registers are words used in particular fields of study to describe things, people and activities.

5.2 Types of Register

There are different types of register. However, the focus is on the way you as a language user have a choice in the form of language you use, though particular situations dictate that choice. For example, the type of English used in courts and legal

documents (*legalese*) is necessitated by the setting, which of course differs from the type of choice a biologist will use in describing or discussing biological experiment.

You can identify registers such as:

- i. Register of Communication and the Media
- ii. Register of Law
- iii. Register of Politics and Government
- iv. Register of Medicine
- v. Register of Religion
- vi. Register of Science, Biology and Geography, etc
- vii. Register of Agriculture
- viii. Register of Sports

There is need for you to note that in all these cases, register is identified in terms of the unique vocabulary items that are used and which identify a particular field. It is common to find expressions with the suffix-*lese*, used to mean 'language used in a particular field or profession.' Thus, you can find words like *legalese*, *medicalese*, *journalese*, *officialese* used in the English language.

5.2.1 Register of Communication and the Media

This is the non-technical term used generally to refer to the written or spoken form of language that journalists use. Features that can be attributed to this register include extensive use of clichés, use of neologism, preference for superciliousness, use of sensational adjectives, occurrence of occasional unusual or faulty syntax, packing more details than usual in the first paragraph of stories, use of striking words or graphic details to attract interest.

You have to know that under *journalese* register, events and actions are given emotive and romantic colouring by the use of certain nouns and adjectives. Some features of *journalese* include nouns such as *burden*, *disaster*, *dream*, *fantasy*, *glamour*, *horror*, *nightmare*, *terror*; adjectives like *amazing*, *bizarre*, *cataclysmic*, *devastating*, *heart-*

stopping, heart-warming, horrendous, moving, outrageous, scandalous, shattering, staggering; euphemisms such as *confirmed bachelor* (a homosexual man), *constant companion* (a lover), *fun-loving* (of a woman: sexually free-and-easy), *good-time girl, party girl, commercial sex worker* (a prostitute) Clichés: *Amid mounting* (*Amid mounting calls for his resignation, X has decided to tough it out*), *many* (*mothers, many with children in their arms*), *that was once* (*standing in the ruin that was once central Beirut*)

Preference for words with one syllable (monosyllabic words) and words with two syllables (disyllabic words): *poll* for 'election' , *blast* for 'explosion', *jobless* for 'unemployed', *homeless* for 'destitute'. Emotive and inflated expressions: *ever* for 'excitement' (*World Cup fever grips Barcelona*); *rage* or *fury* for 'anger' (*Fury over Poll Tax*); *stricken* or *crippled* for 'disabled' (*stricken tanker adrift in Med*); *glory* for any sporting achievement (*glory day for Tottenham*); *storm* and *row* for 'controversy' (*storm over price-hikes, Cabinet row over inflation*). Examples of words from the field of Information, Communication Technology (ICT) are: *DeskTop, Laptop, Central Processing Unit (CPU), Keyboard, Mouse, website, Internet, Twitter, facebook, email, etc.*

o **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

Social media is the _____ among people in which they create, share or exchange information and ideas in _____ communities and networks. Furthermore, social media depend on mobile and web-based _____ to create highly interactive platforms through which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss, and modify user-generated _____. They introduce substantial and pervasive changes to communication between organisations, communities, and individuals. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_media, retrieved 2014-3-26).

	A	B	C	D
i.	collaboration	interaction	interface	relation
ii.	virtual	visual	simulated	open
iii	equipment	machineries	tools	technologies

iv	subject	content	substance	matter
v	exchange	communique	communication	message

- **Feedback**

i. The correct answer is B. (**interaction**), because it is what social media entail.

ii. The correct answer is A (**virtual**), because social media is mediated communication system.

iii. The correct answer is D (**technologies**), because social media make use of them.

iv. The right answer is B (**content**), because it is the product of social media.

v. The right answer is C (**communication**), because social media are used for communication.

5.2.2 Register of Law (Legalese)

Legalese is a term used to describe a type of technical writing mainly used by lawyers, judges, legislators and others in law profession to express legal matters. It is characterised by reliance on citation of authority and precedent, specialized vocabulary or jargon, complex syntax and extreme use of the formal style. You need to know here, that legal writing extensively uses technical terminology that can be categorised in four:

1. Specialized words and phrases unique to law, e.g. *tort*, *fee simple*, and *novation*.
2. Quotidian words having different meanings in law, e.g. *action* (lawsuit), *consideration* (support for a promise), *execute* (to sign to effect), and *party* (a principal in a lawsuit).
3. Archaic vocabulary: legal writing employs many old words and phrases that were formerly quotidian language, but today exist only in law, dating from the 1500s. English examples are *herein*, *hereto*, *hereby*, *heretofore*, *whereas*, *whereby*, and *wherefore*, *said* and *such* (as adjectives).
4. Loan words and phrases from other languages: in English language, this includes terms derived from French *estoppel*, *laches*, and *voir dire*) and Latin (*certiorari*, *habeas*

corpus, prima facie, inter alia, men srea, sub judice) and are not italicised as English legal language, as would be foreign words in mainstream English writing.

- **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

Law is a term which does not have a-----accepted definition, but one definition is that law is a system of rules and guidelines which are enforced through social-----to govern behaviour. Laws can be made by legislatures through legislation resulting in-----, the executive through decrees and regulations, or judges through binding precedents (normally in common law jurisdictions). Private individuals can create legally binding-----4, including (in some jurisdictions) arbitration agreements that exclude the normal court process. The formation of laws themselves may be influenced by a----- (written or unwritten) and the rights encoded therein. The law shapes politics, economics, and society in various ways and serves as a social mediator of relations between people (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Law>, 2014-3-26.)

	A	B	C	D
i.	totally	universally	collectively	commonly
ii.	organisations	associations	institutions	foundations
iii.	Statutes	bills	rulings	edits
iv.	bonds	pacts	agreements	contracts
v.	constitution	condition	composition	establishment

- **Feedback**

- The correct answer is B (**universally**), because it is suitable in that context.
- The right answer is C (**institutions**), because laws are enforced through it.
- The right answer is A (**statutes**), because they are the laws made by legislators.

- iv. The correct answer is D (**contracts**), because it collocates with 'binding'.
- v. The correct answer is A (**constitution**), because it is where laws come from.

5.2.3 Register of Government and Politics (Officialese)

This is used to refer to the type of register typically used in official communication in offices, in government and politics. Examples of words regarded as officialesse include: allowance, approval, arrears, consultation, remuneration, consultation, implementation, directive, retrenchment, query etc. Examples of phrases regarded as officialesse include: please act, standing regulation, in respect of, keep in view (KIV), pay as you earn (PAYE) etc. Examples of register of government and politics include: executive, legislative, judiciary, ballot-box, constituency, electoral commission, bill, act affidavit, voting age, political party, despot, democracy, nomination, nominee, electorate, plaintiff, defendant, accused, decree, etc.

- o **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

The signing into law of two-----amending the 1999 constitution, by President Goodluck Jonathan, is understandably a refreshing----- . It is the first time since 1999 that such-----are taking place. More importantly, perhaps, the signing laid to rest the controversy that had----- for months over the legal status of the amendments, following----- views over the necessity or otherwise of the president assenting to the amendment bills.

	A	B	C	D
i.	bills	laws	ideas	rules
ii.	phenomenon	development	news	event
iii.	changes	amendments	revelations	incidents
iv.	existed	lingered	gone on	shown
v.	convergent	opposite	controversial	divergent

- **Feedback**

- i. The right answer is A (**bills**), because bills are written proposal for a new law.
- ii. The right answer is B (**development**), because it is used to indicate a process or progress.
- ii. The correct answer is B (**amendments**), because the word collocates with changing of laws.
- iii. The correct answer is B (**lingered on**), because the word collocates with controversy.
- iv. The correct answer is D (**divergent**), because it collocates with expressing different opinions or views.

5.2.4 Register of Medicine (Medicalese)

This is used to refer to the type of register typically used in the field of medicine and of course sometimes in hospitals and clinics. Examples of words and expressions regarded as medicalese include: diagnosis, operation, suture, infection, treatment, blood pressure, hypertension, call duty, viral infection, signs and symptoms, therapy, physiotherapy, theatre etc.

- **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

Cocaine and heroin are particularly dangerous----- . People who are----- on them take an enormous risk with their lives. When----- is under the influence of the drug, on----- to use a colloquial phrase, his behavior changes and he can easily endanger his own life and other people's. if an addict is not able to obtain the drug he craves, he begins to suffer----- 20----- symptoms.

	A	B	C	D
i.	medicines	drugs	injections	symptoms
ii.	content	concentrated	dependent	heightened
iii.	a suspect	a trafficker	a participant	an addict
iv.	a high	a journey	a dose	an excursion

v. departure aggressive perception withdrawal

- **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is B (**drugs**), because it is appropriate in the context of cocaine and heroin.
- ii. The correct answer is C (**dependent**), because it is appropriate in the case of addiction.
- ii. The correct answer is D (**an addict**), because it is an appropriate name for someone that depends on drugs.
- iii. The correct answer is A (**a high**), because it explains an excited feeling got from using drugs.
- iv. The correct answer is D (**withdrawal**), because it is appropriate for effects of drug use.

5.2.5 Register of Religion

This register covers words that are associated with all religions such as Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Judaism etc. Religion can be defined as an organized collection of beliefs, cultural systems, and world views that relate humanity to an order of existence. It is necessary for you to know that several religions have narratives, symbols, and sacred histories that are intended to explain the meaning of life and/or to explain the origin of life or the Universe. Also, you have to know that these are examples of words used in the field of religion rituals, sermons, commemoration or veneration of a deity, gods or goddesses, sacrifices, festivals, feasts, trance, initiations, funerary services, matrimonial services, meditation, prayer, music, art, dance, public service or other aspects of human culture. These are what constitute the register of religion.

You need to be aware that the word religion can be used interchangeably with words such as faith, belief system or sometimes set of duties

- **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

Islam considers governance as a serious business and leadership as a position of ----- . It is not what every Tom, Dick and Harry can contest and win. Apart from

the fact that Allah (SWT) will----- a just ruler with Al-Janah (Paradise) and punish the unjust-----with hell fire and humiliation on the day of-----; the masses always rain heavy curses on leaders who convert public----- into personal gains.

	A	B	C	D
i.	trust	inheritance	lust	means
ii.	condemn	reject	punish	reward
iii.	followers	leaders	preachers	prophets
iv.	decision	ruling	judgment	verdict
v.	capitals	funds	interests	moneys

- **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is A (**trust**), because it collocates with the context.
- ii. The right answer is D (**reward**), because it goes with 'a just' in the context.
- iii. The correct answer is B (**leaders**), because it is in line with the topic of discussion.
- iv. The correct answer is C (**judgment**), because it collocates with 'the day of' in that context.
- v. The right answer is B (**funds**), because it is in line with the topic of discussion.

5.2.6 Register of Science

Science has been described as a systematic enterprise that builds and organises knowledge in the form of testable explanations and predictions about the universe. The branches of science include physics, chemistry, geology and biology; while a practitioner of science is known as a scientist. The register of science include words such as astrophysics, astronomy, atom, beaker, biochemistry, biology, botany, Bunsen burner, burette, cell, chemical, chemistry, climate, climatologist, control, cuvette, data, datum, electricity, electrochemist, element, energy, entomology,

evolution, experiment, fact, flask, fossil, funnel, genetics, geology, geophysics, glassware, graduated cylinder, gravity, herpetology, hypothesis, ichthyology, immunology, lab, laboratory, laws, lepidoptery, magnetism, mass, matter, measure, meteorologist, meteorology, microbiologist, microbiology, microscope, mineral, mineralogy, molecule, motion, observe, observatory, organism, ornithology, paleontology, particle, Petri dish, phase, physical science, physics, pipette, etc.

○ **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

People who have cars should take care of the tyres. They should-----them now and again and test them with a-----, and at the same time make sure that the-----tyre is all right, so that if the car has a puncture on the road it can be----- and the tyre-----.

	A	B	C	D
i.	peruse	check	investigate	enumerate
ii.	gauge	measure	scale	valve
iii.	free	duplicate	unusedspare	
iv.	pulled up	levered over	hauled up	jacked up
v.	renewed	changed	alternated	installed

● **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is B (**check**), because it collocates with knowing the condition of a tyre.
- ii. The correct answer is A (**gauge**), because it is used to know the condition of a tyre.
- ii. The right answer is D (**spare**), because it collocates with having extra tyre.
- iii. The right answer is D (**jacked up**), because it explains the process of racing a car so as to replace a faulty tyre.

- iv. The right answer is B (**changed**), because a punctured tyre of a car requires to be changed.

5.2.7 Register of Agriculture

Agriculture is the cultivation of animals, plants, fungi, and other life forms for food, fiber, biofuel, medicinal and other products used to sustain and enhance human life. The register of agriculture the use of words such as shifting cultivation, intensive pastoral farming, subsistence cultivation, commercial cultivation, mixed crop cultivation, dairy farming, dry farming, intensive arable farming, market gardening (fruit and salad vegetables), silk farming, plantation or tree farming, extensive pastoral farming (e.g. Hill Sheep Farming), organic farming, bio-intensive farming.

- o **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

The art and science of rearing bees is called----- . Apiculture is well developed in countries like Cuba, Greece, Israel, India and China. In these countries, it is taken as a serious source of high----- and employment generation. Apart from honey production, there are other products which have both local and export----- that can be obtained from bee keeping. Anyone can make money from----- . Bee keeping does not require a large space. You don't even need to own a land and you don't need to feed your bees. You simply need to buy----- and place them in a safe place then you are on.

	A	B	C	D
i.	apiculture	horticulture	sericulture	aquaculture
ii.	risk	value	rate	income
iii.	licenses	commercials	potentials	demands
iv.	insects	bees	ants	beetles
v.	hide-out	beehives	houses	stalls

- **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is A (**apiculture**), because it means rearing of bees.

- ii. The right answer is D (**income**), because it collocates with money making.
- ii. The correct answer is C (**potentials**), because it goes with the context.
- iii. The right answer is B (**bees**), because it indicates the subject matter.
- iv. The correct answer is B (**beehives**), because that is where bees live or can be reared.

5.2.8 Register of Sports

Sport is all forms of usually competitive physical activity through casual or organised participation. It aims to use, maintain or improve physical ability and skills while providing entertainment to participants or spectators. There are many types of sports. There are those that require only two participants, to those with hundreds of simultaneous participants, either in teams or competing as individuals. Meanwhile, the register of sports includes different types of sports such as Acrobatics, Aikido, Archery, Auto racing, Autocross, Badminton, Baseball, Basketball, Biathlon, Bicycling, Bobsledding, Bowling, Boxing, Calisthenics, Card games, Cricket, Croquet, Cross country skiing, Curling, Cycling, Decathlon, Discus, Diving, Dog racing, Dressage, Equestrian, Fencing, Field hockey, Figure skating, Fishing, Football, Go-carting, Golf, Hammer throw, Hang gliding, High jumping, Hockey, Horseback riding, Horseshoes, Hunting, Hurling, Ice dancing, Ice hockey, Jacks, Jai alai, Javelin throw, Judo, Karate, Kayaking, Lacrosse, Lawn bowling, and Luge. Others are Mah-Jong, Marathon, Motocross, Poker, Pole vault, Power lifting, Race walk, Racing, Racquetball, Road race, Roller sports, Rugby, Running Sailing, Shark diving, Shuffleboard, Skateboarding, Skeet shooting, Skiing, Slalom, Sled-dog racing, Sledding, Snowboarding, Soccer, Softball, Spinning, Squash, Stock-car racing, Sumo wrestling, Surfing, Swimming, Table tennis, Tae Kwon Do, Tennis, Tobogganing, Track, Track and field, Triathlon, Vaulting, Volleyball, Water polo, Water skiing, Weightlifting, Wrestling etc..

- **Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.**

Broadly speaking, badminton-----is similar to conditioning for the other ----- sports such as tennis and squash. A simple movement analysis however, reveals a few key differences that will affect the competitive badminton players' training----- . Many-----in badminton are played overhead more so than tennis or squash for example. Badminton players also rely much more on the-----flexors for generating power compared to tennis players. While this may not lead to a vastly different training program, exercise selection and the percentage of time dedicated to some exercises over others will change. (<http://www.sport-fitness-advisor.com/badminton-training.html>, 2014-3-26).

	A	B	C	D
i.	schooling	teaching	training	education
ii.	racket	court	combat	field
iii	life	project	lifestyle	regimen
iv	balls	shots	throws	serves
v	arm	hand	wrist	knuckle

- **Feedback**

- i. The correct answer is C (**training**), because the passage is based on badminton programme.
- ii. The correct answer is A (**racket**), because just like squash and tennis, badminton is a racket game.
- ii. The right answer is D (**regimen**), because it fits the sport.
- iii. The correct answer is B (**shots**), because of all the options it is the most suitable.
- iv. The right answer is C (**wrist**), because badminton racket is held by wrist.

Module Summary

In the above unit, you have been taught what register is. Also, you have been exposed to types of register with relevant examples.

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Assignment

Q 5.1 (tests Learning Outcomes 5.1 and 5.2)

Instruction: Choose the most appropriate option for each gap.

Tonight I want to begin by-----the men and women of the 112th Congress, as well as your new Speaker, John Boehner. As we mark this-----, we're also mindful of the empty chair in this-----.We pray for the health of our colleague and friend, Gabby Giffords. It's no secret that those of us here tonight have had our----- over the last two years. The debates have been contentious; we have fought fiercely for our beliefs. That's a good thing. That's what a robust ----- demands. That's what helps set us apart as a----- . But there's a reason the tragedy in Tucson gave us----- . Amid all the noise and passion and rancor of our----- debate , Tucson reminded us that no matter who we are or where we come from, each of us is a part of something greater, something more consequential than party or political----- We are part of the American

family. We believe that in a country where every race and faith and point of view can be found, we are still bound together as one people; that we share common hopes and a common creed; that the dreams of a little girl in Tucson are not so different from those of our own children, and that they all deserve the chance to be-----.

	A	B	C	D
1.	congratulating	commiserating with	consoling	condoling with
2.	platform	day	occasion	party
3.	house	chamber	auditorium	land
4.	similarities	differences	ties	duets
5.	democracy	theocracy	rule of law	human rights
6.	nation	council	county	clan
7.	shock	pause	stay	reminder
8.	public	open	thorough	fundamental
9.	rally	gerrymandering	preference	trick
10.	displayed	exhibited	exemplified	fulfilled

Feedbacks to Assignment

1. The answer is A (**congratulating**), because it is appropriate to begin a speech on a good note.
2. The answer is D (**occasion**), because an occasion gives room for speech-making.
3. The correct option is C (**auditorium**), because an auditorium is the part of a public building where an audience sits.
4. The right option is B (**differences**), it is deducible from the tone of the speaker and also collaborated by his last statement.

5. The correct answer is A (**democracy**), because 'gerrymandering' is characteristic of this kind of government.
6. The correct answer is A (**nation**), because a government rules a nation.
7. The right option is A (**shock**), because a tragedy can result in a shock.
8. The answer is B (**open**), because it collocates with the word 'open.'
9. The correct option is B (**gerrymandering**), because it is a way of political division of a country, especially in America.
10. The right answer is D (**fulfilled**), because it collocates with the phrase 'a chance to be'

Module Six: Effective Writing Skills

Getting Prepared

In this module, you will be introduced to some of the problems that could confront you in writing in English and how to tackle them. It also takes you through the forms, mechanics, features and technicalities of effective writing.

Module Goals

After studying this module, you should be able to:

- 6.1 explain the forms of writing
- 6.2 analyse the language of examination questions and answers

6.1 Writing Tasks

You should know that writing is an important way of communication. Also, it is a medium of communicating your thoughts to others. It is an expressive language skill. It affects the way you think and learn. It increases your chances of success in your academic pursuit. It engenders your personal development and enhances your relationship with other people. A scholar once said that learning to write well takes time and much effort, but it can be done.

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- 6.1.1 point out the qualities of good writing
- 6.1.2 discuss the writing process
- 6.1.3 identify the forms of writing

6.1.1 Qualities of Good Writing

When writing, you should remember that your thoughts are faster than writing. Thus, you need to organise your thoughts into a comprehensive whole. To be effective in writing, you must take into consideration your audience who are the readers of your work. For you to become an effective writer, you should take into consideration the demographic and psychographic variables of your readers: age, sex, educational background, economic status, attitude, etc. Also important are the nature of the subject and the purpose of the writing. Your choice of words, expressions, illustrations and format must reflect these factors. For example, it will be out of place to write an academic paper in flowery and informal language or with the use of slangs. The key point you should note here is appropriateness; your language must be right for the audience, the topic and the purpose. Generally, every piece of writing should possess three qualities: economy, simplicity and clarity.

Economy: This has been identified as the first quality of a good writing. It implies that a sentence should contain no unnecessary words, and a paragraph, no unnecessary sentence, for the same reason that a drawing should have no unnecessary lines and a machine no unnecessary parts.

The point is, every word should count and be a useful part of the whole. A good piece of writing should not be wordy. You should not equate wordiness (verbosity) with intelligence; neither should you misconstrue it as an evidence of mastery of language. In some cases, it may be a show of ignorance.

Simplicity: It is another quality of good writing. In an attempt to be simple, you must not be boring. You must vary the structure of the sentences.

Clarity: This entails saying what you want to say and doing so without ambiguity. Your sentences should be direct and effective. They should be understood.

- As a writer, you need to consider your audience, your topic, your purpose and your _____ when writing.
 - a) language
 - b) grammar

- c) linguistic
- d) etiquette
- The correct answer is A (**language**), because beside topic, purpose and audience, you need to consider your language as a writer.
- The qualities of good writing include clarity, economy and _____.
- a) difficulty
- b) accuracy
- c) simplicity
- d) verbosity
- The correct answer is C (**simplicity**), because other qualities include clarity and economy.

6.1.2 The Writing Process

You should know that writing is a medium of communication. Again, the quality of your writing will be greatly influenced by the nature of your thoughts. Effective communication through writing should be based on your ability to present your thoughts, ideas and experiences coherently. There are some steps for effective writing.

- The first step towards effective writing is for you to find a topic. Often, the writing assignment is given with a specific topic or theme. Some other times, you may be given the opportunity to select a topic. When the topic is given, your work has been simplified. Where you have to choose a topic of your own, bear the following in mind:
 1. The occasion
 2. The audience
 3. The topicality of the issue
 4. The time at your disposal for preparing the write-up
 5. The required length

- The second step is to collect materials for the write-up. You can read up on a topic, consult books, journals, encyclopedias, magazines and newspapers. You can download materials from the internet, using relevant website. You can also source materials for your writing orally. You can seek people's opinion on the topic through face to face or online discussions. Depending on the depth required, you can administer a questionnaire to gather data. If the time allowed does not permit research, for example in the case of class work or examination, then you can think deeply on ideas and information you had initially accumulated through prior reading or discussion with others.
- Third, you should attempt an outline of the myriad of ideas, thoughts and information you have, jot down everything you deem relevant to the topic. Next, organise your materials, taking care to launch the topic well by writing a powerful thesis statement or using a topic sentence; then proceed to arrange your supporting details in a logical sequence.

After this, you can begin to do the actual writing. Make sure you observe the rules of grammar and composition. Check your tenses, sentence construction, spelling, thought patterns, paragraph types and so on. Lastly, read through your write-up to correct all errors.

6.1.3 Forms of Writing

There are many forms of writing, which include report, review, correspondences, e-mails, research paper, letters, application and bibliography.

Report

A report is an orderly and objective communication. Therefore, it must be characterised by order and objectivity. Some scholars define a report as any presentation of information; others limit it to only formal presentations. It has also been described as an orderly and objective communication of information that serves a business purpose. But, it may not always be tied to a business function.

In addition, report is a document in which a given problem is examined for the purpose of conveying information, reporting, findings, putting forward ideas and sometimes making recommendations intended to serve as a basis for action. Also, report has been described by another scholar as a specialised, professional and academic writing, structured and presented to aid the decision making process of the authorising body

At this point, you should know that the words frequently used in these definitions are structured, orderly, factual, specialized, objective and professional. Thus, reports may be academic or business in orientation. However, reports are rather specific or typical. They are usually initiated by an authorising body. The intention most often is to apply findings from the report to the organisation's policy or decision making process.

Since formal reports are documents which address particular questions or issues, they require comprehensive research and analysis. Often times, findings from reports provide information that is employed in solving problems.

Reports can be informal or formal, lengthy or short. They vary in length, degree of formality and complexity of data and analysis. Reports can be of three types:

1. Information only
2. Information and analysis
3. Information, analysis and recommendation

Other classifications include:

1. Regular and Routine Report
 - Periodic Reports
 - Progress Reports
 - Production Reports
2. Occasional Reports
 - Disciplinary Reports
 - Situation Reports
3. Commissioned Reports

- Policy Formulation/Change Reports
- Consumer Research Reports
- Investigation Reports
- Feasibility Report
- Proposal Report

Some other reports are distinguished by the frequency of publication e.g. weekly, monthly, quarterly, annual, progress, occasional or periodic reports.

Then, you should be aware that a good report should take care of the needs of the readers. As a report writer, you should seek answers to the following questions:

1. Who are the readers that will most likely be interested in my writing?
2. What is their probable sex, age, educational status economic status, and social position?
3. What values, assumptions and prejudices characterise their general attitudes towards life?
4. What do my readers know or think they know about my subject?
5. Is the source of their knowledge direct experience, observation, reading or rumour?
6. Why will the readers read this report? If they know a great deal about the subject what do they expect to learn from reading my essay?
7. If they know only a few things, what will they expect to be told about it?
8. How can I make the readers interested in my subject?
9. If they are hostile or empathetic, how can I convince them or enhance their fair reading?
10. How can I help the readers to enjoy the report? What kind of organisational pattern do I employ? What kind of guide-post and transition markers will they need to follow the pattern?

If you have successfully answered these questions above, the next stage in the report writing process is gathering of data. Depending on the nature of the report, you should know that the sources of data vary. They could be primary or secondary. For most reports, the authorizing body issues some guidelines through the terms of reference.

Apart from this limited information, as a report writer, you may consult published works that are relevant to the subject matter of your reports. You may also find a survey necessary to supplement and complement findings from your observation. The survey instruments of note are interview and questionnaire. In some other instances, if the report is being compiled by an administrative or judicial panel, a call for memoranda may be made.

As a report writer, you must be clear on the objectives or goals of your report. Your goal and function is to provide very solid, and specific information for your readers. Moreover, you should know that sometimes reports are always called for when:

1. the subject matter is complex and technical;
2. there is quantitative material being presented or comparisons of some kind are being made;
3. there are implications or ramifications to the information being presented that may require a good deal of development and/or explanation;
4. the materials will be the basis for further study or for decision making, and
5. the writer has been asked to provide recommendation or outline a plan of action and it is necessary to provide the rationale for such decisions.

Review

A review is a critical essay. Here, you should know that 'critical' is used not to mean "to find fault". The Greek-root of the word means to separate, discern or choose. It is a write-up that is based on informed reading. A review is a response to what has been read. Writing a review is not all about fault finding; it is about reading and analysing carefully. Other words associated with reviews are evaluating, speculating, separating and reacting. As a reviewer, you need to assess the various parts of a work or subject and interpret them.

You should know that a good review draws a distinction between facts and opinions. A factual statement can be proved or disproved through experiments, measurements or research. An opinion is an expressed belief about a subject. Before you can write a good review, you need to carefully read and understand how a material is structured.

A review presents your overall opinion of the work. It is not a judgment of good or bad. Rather, it is an evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the work. As a reviewer, you need to highlight aspects that other readers may appreciate. So, it is basically an expository form of writing.

The introduction to a review should present the title of the book, the number of pages, name of author, name of publishers, year of publication, genre, name of reviewer, etc. The three major steps to a review are the preview, the reading and the review proper.

Steps to Writing a Review

The three major steps to a review are the preview, the reading and the review proper.

The Preview: Here, as a reviewer, you need to begin with a careful consideration of the title which is the first clue to the work. Titles are significant in that they provide a peep into the world of the writer and present important information on what you are set to uncover. In the preview stage, you may need to dig into the head note or available biographical materials so as to get acquainted with the author's background. You also need a foreknowledge of some of the other works of the writer, his techniques, style and themes. Other things you watch out for at this stage again are preface, date of first edition, date of current edition, price (optional), binding: (is it paperback or hardcover?) subject, etc. For a novel, a play or other related works of art, you need to examine five basic elements. They are the plot, characterisation, setting, point of view, and theme.

Read: The next important step is to read. The type of reading required here is active; the reading speed is slow. You read with a view to understanding, analyzing, evaluating and scrutinising. You assess the claims of the writer and weigh his arguments based on sound reasoning. As you read, you ponder; you add and jot notes on what you are reading. Where words or sentences leap out of the page and suggest meaning, you

should underline them or use colour markers to highlight them. You need to mark transition statements as well as quotations that emphasise what you are reading.

Review Proper: This is the stage at which you harness your thoughts and present your analysis of the star ideas expressed by the author. It is basically your reaction to the work. At this point, you provide answers to the questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How?

In your review, note which chapters would make good subjects for deeper analysis. Also, you should find answers to these questions:

1. Did the book meet my expectation?
2. What did I learn from the book that I did not already know?
3. What is the contribution of the book to scholarship?

Moreover, as a reviewer, you should establish the purpose of the work or its thesis. With brief quotation or illustrations, you need to show how the work fulfils this thesis. In your review, you may pitch the book side by side with another work/other works on the same topic or a similar topic. Your job is to state your opinion of the book. You may also indicate the audience that is best suited for the book. Some reviews indicate how long it took the reviewer to read an information and where the book can be found.

Correspondence

Apart from reports and reviews, other relevant forms of writing are letters, memos and lately, e-mails. All these forms of writing are referred to as correspondence.

A memorandum (plural: memoranda) is a short form of written communication circulated within an organisation. Memos are usually letters exchanged by employees in the daily conduct of their work. They often contain routine enquiries, routine responses, policy instructions and directives.

The major difference between letters and memos is that while letters are circulated both within and outside an organisation memos are intra-organisation write-ups. They may be of the same length, formality, writing style and pattern of organisation with letters, but they differ in their format or mode of arrangement.

Memos omit both salutation and complimentary dose. They usually require subject lines. A subject line is the title of the document. It serves four purposes:

1. It aids in the filling and retrieving of documents.
2. It makes the retrieving of documents easy.
3. It gives the reader a reason to read further.
4. It provides a framework for the message that follows.

Headings unlike subject lines are optional in memos. Where headings are used, each heading must be limited to a point and the point must be exhausted under that heading.

Memos never use indented paragraphs. The first letter of the reader's name, the writer's name and the subject phrase are lined up vertically. An inch margin should be observed at the top, side and bottom of page. Use single space within paragraphs and double space between paragraphs. Use text format for the date e.g. July 1, 2003.

Usually, most organisations prefer the one page memo. However, where the information cannot be squeezed into one page, you should put the key points on a well-designed page and continue with further information on the second page.

No matter how loaded the points are, with careful revision, you can still bring out a one-page memo. Attach appendixes for readers who need more information. For organisations that already have special letterheads for memos, where Date/To/From/Subject are already printed on the form, you should set the reader's name, the writer's name and subject at the main margin to save typing time. Memos are usually initialed; so you should let readers know that the writer did write and read the memo to ensure that no one sends out a memo in another person's name. In some organisations, employees are required to sign memos rather than just initial them. In such cases, the signature comes after the last line of the memo. It starts half way over the page.

Fig 6.1 A Sample Memo

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
FACULTY OF ARTS
INTERNAL MEMORANDUM

From: Faculty Officer (Arts) To: All Heads of Departments

Ref: FA.HSD/113
Date: 26/3/2004

Joint Board of Examiners Meeting

I am directed to inform all Heads of Departments that the Joint Board of Examiners meeting will hold on Tuesday, 30 March in Room 32 of the Faculty at 1:00 p.m. A hundred copies (100) of the results should be submitted by each department.

Thank you.

.....

M.A. Akowe

cc: All Academic Staff
Examination Officer

Letters

There are two major categories of letters, the formal and the informal. However, some scholars have carved out a third type, the semi-formal letter. The distinguishing factors are format and style. The destination of a letter determines its format and category. Also, the purposes of letters vary: there are letters of complaints, demands, enquiries, letters to editors, notifications to school authority and so on.

As a university student, you may have to write a letter explaining why you missed a test or why you have to travel home in the middle of the semester. You may also have to write to protest the non-release of your **Use of English** result or to protest a clash in your examination timetable. A discovery that another student is using your matriculation number does not call for panic; rather, it calls for effective writing skills.

Letters are strictly issues-related and the issues covered may not always be positive. However, where the issue is negative (for instance, a sack letter), the letter can still be skilfully written to avoid confrontation or ill feelings. In other words, a letter can be strongly worded, but not rude.

The introduction of letters may be direct or indirect. It is logical to begin with a reference to how they originated. Experts believe that the test of a good letter is a simple one. If you seem to hear the other person talking as you reads it is a good letter.

There are formats guiding letter writing are explained:

The Address of the Writer: This should not include his name. However, if there is no letterhead, you may include your name or the company's name. For formal letters, the first page you should use a letterhead stationery so as to help create a professional image. The letterhead tells who the writers are, their addresses, phone numbers, fax numbers, names and titles of their offices. The second and subsequent pages should be plain paper (without letterheads).

The Date: The date should be placed below the address of the writer and it should be written in full. The conventional date form presents the month, day and year e.g. March 4, 2003. When dates are abbreviated (4-03-2003 or March 4, 2003) they make the letter appear informal and leave unfavourable impression.

The inside Address / Receiver's Address: This must be written on a line below the date at the left-hand corner of the paper. If the name of the person being addressed is unknown, you may use the title. While some writers are of the opinion that names should always be used, others maintain that official titles should be used in place of names e.g. The Chairman, Dean of Arts; etc.

Salutation or Opening Greeting: This is written immediately below the last line of the receiver's address. It should align with the receiver's address at the left margin. The choice of words is based on the writer's level of familiarity with the receiver and the formality of the situation. Some authors recommend the use of title plus receiver's last name only. Where abbreviations are used, they should be only commonly abbreviated words (Mr., Mrs., Ms. Dr.). Some gender sensitive organisations use Ms. for all women. They claim that unless the recipient's marital status is of relevance, there is no need to indicate Miss. or Mrs.

If you are on first name terms with the receiver, you may use the first name. When you do not know the reader's name or appropriate title, you should simply say 'Dear Sir' or 'Dear Ma'.

Subject Line: A subject line tells what the letter is about. While memos always carry subject lines, not all letters employ them. A good subject line is specific, concise and appropriate. It should state your purpose and the response you need from the reader. The subject line may contain specific and helpful information - date of previous correspondence, invoice, number, order number etc. The subject line is placed a double space below the salutation.

Closing: The common formal signing off greeting or salutation is 'Yours faithfully', '(Yours) Sincerely' and 'Yours truly'. Some writers claim that in recent years, the "yours" has been fading away, So, Truly, Sincerely etc. are fashionable. However, the writer-reader relationship predicts the closing. Other designs available on the word perfect letter template are 'Best regards,' 'Best wishes,' 'Love,' 'Regards,' 'Respectfully yours,' 'Sincerely yours,' 'Take care,' 'Thank you,' 'Thanks,' etc.

Signature Block: This appears on the fourth line below the closing, the typed name of the writer and the writer's signature appear in ink.

Information Notations: This appears in abbreviated form on the lower left corner of the letter. It may include the initials of the writer and the typist (OAE:rh). Also included are file name notations, enclosures and other officers for which copies are prepared. These notations are however optional.

What you should also note

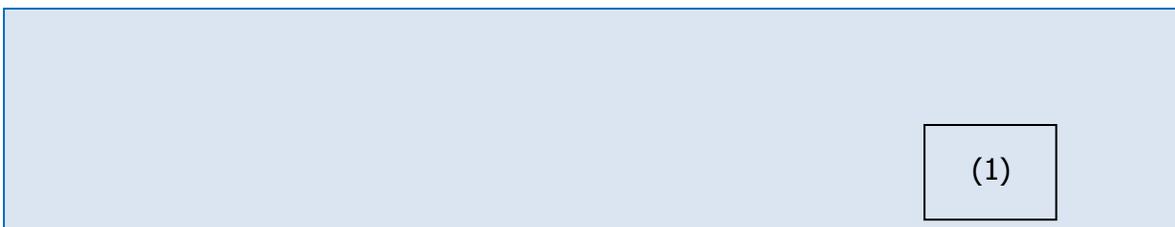
Punctuation for letters is either mixed or open.

- In mixed punctuation, a colon follows the salutation and a comma follows the close.
- In open punctuation, you should omit all punctuations after the salutation and the close.

Be consistent in placing the text of the passage, either flush left or indented. Use double space between paragraphs.

Avoid clichés or buzz phrases like; 'please find enclosed', in response to yours of the 22nd.

Fig 6.2 Format for a formal letter



(2)

----- 3

-----4-----

----- 5-----

6-----

7-----

8-----

Key

1. Address of the Writer
2. Inside Address (Address of the receiver)
3. Salutation
4. Subject line
5. Body of the letter (the message)
6. Complimentary close
7. Writer's signature
8. Writer's typed name

E-Mails

In the last two decades, communication through the Information Technology especially the World Wide Web (www) otherwise known as computer has significantly increased affected the means of communication all over the world. Nigeria is not left out in the increase use of e-mail.

Electronic-mail can act as a carrier of information as well as an informal message organ. The E-mail format is very similar to the memo format. The advantages of the E-mail are many:

1. It is cost effective.
2. It reduces paper traffic.
2. It acts as organisational memory.
3. It reduces geographical constraints.
4. It increases communication within an organisation.
5. It increases the number of communication relationships.

In spite of these advantages, the e-mail may not replace letters and memos in business communication because of the following reasons:

- It lacks confidentiality.
- It is too informal.
- There may be communication overload.
- There may be network or (power) failure.
- It lacks visual or aural clues.
- E-mail also has its own conventions or etiquettes. Some of these are as follows:
 - Focus on purpose and context of your message.
 - The circumstance where E-mail is appropriate is specific. You cannot send an employee an e-mail to terminate his appointment.
 - E-mail is not a private form of communication; messages can be intercepted, so policy issues or company secrets may not be exchanged via e-mail.
 - Any information you send via e-mail may be used as evidence in court, so remember that every message is permanent and retrievable.
 - You may use a subject line to alert your reader on what to expect.
 - Do not use capitals all through your mail; it may appear as if you are shouting.

- Any time you have to leave your desk for an extended period, log off your computer.
- Check your box often.
- Target your message to reach its appropriate audience, not everyone on your mailing list.
- Use correct spellings, grammar and familiar abbreviations.

Since most e-mail programmes have readymade format, the information on the screen will act as a prompter for you. Always remember that the email is an evolving medium, so keep updating your knowledge on its usage and application.

Research Paper

A research paper is an extensive, formal composition, giving information gleaned from reading a number of sources. The purpose of this form of writing is to find out how much you have discovered and learnt from reading about a particular subject. The paper is a summary of the facts so far gathered by you on the given topic.

Many research papers are purely informational. They are expository in nature, although there may be aspects that will require some measure of description and persuasion. Whether the assignment is a term paper or a long research paper, much reading will be required. The paper may need to define concepts, explain processes, defend a point of view or uphold an idea.

In some cases, the subject for the paper is given. However, if the subject is not given, you should select a subject which is interesting and topical (relevant) to the course for which the paper is being written. It is equally important to select a subject that is not too wide for the scope of the assignment so that it can be well treated. You should choose a subject on which there is no paucity of materials. If you delve deeply into a narrow subject, you will have a better paper than someone who treats a broad subject superficially.

The next stage is to draw up a working bibliography. Remember, we said the subject must lend itself to research. Also, sources must be available in the library. You need good books and journals; you may also do an internet search for books and electronic

journals. Sometimes, you get information from personal interviews or correspondence with individuals who are authorities on the subject.

As you read each material selected for the paper, take note of the publication details; name of author(s), title of the material, place of publication, year of publication and page. This should be the first information you write down in your notes. As you read through the material, take down information which you think might be useful. You have to decide how much you will write word for word and what you should write in your own words. Remember that a research paper should not consist of a mere list of quotations. It is expected that you will critically examine your sources, gather facts and ideas and present them in your own words. However, we should be quick to note here that a serious and common fault in research papers is the use of quotation without acknowledging the source. You can be accused of plagiarism! This is the use of the words of others as if they were your own. Always give credit to your source when you copy. Set off a copied material, within the text, with quotation marks (if it is less than three lines), when it exceeds three lines, indent the quotation.

After you have gathered sufficient materials on the subject, your next assignment is to arrange the notes you have gathered according to subheadings. Note that some of the notes you have gathered may be discarded. Draw up an outline so as to ensure a proper organisation of your materials as well as thorough treatment of all facets of the subject matter.

The next step is to prepare your first draft. Do not waste unnecessary time over getting the right opening sentence or the appropriate words; this is a rough draft. The requirement at this point is for you to put your thoughts together. The final draft can take care of issues of style, transitional words or phrases and layout.

Other important considerations in writing the term paper are the use of footnotes, bibliography or reference. If you do not want to interrupt your paper with the citations of sources, you can use footnotes. Write a number to the right and above the final word in a quotation or an idea taken from one of your sources. The numbers should follow a sequence showing the order in which the citations appear. Plan each page in a way that there will be space at the bottom to present the footnotes for the sources cited on that

page. When footnotes appear together at the end of the paper, on a separate page, immediately preceding the bibliography, they are called endnotes. You are advised to follow the style specified by the course teacher.

The bibliography is the list of all sources used in a paper. It must be prepared with care so that it is complete, accurate and consistent in form. Entries on sources are arranged in alphabetical order according to author's surnames.

If there are co-authors, the first names of the second and third authors are written first. When an item occupies more than one line, the second line is indented. Two popular referencing formats for long essays are the *American Psychological Association* (APA) and the *Modern Language Association* (MLA).

Some research papers may call for charts, tables, diagrams and illustrations. When any of these graphical presentations is used, you must make sure that they add to the quality of the paper. In other words, don't just pad up your paper with unnecessary illustrations and diagrams. The figures must be relevant. More so, you should always present each diagram with the source (if the diagram is copied).

- You can read up on a topic for writing from -----.
 - a) dreams
 - b) heavens
 - c) spirits
 - d) journals
- The correct answer is D (**journals**), because among the options it is the only realistic way of getting a topic for writing.
 - A ----- is a specialized, professional and academic writing, structured and prepared to aid the decision making process.
 - a) review
 - b) research paper
 - c) report

- d) correspondence
- The correct answer is C (**report**), because it is only report meant to solve immediate problem for decision making.
- A good review draws a distinction between-----and-----.
- a) facts/opinions
- b) facts/guesses
- c) opinions/reports
- d) opinions/guesses
- The correct answer is A (**facts/opinions**), because review essentially is about differentiating between facts and opinions.
- The three major steps you follow in review include the preview, -----and review proper.
- a) skimming
- b) scanning
- c) reading
- d) writing
- The correct answer is C (**reading**) because it is the step after preview and review proper.
- Memos are-----forms of communication while letters are-----forms of communication.
- 2.4 external/internal
- 2.5 internal/external
- 2.6 informal/internal
- 2.7 external/informal
- The correct answer is B (**internal/external**), because memos are internal while letters are external forms of communication.

- One of the disadvantages of e-mails is it-----.
- a) is costly
- b) is too sophisticated
- c) is close
- d) lacks confidentiality
- The correct answer is D (**lacks confidentiality**), because it is the only option that states its disadvantage.
- One of these things is an important element of a research paper.
- a) executive summary
- b) bibliography
- c) prologue
- d) epilogue
- The correct answer is B (**bibliography**), because it is the only option that is included in a research paper.

Unit Summary

In the above unit, you have learnt the qualities of good writing and you been introduced to the writing process. Also, you have been taught the forms of writing.

6.2 Examination Writing

You will be writing examinations during the course of your programme. So in this unit, you will be exposed to the techniques answering examination questions.

Learning Outcomes

After studying this module, you should be able to:

- 6.2.1 present the language of examination questions and answers
- 6.2.2 identify kinds of examination questions

6.2.3 write specific examination answers

6.2.1 The Language of Examination Questions and Answers

Success in tertiary education requires you to have the ability to write effective examination answers which entails a good knowledge of the subject matter and discourse competence, as well as knowledge of essential grammatical systems needed to express ideas in meaningful and well-constructed sentences.

A major problem you may encounter is failure to recognise the dynamics of instruction verbs as technical terms in examination discourse in English language. Such instruction verbs include words like discuss explain, describe, compare, contrast, argue, demonstrate, criticise, examine, and so on.

The English essay is the main means of assessing learners in writing. It becomes necessary therefore that you acquire the techniques of essay writing. What, then, are the major characteristics of the English essay that you need to know? They are clarity, relevance and logical development, and sequential order.

Clarity

In English, your purpose for writing an essay should be made clear from the wording of your topic. The implication of this is for both you and your teacher. Your questions must be clearly worded to eliminate ambiguity and vagueness. You must analyse and understand the keywords in the questions you are about to answer. A good knowledge of how examination questions are worded is a pre-requisite for writing effective answers

Relevance and Logical Development

Logic is also a highly desirable quality for you to write an English essay. There are two major forms of logical development found in the English paragraph and essay. These are the inductive and deductive patterns. In inductive development, you start writing from specifics to general points while in deductive development you write from general to specific points. An English essay must also have a good introductory part, development or middle part, and a concluding part.

Sequential Order

A significant feature of the English essay is linearity. Ideas are organised in a linear or sequential order like a straight line from general to specific or specific to general. The organising mechanism is the paragraph. A sense of logical development of paragraphs will enable the writer to present answers in an orderly manner.

Things to Avoid in Answering Examination Questions

It is important for you to know that written examination essays will NOT normally contain the following:

- i. contractions (i.e. 'is not' , would be used instead of 'isn't'; 'they have' instead of 'they've')
- ii. hesitation fillers (i.e 'er' 'em' "well", "you know" etc., which might be common in the spoken medium are avoided).
- iii. familiar or informal style.
- iv. a number of phrasal or prepositional verbs which are more suitable or appropriate in an informal style.

In summary, the principles of the English essay explained above may be related to the cooperative principle of Paul Grice, an American Philosopher who has proposed four maxims' or principles which can guide effective communication. These are related to writing examination answers as follows:

- a) Maxim of Quantity: make your answers as informative as required.
- b) Maxim of Quality; make your answers to be exact.
- c) Maxim of Relevance: make your answers relevant to the demand of the question
- d) Maxim of Manner: be orderly and clear in your answers.

6.2.2 Kinds of Examination Questions

Examination questions can be classified in a number of ways. They may be categorised according to the key words which they contain. These include (a) 'WH- words and (b) instruction verbs. WH-questions are questions which start with such words as what,

which, who, how, why, to what extent and how far. Instruction verb questions are questions containing verbs that instruct you on what to do like discuss, describe, account for, explain, etc.

There are other modes of testing and examining apart from writing questions involving the items just explained. These include objective and multiple choice testing. The objective of testing is for you to respond to each of a number of questions by selecting one out of several options in the question. This type of assessment is objective in the sense that no value judgment is required on the part of the examiner. The questions may be used to measure your knowledge and accuracy in the recall of facts.

6.2.3 Writing Specific Examination Answers

As you have seen, instruction verbs in university examination questions are treated as technical terms. You must understand their meaning and usage. Consider the semantics of two prominent instruction verbs in university examination questions: discuss and explain. Some examples of discuss and explain question types are stated for you below:

- a) "Discuss the view that colonialism was a factor in the growth and expansion of Islam in West Africa" (History).
- b) "Communication is vital for national development". Discuss/ Explain (English).
- c) "The French and the Wahabis had serious confrontation in West Africa. Give reasons for the confrontation and state the consequences of the confrontation" (History).
- d) "Explain the main causes of semantic change and their consequences" (Linguistics).

Here are some properties of the instruction verbs - "discuss" and "explain" - which you need to know:

- (a) **Discuss** has the following qualities:
 - it is imperative (verb of instruction)
 - it is ideational (ideas requesting information)
 - it is linear (connected events or ideas)
 - it is logical

- it is debatable (different views pros and cons expected)
- it is objective (verifiable)
- it is critical
- it is subjective (personal opinion)

(b) **Explain** possesses the attributes below:

- it is imperative (verb of-instruction)
- it is ideational (ideas, information, facts) .
- it is linear (connected ideas)
- it is explanatory (clarity)
- it is relational (relationship between two things)
- it is logical (sequence)
- it is objective (verifiable)

Here are more keywords (instruction verbs) in examination questions with an explanation for each, which you may want to study.

- ✓ **Compare:** This requires that you present the items in your answer side by side and indicate their similarities and differences. You are expected to balance your answer in this type of question.
- ✓ **Contrast:** This requires that your answer points out only the differences between two items.
- ✓ **Criticize:** This type of question requires that your answer points out mistakes and weaknesses and also indicates any favourable aspect of the subject of question. This question type also requires a balanced answer.
- ✓ **Define:** In this type of question, you are required to provide an answer which explains the precise meaning of a concept.
- ✓ **Analyze:** For this kind of question, your answer should take apart an idea, concept or statement in order to consider all the factors it consist.
- ✓ **Evaluate:** This requires an answer which is similar to one with the keyword 'discuss.' However, your conclusion in this type of question is expected to make a judgment.

- ✓ Justify: You are required in this question type to provide an answer which gives only the reasons for your position or your argument on the given topic.
- ✓ Summarise/Outline: Your answer in this form of question should contain only a summary of all the available information about a subject, i.e. only the main points and not the details.
- The English essay is the main means of----- learners in writing.
 - a) failing
 - b) assessing
 - c) keeping
 - d) choosing
- The correct answer is B (**assessing**), because the reason for examination is for assessment.
- One characteristic of the English essay is----- .
 - a) logical development
 - b) opinions
 - c) guesses
 - d) assumptions
- The correct answer is C (**logical development**), because among the options it is the only characteristic of the English essay.
- ----- choice testing is a form assessing students in examination question.
 - a) Multiple
 - b) Single
 - c) Theory
 - d) Double
- The correct answer is A. (**Multiple**), because it is the appropriate option for that context.

- All these key words are used for examination questions except
 - a) compare
 - b) analyse
 - c) define
 - d) summon
- The correct answer is D. (**summon**), because it can't be used to set examination questions.

Unit Summary

In the above unit, you have been enlightened on the language of examination questions and answers and you have also been taught how to identify kinds of examination questions and how well to write specific examination answers.

Assignment

This section is meant to test your understanding of what you have learnt in this module. Please, proceed to answer the following questions.

1. What are the basic examination question writing principles and techniques you have learnt from this module?
2. Explain the significance of key words and other rubrics in writing effective examination answers
3. Indicate 2 or 3 special features of the following question types: "describe", "analyse", "compare", "contrast", "comment", "prove", and write notes.

Q 6.1 (Forum Post)

- A. Identify four major forms of writing known to you and highlight their main features.
- B. Succinctly explain the importance of unity, coherence and mechanical accuracy in any writing task.

Q 6.2 (Essay Submission)

- A. Based on your interest, knowledge and experiences, prepare an outline on any of the following topics:
- (i) Cultism on Nigerian campuses
 - (ii) The pains of unwanted pregnancy
 - (iii) Corruption in the public service
 - (iv) Road accidents
 - (v) The computer age.
- B. Write an essay of not more than 400 words on your selected topic and highlight the topic sentence of each paragraph.

Module Summary

This module has dwelt on forms of writing: reports, reviews and correspondences. It also takes you through the writing process, forms of writing, including e-mails, research paper and letters. It has also exposed you to examination question and answer writing principles and techniques. It has also introduced you to the essential attributes of a good English essay and the significance of keywords and other rubrics in writing effective examination answers.

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Module Seven: Mechanics of Writing

Getting Prepared

In this module, you will learn about the importance and the use of punctuation marks in writing. Punctuation marks are used to divide a piece of writing into sentences, phrases etc.

Learning Outcome

At the end of the module, you should be able to:

use the punctuation marks appropriately.

Attempt reading this passage:

by 4 am the children heard a knock at the door they became scared but with some courage one of them asked who are you there was no response nevertheless the knock persisted

1. Is the passage meaningful to you?
2. If no, why?

One thing you would quickly note is that there is no punctuation in the passage. This lack of punctuation makes the passage difficult to understand. Punctuation consists of a series of marks used to aid the interpretation of texts and avoid ambiguity principally by separating or linking words, phrases, and clauses, and by indicating parentheses and asides. Thus, the meaning in the above sentence becomes clearer when well punctuated, as reflected below.

By 4 a.m., the children heard a knock at the door. They became afraid but with some courage, one of them asked, "who are you?" There was no response; nevertheless the knock persisted.

For most part, punctuation marks do nothing more than mirror pauses and stops in your speaking patterns. There are different types of punctuation marks. These are:

End marks: these include periods, question marks, and exclamation. They ask you to stop briefly in your reading. Commas ask you to pause briefly and then read on. Dashes and parentheses can be used to set off explanatory or parenthetical information.

Punctuation also indicates the emotion or tone that you want to get across to your readers. In this chapter you will learn how to use the punctuation marks.

7.1 The Period or Full Stop (.)

- (a) A period is used after a sentence that makes a statement of fact or belief or that expresses a command or a polite request. It is also used for expressions that are not questions or exclamations.

Examples:

- (i) John came yesterday. (fact)
 - (ii) Make sure you see me today. (command)
 - (iii) Please be sure to enclose your cheque or money order. (polite request)
- (b) A period also closes indirect questions which report rather than ask questions.

Examples:

- (i) I asked how old the child was.
 - (ii) We all wonder who will win the election.
- (c) A period can also be used after an acceptable expression such as salutation.

Examples:

- (i) Good morning.
 - (ii) Good night.
 - (iii) Good afternoon.
- (d) A period is used after an elliptical statement. An elliptical statement is usually a word or phrase used as an answer to a question or as a transitional expression at the beginning of a paragraph.

Examples:

- (i) Who was at the door? John.
 - (ii) Did he come yesterday? No.
 - (iii) Who pulled Awo's statue down? Unknown soldiers.
 - (iv) Are you hot? Yes, a little bit.
- (e) A period is used to abbreviate:

1. personal titles such as Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., Jr. etc.

Examples:

- (i) Mr. John
- (ii) Mrs. John
- (iii) Ms. Mary
- (iv) Dr. Joseph.

In British English, it is usual to omit the periods when abbreviations consist of the initial and the final letters e.g. Dr. (Doctor).

As a general rule, other titles before the names of persons are usually spelt out. In informal writing, however long, military, religious, and honorary titles may be abbreviated if the last name is accompanied by the first name or initials. When "the" is used with honourable, it is not usually abbreviated.

Examples:

S/N	Formal	Informal

1	Reverend O.O. Tayo	Rev. O.O. Tayo
2	Governor Bola Tinubu	Gov. Bola Tinubu
3	Professor Iwelumo	Prof. Iwelumo

2. designations, academic degrees, religious orders, courtesy titles, professional titles and similar terms frequently used after personal names

Examples:

- (i) John Taylor, M.D.
- (ii) Dr. T.S. James, Sr.
- (iii) Tobi Nana, Ph.D.
- (iv) Sanjo Alade, Esq.
- (v) Abiodun Hassan, B.A., M.A.

Note

It is important to note that periods are not used to abbreviate acronyms (an acronym is a word coined from the initial letters or syllables of a group of words, and it is pronounced as if it were a normal word). Examples are

- (i) AIDS (Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome)
- (ii) UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation)
- (iii) RAM (Random Access Memory)
- (iv) ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States)

Most acronyms are written in capital letters. However, some acronyms such as 'radar' (radio detecting and ranging), 'laser' (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), and 'yuppie' (young urban professional + ie) have achieved common noun status and should be written in small letters. You should note that acronyms should be spelt out when first used. Periods are not used after abbreviations for most governmental, social, business, or professional organisations. Examples: TVA, NAT, BCOS, OMPADEC, PTA, NUC, PR, CEO, etc.

3. addresses

Examples:

- (i) Ave. (avenue)
- (ii) St. (Street)

(iii) Co. (Company)

Notably, abbreviations of names of countries, states, cities, days, months, geographical localities, courses of instruction should be written in full when used alone within sentences. In addresses and list, however, they are frequently abbreviated.

For instance:

Not: On a warm Tues. p.m. in August, she left her home, an apartment bldg. on Ib. Rd., and departed for NY U.S.A.

But: On a warm Tuesday afternoon in August, she left her home, an apartment building on Ibadan Road, Abuja, and departed for New York, United States of America.

The period is also used for the following abbreviations: e.g. (for example) p. (page); etc. (and so forth); pp.(pages); vol. (volume); i.e. (that is).

You should take note that you write a.m. (the abbreviation of ante meridian, meaning "before noon") and p.m. (abbreviation of post meridian, meaning "afternoon") in small letters. As a rule, do not use "in the morning" or a similar expression with a.m. or "in the afternoon" or a similar expression with p.m.

Examples:

Faulty: We arrived 9 a.m. in the morning and left at 3 p.m. in the afternoon.

Acceptable: We arrived 9 a.m. and left at 3 p.m.

Similarly, A.D. (anno domini "in the year of our Lord") and B.C. (before Christ) are written in capital letters. A.D. is written before the year while B. C. is written after the year.

Examples

(a) A.D. 1812

(b) 2000 B.C.

(f) Periods are used after numbers and letters in an outline.

Examples:

- 1.-----
 - A.-----
 - B.-----

(g) A period can also be used as a decimal point in amounts of money, percentages, and other amounts.

Examples:

(i) 22.5

- (ii) 12.5 per cent
- (iii) N10.50k

However, a period is not used after ordinal ending such as nd, st, rd, or th.

Examples:

- (i) 4th position not *4th. position
- (ii) 104th street not * 104th. Street
- (iii) the 3rd boy not *3rd. boy

- o Insert periods in the appropriate places.
 - i. Ms Maria Jordan received both a PhD. in Chemistry and an MEd in English
 - ii. Cicero was murdered in 43 BC.
- Answer
 - i. Ms. Maria Jordan received both a Ph. D in Chemistry and an M. Ed in English.
 - ii. Cicero was murdered in 43 B.C.

7.2 Ellipsis (...)

A group of three periods is called an ellipsis and it is used to indicate that you have intentionally left out a part of a quotation.

Example:

"During military regime, there were worse things done to education," he said sadly. "But now, several years into civilian regime, this... it is a real shock".

It is important to note that if an ellipsis comes at the end of a statement marked with a period, that period is added. In this case, the ellipsis mark becomes four periods instead of the normal three.

Example:

"Next to relevance comes picture quality which is virtually important. Modern cameras are capable of yielding high definition results"

The ellipsis indicates that a sentence or more than a sentence has been ellipted.

- Insert ellipsis where necessary
- i. is the government of the people, for the people and by the people.
- ii. I made by the way who are you?
- Answer
 - ... is the government of the people, for the people and by the people.
 - ii. I made... by the way who are you?

7.3 The Comma (,)

The comma is used in the following:

(a) to separate main clauses

The comma is used to separate independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or,).

Examples:

- (i) I wanted to wait for him, but it was past eight o'clock.
- (ii) Tomide did not like the book, nor did John.
- (iii) We were at Abuja last week, but we did not have time to visit the president.
- (iv) The company has an office in Lagos, and it is planning to open another one in Osogbo.
- (v) I did not wait any longer, for it was past eight O' clock.
- (vi) He must have been satisfied with the condition of the car, or he wouldn't have bought it.
- (vii) He breached our contract, so I sued him.

You should note that the comma precedes the conjunction. If the independent clauses are very short and very closely related, you should not use a comma to separate them.

Examples:

- (i) John is tall and is very handsome.

(ii) The carpet is beige and the drapes are brown.

(b) with non-restrictive clauses

Commas are also used to separate the noun followed by a non-restrictive clause if the clause contains additional information about the noun. Such information is usually unessential to the identification of the meaning of the preceding noun.

Examples:

- (i) The student, who was sick, left the room.
- (ii) The operator, who works nights and weekends, lives in Dugbe.
- (iii) The book, which he bought, has been stolen.

A restrictive clause is not set apart from the noun that precedes it by commas. The clause is needed in identifying the word being qualified.

Examples:

- (i) The course that I am taking requires a great deal of reading.
- (ii) The student who was sick left the room.
- (iii) The operator who works nights and weekends lives in Dugbe.
- (iv) The book which he bought has been stolen.

Let us differentiate the meanings conveyed by sentences such as the following:

- i. The student who was sick left the room.
- ii The student, who was sick, left the room.

In the first sentence, there was more than one student and the restrictive clause identified the particular student in question. In the second sentence, there was only one student. The non-restrictive clause, set apart by commas, only provided additional information on the student (that he was sick).

(c) after adverbial clauses

Commas are also used to set off adverbial clauses beginning with "if", "when", "although", and so on from the rest of the sentence when they come first in a sentence.

Examples:

- (i) If she rings, tell her I will be at her place at six.
- (ii) When he calls back, I will send for you.
- (iii) Although he didn't win the election, he was declared the winner.

(d) after introductory phrases

A comma can be used after an introductory verbal phrase at the beginning of a sentence.

- (i) To get there on time, we will need to leave at 8.30 a.m.
- (ii) Before leaving, the girls washed the cars.
- (iii) Discouraged by his friends, Fashina forbore from sponsoring his girlfriend.
- (iv) Lacking necessary training, I was advised to take both courses.

(e) after an introductory prepositional phrase.

Examples:

- (i) At the end of its first operation, the company showed a small loss.
- (ii) On June 12, 1993, Nigeria had the freest and fairest election.

(f) after introductory words

A comma is used after words like accordingly, consequently, yes, well, no, however, therefore, otherwise, in fact, certainly, or similar words used to introduce a sentence.

Examples:

- (i) However, necessary repairs must be made.
- (ii) No, he didn't come.
- (iii) Therefore, we shall go.
- (iv) In fact, the outcome of the vote is in doubt.

(g) to list items of the same word class or grammatical unit.

Commas can be put between a series of three or more words, phrases or clauses of equal rank: three or more adjectives, three or more nouns, three or more verbal phrases, and so forth.

Examples:

- (i) He visited Paris, Berlin, and Rome (three nouns).
- (ii) The house was clean, quiet, and orderly (three adjectives).
- (iii) He walked across the lawn, along the sidewalk, and up the front steps (three propositional phrases).
- (iv) I came, I saw, I conquered (three clauses).

(h) between two or more adjectives preceding a noun

Commas are also used to separate two or more adjectives modifying a noun if all the adjectives have equal importance. When the one closest to the noun has more force of

importance than the other preceding adjectives, do not use commas to separate the series of adjectives.

Examples:

- (i) This city has several long, narrow, dark streets (the three adjectives are equal in importance).
- (ii) Yesterday was a bright, warm spring day (the two adjectives are equal in force).
- (iii) It was a long unnecessary journey (unnecessary is the more important modifier).

(i) with non-Restrictive appositives

An appositive is a noun or noun phrase that re-names the preceding noun or noun phrase. A non-restrictive appositive is not essential to identify what it re-names, as such, it is set off with commas.

Examples:

- (i) Mr. John, the guest speaker, is a trained linguist.
- (ii) Fela Anikulapo, the Afro Beat originator, died some years ago.
- (iii) We, students of University of Ibadan, will always wage war against cultism.

However, commas are not required to set off a restrictive appositive clause from the noun or noun phrase.

Examples:

- (i) Soyinka's novel Ake is about his childhood life (The appositive Ake is restrictive because Soyinka wrote many novels).
- (ii) The editorial cartoonist Lanre Igwe has resigned from the board in protest (The appositive Lanre Igwe is restrictive because it identifies the specific editorial cartoonist).

(j) with vocatives

A comma is used to set off the name or title of a person being spoken to directly from the sentence.

Examples:

- (i) Thank you, Professor.
- (ii) Dayo, have you bought the books?

(k) with repeated expressions

Commas can be used to separate words repeated for emphasis.

Examples:

- (i) The examination questions were very, very simple.
- (ii) You will discover many, many secrets of success in this book.

(l) with parenthetical words or phrases

A parenthetical expression interrupts the main thought of a sentence. Such an expression sometimes qualifies or amends a statement, provides additional information, or contrasts with a part of a statement.

Examples:

- (i) The collapse, after all, was inevitable.
- (ii) The work, he said, was exciting.
- (iii) John, not James, wrote the epistle.
- (iv) We should, however, be grateful.

(m) to mark off direct quotation

A comma is also used to set off a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence.

Examples:

- (i) "The water is cold," he said.
- (ii) "You can't do that, sir," the manager told him.

(n) with titles, degrees

A comma is used to set off the names of persons from titles and academic degrees.

Examples:

- (i) Adeola Olabode, Ph.D.
- (ii) Mr. Ade Olawumi, Chief Recruitment Officer, called yesterday.

(o) with place names and dates

A comma can also be used to set off place names and the year in a date.

Examples:

- (i) The event took place in Ibadan, Oyo State, between June 13, 2003, and September 15, 2003.

NOTE: As a rule, you do not use a comma to separate that from the rest of the clause it introduces.

Examples:

Faulty: I know that, I will pass Use of English.

Acceptable: I know that I will pass Use of English.

- In the following sentence, add commas to where they are needed.
 - i. If you follow the instructions you will be able to install your radio.
 - ii. The four types of non verbal communication are: kinesics haptics proxemics and dormant communication.

- Answer

- i. If you follow the instructions, you will be able to install your radio.
- ii. The four types of non verbal communication are: kinesics, haptics, proxemics, and dormant communication.

7.4 Question Mark (?)

The question mark is used:

(a) after a direct question

A question mark is put after a direct question.

Examples:

- (i) How many years did he spend?
- (ii) What was responsible for his dismissal?

(b) after a tag question

A question mark can also be used after question tags set off with a comma and added at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

- (i) He saw the ball, didn't he?
- (ii) He can't do it, can he?

(c) after a polite request

A question mark is used after a polite request.

Example:

- (i) Would you please sign this course form for me?

(d) in parentheses

A question mark in parentheses can be used to indicate that a writer is unsure of a date, a figure, or a word.

Examples:

- (i) Mr. John bagged his Ph.D. in 1996 (?)
- (ii) The meeting is on the forthcoming election (?)

(e) in a series of questions

A question mark can be used after each question related to the same subject and verb.

Examples:

- (i) Would the next president be Hassan? Joel? Sangotade?
- (ii) Would this year's trade fair show be in Ibadan? In Abuja? In Lagos?

(f) after condensed questions

A condensed question is usually a word or phrase following a statement.

Examples:

- (i) He said he would return the money to you. Why?
- (ii) He promised to complete the work earlier than originally scheduled. How much earlier?

(g) after a declarative sentence

A question mark can be used after a declarative sentence. Such a question mark changes the declarative sentence into an interrogative sentence. A question mark after a declarative sentence is usually used to clarify the statement made or to show one's surprise at such a statement.

Examples:

- (i) You saw me yesterday?
- (ii) She is late again?

- o Insert question marks where appropriate.

- i. "Can I play this" asked John.
- ii. Are people with so many possessions really happy.

- **Feedback**

- i. "Can I play this?" asked John.
- ii. Are people with so many possessions really happy?

7.5 Exclamation Mark (!)

An exclamation mark (!) is used to show strong feeling or special emphasis such as joy, sadness, warning, surprise, wishes, curses etc. It can also be used to call someone that is not at one's immediate vicinity.

Examples:

- (i) John! (calling John)
- (ii) Congratulations! (wishes)
- (iii) To hell with you! (curse)
- (iv) Beware of your dealings with him! (warning)
- (v) She is late again! (surprise)

In form, an exclamation may be a declarative sentence, a question, a command or a request, a verbless sentence or an interjection.

Examples:

- (i) She is late again! (declarative sentence)
- (ii) Can she be late again! (a question)
- (iii) Be there when I call! (a command)
- (iv) Please be on time! (a request)
- (v) How terrible for you! (a verbless sentence)
- (vi) Oh! Ouch! No, no, no! (interjection)
- (vii) Ugh! (interjection)

Note: You should not use a series of exclamation points at the end of a sentence or a word in your bid to increase emphasis. Such series of exclamation points add nothing to meaning.

Examples:

Wrong: The volcano has exploded!!!

Correct: The volcano has exploded!

- Retype the sentences and insert exclamation points where necessary.
- i. Oh, no. We've lost the house.
- ii. Look out, the tide is coming fast
- Answer
 - i. Oh, no! We've lost the house!
 - ii. Look out! The tide is coming fast!

7.6 Apostrophe (')

The apostrophe is used:

(a) to show possession

An apostrophe or an apostrophe plus 's' are used to show possession of something, or ownership. The mark of an apostrophe is a high comma.

Examples:

- (i) John's book
- (ii) Dorothy's book
- (iii) The boys' books
- (iv) Tex's ranch
- (v) My niece's home
- (vi) A day's work.
- (vii) This month's salary

(b) in contraction

The apostrophe shows the omission of one or more letters in contractions.

Examples:

- (i) can't (cannot)
- (ii) I'm (I am)
- (iii) It's (It is)
- (iv) I'll (I will)

Note: You should be careful with the use of "its" and "it's"

Its is a possessive form.

It's is a contracted form of "it is".

We say: "It's a nice day".

Not: "Its a nice day".

We also say: "The dog has lost its tail"

Not: "The dog has lost it's tail".

(c) in plurals

An apostrophe plus 's' are used in plurals of figures, letters, words, and symbols.

Examples:

- (i) He got four A's.
- (ii) His o's are not distinct from his a's.
- (iii) The first of his that's is not appropriate.
- (iv) 3's and 7's are symbolic numbers.
- (v) His + 's were awkwardly written.
- (vi) I got six 70's last semester.

(d) Decades in figures are regularly written without an apostrophe.

Examples:

- (i) the mid-80s
 - (ii) in the 70s
 - (i) in the 1960s
- o Retype the sentences and insert apostrophes where necessary.
 - i. "Sister Mary, what is this childs name?"
 - ii. So I decided that to save further trouble, Id better lie.

• Feedback

- i. "Sister Mary, what is this child's name?"
- ii. So I decided that to save further trouble, I'd better lie.

7.7 Colon (:)

The colon is used:

- (a) to introduce a list, an explanation or a quotation. Often, it is preceded by a set of phrases like as follows or the following:

Examples:

- (i) There are two modes of thinking by which one can orientate one's life: politics and religion. (list)
- (ii) The secretary's statement said: "We shall never again have so excellent an opportunity to conserve our water resources. . . ." (quotation)
- (iii) Whatever you do, never use the colon followed by a dash: the dash is quite unnecessary and totally unconventional. (explanatory)
- (* :- unconventional)

Note: You should not use the colon between a verb and its object or complement.

e.g:

Faulty: I had to buy: books, furniture and tickets.

Acceptable: I had to buy books, furniture and tickets.

Faulty: The boys are: John and Ojo.

Acceptable: The boys are John and Ojo.

You should not use the colon when a list is preceded by a preposition.

Examples:

Faulty: He wants to take courses in: French, Linguistics and Classics.

Acceptable: He wants to take courses in French, Linguistics and Classics.

You should not use the colon after formal introductory words such as "like", "for example", "such as", "namely" and so on. The colon after such words separate what follows from the rest of the clause.

Examples:

Faulty: The shop carried a lot of ethnic recordings like: Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa and Edo.

Acceptable: The shop carried a lot of ethnic recordings like Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa and Edo.

- (b) to separate a main heading from a subdivision in titles.

Example:

The title of his M.A. project is 'Classified Advertisements in Nigerian Newspapers: An Overview.'

(c) after the salutation of formal letters:

Dear Sir:

(d) between hours and minutes in figures:

11:30a.m.

(e) between Bible chapter and verse:

Genesis 9:3-5.

(f) in ratio and proportion:

5:3:1

- Insert the colon where necessary.

You should do this get your bag and leave immediately.

An extended family includes a man, his wife, his children, parents, siblings, etc.

- Answer
 - i. You should do this: get your bag and leave immediately.
 - ii. An extended family includes: a man, his wife, his children, parents, siblings, etc.

7.8 The Semi-colon (;)

The semi-colon is used:

(a) to separate main clauses in a compound

Examples:

(i) He went to Paris; I returned to the United States of America.

(ii) Mr. Japhet is the defendant; Mr. Akintoye is the Plaintiff.

(Mr. Japhet and Mr. Akintoye are different persons).

(b) to emphasise the relatedness of the clauses they link together.

Examples:

(i) Goya is never a gadfly; he loves humanity.

- (ii) Mary revealed to me that she could no longer stay at the village; staying there made her remember her late parents.
- (iii) They were poor; yet they were happy.
- (iv) The students assumed that professors are stinking rich; but it is an illusion.

Where conjunctive adverbs (e.g. moreover, therefore, nonetheless/none the less, moreover, and so on) are used, you put a semi-colon before them and a comma after when they begin a new statement.

Examples:

- (i) Books are cheap; moreover, they last a lifetime.
- (ii) His popularity was undiminished; however, he no longer enjoys the work.
- (iii) We disagreed on philosophical values; therefore, the conference carefully avoided exposing the ideological differences that remained.

(c) to mark stronger division in a sentence

If the independent clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction and one or more of the clauses contain internal commas, the semi-colon can be used before the conjunction to prevent misreading.

Examples:

- (i) Several people were still waiting, impatiently shuffling their feet, looking bored; but none of them seemed willing to speak.
- (ii) Americans hated death, denied death, and spent lavishly on funerals; but they had not been gripped by today's frantic illusion that diet and exercise will make death go away.

(d) in a series

The semi-colon is used to punctuate list of three or more names followed by identifications, or similar complex phrases.

Examples:

- (i) Four students won scholarship; Ayo Adetunji, University of Ibadan; Timmy Prosper, University of Lagos; Tunrayo Mosaku, University of Abuja; and Adeola Olabode, University of Benin.
- (ii) The new officers are Ibrahim Oloyede, President; John Peter Peter, Secretary; Adetunji Tayo, Treasurer; and James Tayo, Financial Secretary.

- Correct the misuse of semi-colons in the following sentences.
 - i. He left a large estate; which was used to endow a scholarship fund.
 - ii. We accept the following forms of payment; cash, cheque, money order, or credit card.
- Answer
 - i. He left a large estate which was used to endow a scholarship fund.
 - ii. We accept the following forms of payment: cash, cheque, money order, or credit card.

7.9 Hyphen (-)

There are two types of hyphen: the link hyphen and the break hyphen.

7.9.1 The Link Hyphen

The link hyphen is used to:

(a) connect the elements of associated words used attributively

Examples:

- (i) a-well-known woman, father-in-law
- (ii) on-the-spot judgment
- (iii) heavy-duty machine
- (iv) Christmas-tree lights
- (v) labour-saving device
- (vi) French-speaking visitor

(b) between nouns in apposition that form a single concept

Examples:

- (i) city-state (a city that is also a state)
- (ii) player-manager (a manager who is also a player)
- (iii) subject-matter (a matter that is the subject of discourse)

(a) in expressions with phrasal base

Examples:

- (i) weed-infected (infected with weed)
- (ii) panic-stricken (stricken by panic)
- (iii) drink-affected (affected by drink)
- (iv) filling-station (a station for filling)
- (v) boiler-room (a room for boiler)

(d) to avoid awkward collision of letters

Examples:

- (i) breast-stroke (collision of st and st)
- (ii) re-enact, re-elected (collision of e and e)
- (iii) radio-isotope breast (collision of o and i)
- (iv) semi-invalid (collision of i and i)

(e) to make grammatical distinction between words, such as re-form (verb: form again), and reform (noun)

Note: The use of link hyphen to separate prefix such as anti-, non-, over-, re-, from words varies as between British English and American English. In American English solid forms such as reenact, reuse, nonstandard, semicolon, coordinate are common. However, it is usual to separate a prefix with hyphen when the second element begins with a capital letter.

Examples:

- (i) anti-Obasanjo rally
- (ii) pro-American rally

You should note that the use of the link hyphen to separate compound noun appears to be diminishing. Compound words such as playgroup, eardrum, businesswoman, nationwide are now written without a hyphen.

Again, where two elements are placed side-by-side and the first acts as a modifier, you may not need to separate them with a link hyphen.

Examples:

- (i) road sign
- (ii) biology teacher
- (iii) book cover

7.9.2 The Break Hyphen

You use the break hyphen at the end of a line, where necessary. In handwritten text, or typed material, word-breaks can be avoided.

In print, there are two approaches to word-breaks: phonetic (in terms of syllable structure) and morphological (in terms of word structure). American English favours phonetic approach, while British English favours morphological approach.

AmE Examples:

- (i) trium-phant
- (ii) box-er
- (iii) act-or
- (iv) writ-ing
- (v) dict-ation

BrE Examples:

- (i) triumph-ant
- (ii) faithful-ness
- (iii) front-age
- (iv) bio-grapher.

It should be added that preferences are varied even in British English.

- Insert or delete hyphens as necessary.
 - i. The governor elect joked about the pre election polls.
 - ii. The drumbeating and handclapping signaled that the parade was near.

- **Feedback**

- i. The governor-elect joked about the pre-election polls.
- ii. The drum-beating and hand-clapping signaled that the parade was near.

7.10 Dash (-)

A dash is a longer hyphen. It consists of two hyphens with no space between them. You use the dash to separate words that show a sudden change of thought in a sentence. You use it:

(a) to indicate additional statement or fact

The dash is used to indicate additional statement or fact, with more emphasis than is conveyed by commas or brackets.

Examples:

- (i) She is a solicitor – and a very successful one as well.
- (ii) Only employees with superior rating – notice that I said superior – will receive a raise.

(b) to add an afterthought

The dash is used to show a sudden break in thought in the sentence.

Examples:

- (i) I think that you – look out for that car!
- (ii) She wore a red dress – a very bright red.
- (iii) The meeting – it was originally scheduled for tomorrow – has been postponed.

(c) before an explanation, illustration, or listing

The dash may be used singly or in pairs to set off an essential explanatory word, phrase, or clause.

Examples:

- (i) She has only one consuming interest – education.
- (ii) There is only one thing we can do – wait.
- (iii) Long before 1961, many people – linguists and grammarians – realised that culture and language are inseparable.
- (iii) He has married the lady – the one who has a sonorous voice in our choir.
- o Punctuate the following sentences with dashes where appropriate.

He is quick, violent, and mean they don't call him Dirty Harry for nothing.

Fair-skinned people and especially those with red hair should use a strong sunscreen.

- Answer
 - i. He is quick, violent, and mean – they don't call him Dirty Harry for nothing.
 - ii. Fair-skinned people and – especially those with red hair should use a strong sunscreen.

7.11 Round Brackets [], < >/Parentheses ()

The main difference between the dash and the round brackets/parentheses is this: the dash emphasises the word or expression that is set off while the round brackets/parentheses de-emphasise the enclosed word or expression.

The round brackets/parentheses are used:

- (a)** to enclose examples, explanation, an aside, an afterthought, a reference, passing remarks and other information not essential for a clear understanding.

Examples:

- (i) He is (as he always was) a rebel.
- (ii) President Olusegun Obasanjo (Nigeria) and President Thabo Mbeki (South Africa) voted against the amendment.
- (iii) The prisoner is said to have escaped (if one can believe the witness) by bending the bars of his cell outward.

(b) *with abbreviations*

Abbreviations that will subsequently be used in the text are enclosed in brackets.

Examples:

- (i) University of Ibadan (UI) is the first university to be established in Nigeria.
 - (ii) It was Organisation of African Unity (OAU) that metamorphosed into African Union (AU).
- Revise the sentence using parentheses and brackets correctly.
 - i. During my research, I found that a flat-rate income tax with no deductions has its problems.
 - ii. She was in 200 level or was it 300 when she got married.
- Answer

- i. During my research, I found that a flat-rate income tax (with no deductions) has its problems.
- ii. She was in 200 level (or was it 300) when she got married.

7.12 Quotation Marks (" ") or (' ')

You use the quotation marks for:

(a) direct quotation

Quotation marks are used to enclose a statement that consists of the exact words spoken or written by someone else.

Examples:

- (i) John said: "The boy has lost his baskets".
- (ii) "We will fight on the beaches," said Churchill.

(b) titles

Quotation marks enclose titles of short poems, articles, short stories, sections of books, magazine, essays, speeches, title of songs, and episodes on radio or television series.

Examples:

- (i) Have you read this poem "Abiku" by Soyinka?
- (ii) My favourite song is "Oh Worship the King".
- (iii) Your article, "Who is Afraid of AIDS" is very interesting.

(c) for emphasis on an expressions or terms

A word may be put in quotation marks to show that the writer is not accepting its use in the context.

Example:

I disagree with you that the English Language is "better" than African languages.

(d) for figurative or fanciful usage

Quotation marks may be used to indicate figurative or fanciful usage and, at times, to distinguish slang and jargon, words used humorously or ironically, former definition of words, and translations of foreign words and expressions.

Examples:

- (i) No wonder, election period is the time of "weti e". (slang)

- (ii) It is good to beware the "ides of March". (figurative)
- (iii) Editors try to avoid "windows" in printed materials. (jargon)
- (iv) A sentence is "a group of related words that is composed of a subject and a predicate". (definition)

NOTE: You should however, take note of the following points:

- (a) For a quotation within another quotation, alternate double and single quotation marks. Single quotation marks are put inside double quotation.

Example:

- (i) "The play is 'Pygmalion,'" he said.
- (b) When a quotation is longer than one paragraph, quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the last paragraph only.
- (c) When a question mark or exclamation mark belongs to the construction that includes the quotation, it's placed after the quotation.

Example:

- (i) What would you do if you hear "Stop! Your Lexus or your life"?
- o Retype the sentence and insert quotation marks where necessary.

I heard the songs and the minister saying: Why don't you come?

- o **Feedback**
- I heard the songs and the minister saying: Why don't you come?

7.13 Caret (^)

The caret is an editorial mark you use to show that something is missing from the text. It is inserted at the place where a letter, word, phrase or sentence essential to the text is missing.

Examples:

^t has given sha^ e to much of the Western world's inheritance of oratory literacy.

It has given shape to much of the Western world's inheritance of oratory and literacy.

- Insert a caret where necessary.

My teacher is a fne young man.

- Answer

My teacher is a f[^]ne young man.

7.14 Capitalisation

Capital letters are used by writers to make readers take careful notice of certain words. The first letter of the first word of a sentence is capitalised to alert the reader that that is the start of a sentence. Proper nouns are capitalised to show their importance. You can also use the capital letter to show what a word means. For instance, there is a difference between *jack and Jack, bush and Bush, china and China*. There are other uses of capitalisation. You can use it for:

(a) first words

The first letter of the first word of each sentence that you write should be capitalised.

Example:

The man is here.

If the colon is followed by more than one sentence, a capital letter begins each sentence.

Example:

- (i) The committee had three main questions: What was known? Who knew it? When was it known?

However, if the colon is followed by a list or a sentence, the first letter of the first word is not capitalised.

Examples:

- (i) He bought three things: pen, book, and bag.
- (ii) He knew he would lose the race: he had sprained his ankle.

The first letter of the first word, the last word, and any other significant words in a title are usually capitalised. However, articles (a, an, the), conjunctions (and, or, if, etc.), prepositions (at, in, of, etc.), auxiliaries (am, have, will), pronouns (she, his, us) are not usually capitalised unless the title starts with one of them.

Examples:

- (i) Of Mice and Men (book)
- (ii) Introduction to Sociolinguistics (book)
- (iii) "Nightfall in Soweto" (poem).
- (iv) "The Eye of the Earth" (poem)

The first letter of a sub-title should be capitalised.

Examples:

- (i) Focus in Yoruba: A Tentative Description.
- (ii) Unreliable Sources: A Guide to Detecting Bias in the News Media

The first word of a quoted sentence should be capitalised.

Example:

The man said: "If we do not hang together; we shall all hang separately!"

The pronoun "I" and the interjection "O" are always capitalized. "O" is used for direct address in very formal speech.

Examples:

- (i) Grant us peace, O Lord.
- (ii) *Not:* When i get home, i will phone you.
- (iii) *But:* When I get home, I will phone you.

(b) proper nouns

The first letter of a proper noun is always capitalised. A proper noun is the name of a specific person, place, or thing. Adjectives formed from proper nouns should also be capitalised. Common nouns, names shared by people, places or things are not capitalised.

Examples:

S/N	Proper Nouns	Common Nouns
1	President Obasanjo	a president
2	Justice Atinuke Ige	a justice
3	University of Ibadan	a university

4	World War II	a war
5	Third Mainland Bridge	a bridge
6	a Christian, a Moslem, a Jew	a follower of a religion
7	Sunday	a day
8	October	a month
9	the South, the North	a geographical name or location
10	Alliance For Democracy	a political party
11	Civil Service Commission	a government agency
12	Nigerian Tribune	a newspaper
13	History 101	a history course
14	Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo	a language or people
15	Harvey v Facey	a court trial
16	Pepsi, Coca-Cola, Tura	a brand name, a trademark
17	Bagon	an insecticide

NB: (a) You should note that the following should not be capitalised: seasons (winter, autumn, spring); directions (should I go south or north?).

(b) You may also capitalise important national, international or religious days or events.

Examples:

New Year Day

Boxing Day

New Yam Festival

Democracy Day

(c) proper adjectives

You should capitalize your proper adjectives. Proper adjectives are formed from proper nouns.

Examples:

- (i) *Nigerian* product
- (ii) *American* soldiers

(d) words showing family relationship

Words showing family relationship that are used as a title before a name (Uncle John, Brother Peter, Aunt Mary) or by themselves as names (Mother, Father, Sister, Aunt, Niece) are usually capitalised. However, when a word showing family relationship follows a possessive pronoun or noun, the initial letter of such word is not capitalised.

Examples:

- (i) I love my brother.
- (ii) Tony's sister is back at school.

- Capitalise the words, where necessary in the following sentences.
 - i. we had a choice fast-food:, chinese, or italian restaurants.
 - ii. t.s. eliot, who wrote the wasted land, was an editor at faber and faber.
- Answer
 - i. We had a choice: fast-food, Chinese or Italian restaurants.
 - ii. T.S. Eliot, who wrote 'The Wasted Land', was an editor at Faber and Faber.

7.15 Underlining/Italicisation

Italic types and underlining are used interchangeably. You indicate italics in your written or typed work by underlining. As with capital letters, the use of underlining follows certain established guidelines.

- (a) Underline publications, titles and names.

Books	:	<u>Things Fall Apart</u>
Plays	:	<u>Kongi's Harvest</u>
Long Poems	:	<u>Iliad, The Divine Comedy</u>
Newspapers	:	<u>The Guardian, Nigerian Tribune</u>
Magazines	:	<u>Tell, The News</u>
Pamphlets	:	<u>Understanding AIDS, Success Without Tears</u>
Films	:	<u>Terminator 2, The Babe</u>
Television/Radio Series:		<u>Eyi-Ara, Super Story</u>
Musical Works	:	<u>Divine Protection, Messiah</u>
Recordings	:	<u>House of Hove, Thriller</u>

OR italicisation

Books	:	<i>Things Fall Apart</i>
Plays	:	<i>Kongi's Harvest</i>
Long Poems	:	<i>Iliad, The Divine Comedy</i>
Newspapers	:	<i>The Guardian, Nigerian Tribune</i>
Magazines	:	<i>Tell, The News</i>
Pamphlets	:	<i>Understanding AIDS, Success Without Tears</i>
Films	:	<i>Terminator 2, The Babe</i>
Television/Radio Series:		<i>Eyi-Ara, Super Story</i>
Musical Works	:	<i>Divine Protection, Messiah</i>
Recordings	:	<i>House of Hove, Thriller</i>

(b) Trains, ships, aircraft, spacecraft, paintings and sculptures are also underlined. It should be borne in mind that quotation marks are used to enclose the titles of songs, short poems, short stories, magazine, essays, speeches, sections of books, and episodes of radio or television series. Finally, the Bible and other sacred writings and various national documents do not require either underlining or italics.

Examples:

New Testament, Mark, Koran, Bill of Right, Freedom of Speech, etc.

(c) You can also use underlining:

- (I) for foreign words or expressions that are not considered as part of English Language.

Example:

The defendant's action was declared ultra vires (null and void)

- (II) to give emphasis to a word or phrase in a quotation. However, you should indicate in parentheses that the word emphasised is your own. You may also give emphasis to your own word or words by using underlining.

Examples:

- (i) According to Professor Ade, "University life in the 50s was really interesting" (emphasis mine).
- (ii) I have heard lawyers talk about natural law, normative law, law of torts, common law, law of contract and so on. But what exactly is law?
- Apply underlining or italics where appropriate.

Have you read Wole Soyinka's The Lion and the Jewel?

- Answer

Have you read Wole Soyinka's The Lion and the Jewel?

Or

Have you read Wole Soyinka's The Lion and the Jewel?

Module Summary

This module has exposed you to different punctuation marks and how to use them correctly. We have discussed each of the punctuation marks and how to use them effectively in your writing to convey meaningful thoughts.

Assignment

Punctuate the following passage:

- when mr ade walked into the class we knew we were in for trouble we could see he was how furious he was suddenly he spoke akin fola and james come out when the three boys obeyed he asked who is responsible for the theft of my wristwatch, phones and money on the 25th august 1994

- When Mr. Ade walked into the class, we knew we were in for trouble. We could see how furious he was. Suddenly, he spoke, "Akin, Fola, and James, come out". When the three boys obeyed, he asked, "Who is responsible for the theft of my wristwatch, phones and money on the 25th August, 1994?"

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