DESIGNED TO HELP THE FIRST YEAR STUDENTS

BY

(Gburugburu) 07066090476

[Prepared for the First Year Students by **Ekene Ugwuanyi**]

Ī

333CHAPTER ONE

G3

33RAMMAR: DEFINITION, TYPES & FEATURES

Grammar is the principles and rules that underlie or govern the use of language.

The grammar of any language may be examined from the **four** linguistics levels of **phonology morphology, syntax** and **semantics**.

Phonology is the study of speech sounds of a language.

Morphology is the study of inner and outer structures of words. It can also be defined as the study of word formation.

Syntax refers to the usual arrangement of words in a language to produce an acceptable statement.

Semantics is the meaning attributed to words and sentences in a language. Every language has rules of **phonology, syntax, morphology** and **semantics** which are followed in order to produce an acceptable statement or, in order words, a grammatical statement in that language. These rules which speakers of a language observe (consciously or unconsciously), constitute the grammar of their language.

In traditional definitions of grammar, syntax is used to cover the complete definition of grammar and the word "syntax" is also often used interchangeably with the word "grammar". This is because one of the most important features of the grammar of language is the syntax, because it shows the importance of word selection and the arrangement of such words to make an acceptable statement in a particular language.

Indeed in all languages, including English, the phonology, morphology and semantics are greatly influenced by the **syntax**, which concerns the positioning/use of the words. The study of words is called **lexicology**. Words are very important when discussing the grammar of a language, because it is the words and how they are used that identifies a language. Words are sometimes called "the building blocks" of a language. The central elements of grammar are **lexicology**, **morphology** and **syntax**.

LEXICOLOGY

The study **of** words is called **lexicology.** Words are those individual items which have a unified identity with a meaning. Lyons (1997) in his books called **Semantic I and II** says that a word requires three criteria and these are that a word should simultaneously be a **semantic, phonological** and **grammatical** unit.

Bally (19932) identifies a word as a phonological orthographical, significant, meaningful and grammatical unit. **Leonard de Saussure** (1857-1913) who was a French linguist identifies a word as a unit of La langue and a unit of **La parole**. La langue refers to the totalities of the language system, the general faculty of the human speech whereas **La parole** is a speech act by individual users of that language. **La langue** is the entire language vocabulary or lexicon as compiled in dictionaries whereas <u>La parole</u> is the words which are viewed as being in actual use by the speakers of a language.

Words are defined as possessing the following:

• Semantic property (ii) separability (iii) replaceability (iv) displaceability (v) isolateness (vi) acoustic identity (vii) cohesion

Download more at Learnclax.com

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the study of the elements that make up the structure of words. Bloomfield (1993) identifies that there are parts of words that are meaningful because they change meanings, but cannot stand on their own. Instead of using the term "words", Bloomfield uses the term "morpheme". According to Bloomfield, a morpheme is a minimal meaningful unit of language. In morphology the elements that make up a word are called **morphemes.** When we break down words into morphemes, we are examining what is called the **morphological structure** of word.

TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Bloomfield identifies two types of morphemes - free morphemes and bound morphemes.

FREE MORPHEMES

• Free morphemes are the elements in a word that are independent or can stand by themselves and sill retain meaning. There are **two** types of free morphemes - **lexical** and **functional**.

The free lexical morphemes may be considered the major parts of speech. Lexical morphemes are words like nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Free lexical morphemes are **content** words. This means that when they are used alone or in sentences they carry most of the information which makes the sentence meaningful. When they are omitted from a sentence, the sentence becomes almost completely meaningless.

Functional morphemes are words like pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and articles. Free functional morphemes are the words which serve particular purposes in sentences. They are low information words because they can be omitted from a sentence and the sentence retains its meaning. The free functional morphemes "are the minor parts of speech with the exception of articles/determiners.

BOUND MORPHEMES

Bound morphemes are elements in a word that are dependent or cannot stand by themselves and retain their meaning. There are two types of bound morphemes - derivational and inflectional bound morphemes.

a. Derivational morphemes are elements such as suffixes and prefixes which are added to a word to modify it by creating a new word or forming a different grammatical category (e.g. reopen, vice chancellor, cheerful).

Inflectional morphemes are elements which are added to a word to indicate grammatical functional such plural forms, past tense forms, possessive forms, present participle forms (e.g. boys, Lydia's, singing, jumped).

b. **Syntax**

Syntax is the study of the organization or positioning of words in sentences to make grammatical sentences in a language. In English the normal order of words in a sentence is a subject followed by a verb and a verb followed by an object. This word order is called SVO where S stands for subject, V for verb and O for object. Syntax shows how words may be put together so they are grammatically acceptable.

APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR

There are **two** main approaches to studying grammar and these are the:

- Prescriptive Approach, and
- Descriptive Approach

Prescriptive approach to grammar refers to the study of the structure of a grammar according to the principles that must be followed.

The descriptive approach to grammar as the word suggests, explains the grammar of a language rather than telling us how it should be used. The descriptive approach refers to the study of language as it is actually used.

TYPES OF GRAMMAR

Types of grammar refers to the different ways of analyzing the structures and functions of the grammar of a language from the perspective of either the prescriptive or *descriptive approach*. The types of grammar are:

- (i) Traditional Grammar (ii) Structural Grammar (iii) Transformational Generative grammar (TGG)
- (iv) Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG)

Traditional Grammar is the only type of grammar based on the prescriptive approach, but all the other types are based on the descriptive approach.

Traditional grammar

Traditional Grammar is based on the prescriptive approach to studying the grammar of a language. It believes that certain rules must be strictly applied and followed in order for a sentence to be considered grammatically correct. Traditional Grammar based these rules on the grammar of the **Greek** and **Latin** language and believed that all languages must follow these rules in order to produce grammatical sentences. Grammar was originally defined as being "the art of writing" and this was the basis for the attitude of the Traditional Grammarians. The main preoccupation of Traditional Grammar is with the syntax of English and that the way it is used will determine whether a sentence is grammatical or not.

Traditional Grammar has a long history which began in **Fifth Century** Ancient Greece. At this time there was a division about the origin of language as viewed by two Greek philosophers - Plato and Aristotle.

Plato in his book call **Cratylus** believed that "there was an intrinsic connection between sound and sense". This theory followed the line of thought that language is in some way innate. Plato's group called themselves the **Naturalists** and they believed that language was originally perfect but later became debased by humans.

Aristotle in his book called **De interpretations** (on interpretation), believed in the arbitrariness of language. He believed that there were no logical relationships between symbols and the objects they represented, and that if there had been, we would all be speaking the same language today. He believed in the conformity of language usage that its inconsistencies merely proved that language was man-made. Aristotle's group called themselves the **Conventionalists** and they believed that language was an agreement by a group of people to call things by certain names.

The main features of Traditional Grammar is that it forces language to fit into certain rules if a sentence is to be considered grammatical and these rules are called **normative rules**. These normative rules prescribed the norms of grammar and grammatical usage.

The first and major normative rule is the strict division of words into classes of, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb etc. regardless of the fact that in English, the position and function of a word determines its grammatical usage in a sentence and therefore a word might belong to more than word class. Thus, the identification of the class of a word in English is by its function/position in relation to other words and this is a necessary component of understanding the grammar of English.

Another normative of Traditional Grammar is the definition of a sentence as being an organized group of words that make complete sense or that portray a complete thought.

Another normative rule of Traditional Grammar is that in the case of verbs, the infinitive verbs must not be split up into two.

Another normative rule of Traditional Grammar is that it is wrong to end a sentence with a preposition. For example, "Where are you going to?" would be considered incorrect by Traditional Grammarians. Instead, it should read: "Where are you going?"

The ideas of both Plato and Aristotle with regard to the origin of language led to their identification of certain words classes. Plato established the idea of **Onoma** word (representative or parallel to a verb) and **rhema** (representative or parallel to a verb) word categories. Aristotle added the **syndesmoi** (parallel to conjunction, but encompassing all parts of speech except nouns and verbs) to Plato's two earlier categories. However, it was **Dionysius Thrax.** (c. 100 BC), in his work entitled **The Art of Grammar,** who later formed the 8 parts of speech which are still in use today with little variation.

STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR

Structural Grammar is based on the descriptive approach of studying the grammar of a language. Structural Grammar is the study of language from the standpoint of how meaning is derived and the choice of words used. It regards each language in its own right and is interested in explaining how a language works practically, rather than how it should be used. It investigates language from a scientific and objective perspective. Ferdinand de Saussure's distinction between *La langue* and *La parole* was the springboard for Structural Grammar. Structural Grammar is one of the earliest theories based on the descriptive approach to the study of language. It looks at sentences by examining the position of words in sentences and which words can substitute other words in a sentence so that the statement still remains meaningful and acceptable.

TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (TGG)

Chomsky's theory of Transformational Generative Grammar, which is called TGG for short, is one of the best known theories derived from the descriptive approach to grammar. It tries to explain how people use their language when they are speaking. TGG examines how first language users of English speak and how the acceptability of a statement or utterance by other first language users of that particular language is an important aspect in determining whether a sentence is grammatical or not. Chomsky makes a distinction between what he calls <u>performance</u> and **competence** in spoken language. He believes that there are two levels of which utterances should be studied:

a. The base level and

b. The surface level

The foundation of Transformational Generative Grammarians (TGG) is on intuition and language use.

PHRASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR

Phrase Structure Grammar analyses the grammar of a language by breaking it down to meaningful components and labeling the different, grammatical elements each time a sentence is broken into its different parts. It may use

- a. Labeled tree diagrams
- b. Immediate constituent analysis diagrams or
- c. Labeled and bracketed diagrams

Labeled Tree Diagram

This method involves analysis sentences or looking at a sentence from a vertical structure like a pyramid.

Immediate Constituent Analysis

Immediate constituent analysis refers the process in which the different levels of the structures within a sentence are divided into a series of grammatical parts or constituents, which depend proximity.

Labeled and Bracketed Analysis

This method is based on analysing sentences on a linear (horizontal) structure. The sentences are examined from the smallest to the largest grammatical elements or constituents and then grouped together according to their grammatical categories.

CHAPTER TWO

MAJOR PARTS OF SPEECH

Each word belongs to a grammatical category. For example, **Nsukka** is a noun, **jump** is a verb, **famous** is an adjective and **quickly** is an adverb.

In discussion words, a distinction is sometimes made between **open-class** and **closed-class** words (sometimes referred to as **content words** and **function words** respectively). Examples of open class words include the English words, brother, run, tall, and quickly. The open-class words are those belonging to the major parts of speech classes (nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives), which in any language tend to be quite large and open-ended; that is, an unlimited number of words can be added to them.

Those that perform purely grammatical functions are termed **Minor Parts of Speech**.

MAJOR PARTS OF SPEECH

The major parts of speech are **Nouns, Verbs, Adverbs** and **Adjectives**. These major parts of speech are **lexical words**. They can also be called **content words**, and are also members of open class system. They are subject to inflection and are meaning preserving in them. They are called members of the open system because they are limitless in number and new words can be formed form them as long as the language exists and is in use.

NOUNS

A noun is a word that names a person, place, thing or an idea.

TYPES OF NOUNS

We have different types of nouns as can be seen below:

Abstract Noun: These are nouns that denote qualities, states, name of activities, and are intangible in them. Examples include: beauty, anger, laughter, etc.

Concrete Noun: This is a word for a solid thing: a noun that refers to a physical and usually visible or touchable object or substance, e.g. "clock" and "elephant". Concrete nouns are further divided into **common** and **proper** nouns.

Common Nouns: A common noun names any one of a group of persons, places, things. A common noun is not capitalized unless it is the first word in a sentence. Common nouns are divided into **collective** and **individual nouns**.

Collective Nouns: These are nouns representing group as a unit: a nouns that refers to a group of people or things considered as a unit. Examples include, committee, government, jury, orchestra, flock, group, team, audience, company etc all of which are singular in meaning such noun takes singular verbs when they are regarded as units. Example: The crowd is large. When collective nouns are nouns of multitude i.e. when they denote individual units, they take plural verbs, e.g. The team **have** decided to go their separate ways.

Some nouns appear singular in form but plural in sense; e.g. the living, the dead, the rich, the helpless, the needy, etc. Some nouns end in 's' but are not plural; like **news, measles, classics, mathematics, phonetics, politics, economics, ethics, gymnastics, ceramics.**

Proper nouns: A proper noun names a particular person, place or thing. The first letter of a proper noun is always capitalized.

Plural Inevitable Noun: We have some words that are always plural and exist in various forms - articles of clothing, e.g. spectacles, shoes, trousers. Other are tools e.g. scissors, pliers, etc.

Unmarked Plural: These are nouns which do not have any plural markers, but convey plural meanings ilways. Examples include clergy, people, cattle, folk etc. some nouns always appear to be plural in form, -r.en actually they are singular. Examples of such nouns one **mathematics, politics gymnastics, measles, news, ethics, phonetics** etc.

Foreign words: There are many foreign words the uses of which have been absorbed in the English irguage. Such words pose problems to students of English as a Second Language (ESL), as their plural: :rms differ from those of the English language. Such words include: criteria, which is the plural form of criterion; one can hear students say, "What **is** the criteria?" instead of "What **are** the criteria."

Below are some other examples and their plural forms:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Appendix (index)	Appendices (indices)
	Crises
Basis	Bases
Alumna, alumnus	Aluminae; alumni
Focus	Foci
Criterion	Criteria, criterions
Phenomenon	Phenomena
Bacterium	Bacteria
Agendum	Agenda (can be used singular)
	Strata
Medium	Media
Stadium	Stadia
Datum	Data

Noun formation: Nouns can be formed by addition of suffixes such as (- ness and - ity) to adjectives like "good" and "original" to get "goodness" and "originally". In English, the following suffixes mark words as nouns: "ness", "-ity", "-ment" "-tion/-ion", "ance/-ence", "-cy", "-ian", "-hood", "-ship", "-dom". Since these suffixes are added to words in order to derive nouns, we can say that a word that ends with any of these suffixes is a noun.

Functions of nouns

Nouns functions as Subject of sentence

example;

- Children like to play
- · As direct objects: e.g We saw the girl
- As indirect object e.g. The tailor made John a suit.
- As subject complement e.g My father is a farmer
- · As object complement e.g. The class made Ekene the class rep.
- · As object of prepositions: I spoke to the boy.
- Noun in Apposition to other Nouns or to Noun clauses e.g Chioma, the dancer is my daughter.

Gender in Nouns

Gender is used to denote sex. Thus, it is the groping of nouns or prono9uns according to sex. In English language, there are three gender: masculine, feminine and neuter. The masculine gender refers to the male sex. The feminine gender refers to the female. The neuter gender refers to things without life or sex.

THF VFRB

The traditional definition of a verb is that it is a word that indicates an action, a state or condition.

TYPES OF VERBS

We have three types of verbs, namely:

- · The regular verbs (work-worked, watch-watched)
- The irregular verbs (break-broke, see-saw)
- Verbs that do not change their forms (cut-cut, put-put)

Categories of verbs

Verbs are categorized into finite and non-finite

Transitive Verb are verbs that take direct objects e.g.

i. He cut the tree. ii. He swept the floor

Intransitive Verbs are verbs that do not take direct object. E.g.

(i) Jesus wept (ii) The dog died.

Stative Verb are few in English some of them are - understand, know, see, own, have, hear, perceive, possess, love, hate, believe, resemble.

Their characteristics are that:

- They are not used in the progressive aspect
- They cannot be used in the imperative
- They cannot initiate activity
- They do not occur in the embedded sentences
- The speaker has no control over them

We cannot say: I am **loving** the girl; I am **resembling** my mother, I am **understanding** you; I am **knowing** the place; I am **owning** the house because they do not take the present progressive form.

Phrasal Verbs are lexical verbs which consist of more than just the verb alone. They consist of a verb plus a particle e.g. look out, come down.

Preposition verbs: consist of a verb and a preposition. Example:

Take in (pregnant)
Take after (resemble)
Come across (met)
Look for (seek)

Prepositional Phrasal Verbs: Here there is the combination of the features of both preposition and phrasal verbs; i.e. a verb; a preposition and an adverbial particle; e.g. put up with, take on at, keep up with, look up to **Infinitives:** Infinitives consist of to, plus a verb, e.g. **to eat, to sleep, to read, _to cry** etc.

Bare infinitive do not have to before it. Examples:

(i). I heard him say it. (ii). I will make him do it.

AUXILIARY VERBS

Auxiliary verbs perform very important functions in the verb system. They are usually referred to as r.elping verbs because they help the main verbs. The categories of auxiliary verbs are **primary** and **modal auxiliary verb**

Primary Auxiliary Verbs

They are: be, do and have

Be - is, am, are, was, were being, been

Do - does, did, done **Have** - has, had

Modal Auxiliary Verbs: Modal auxiliary functions mainly as helping verbs. The following are modal auxiliary verbs in English: will, would, shall, should, may, might, can, could, must, ought (to), need (to), dare, etc.

Linking Verbs: A linking verb expresses a state of being. It links the subject of the sentence and a word that describes the subject. E.g. i. It is a ball. ii. His mother **looks** worried.

ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are words used typically with nouns, to provide more information about the 'things' referred to. The traditional definition of an adjectives is that is a word that qualifies a noun, (e.g happy people, **large** object, **cute** creatures, **stupid** ideas). Adjectives also specify the attributes of nouns. Typical, they give information about the size, colour, shape and appearance of entities. In formal terms, adjectives are usually defined by their distribution; that is, where they can occur in word string. We characteristically find them in two places. First in an **Attributive position and Predicative position.**

In attributive position, it occurs within a noun phrase, as in: The **lovely** book.

In predicative position, it occurs after a verb, as in; The book is lovely.

Adjectives which can occur in both of these position are termed **central**.

Attributive adjective tend to indicate qualities of the noun which are felt to be permanent, like size or colour, whereas predicative adjective specify features which are considered to be non-permanent, such as being asleep and unwell.

There are two other criteria used to distinguished adjective. First, **many adjectives are gradable.** That is, they can be modified by adverb such as very and quite indicating intensity; e.g. very beautiful, quite short.

Secondly, they can be used in a comparative and superlative form: lovely, lovelier, loveliest or alternatively lovely, more lovely, most lovely.

Kinds of Adjectives

- Descriptive Adjective e.g. She has brown shoes
 Possessive Adjective e.g. Your idea, Her handbag etc.
 Interrogative Adjective e.g. which way are you going 4. Emphatic Adjective e.g. Your own child is involved.
 Adjective of quantity e.g. Twenty girls are already here.
- **6.** Adjective Equivalent e.g. A **good** keeper is needed.
- 7. Possession Adjective shows possession e.g. i. This is my book. ii. Its colour is bright.
- **8. Demonstrative Adjective** Indicate a person or thing referred to e.g. (i) **That** book is mine, **(ii)Those** oranges have been sold.
- 9. Emphasizing Adjective also called emphatic. Eq. i. This is my own book. ii. That very man came here.
- **10.** Numeric Adjective There are two kinds: cardinal and ordinal e.g. (i) Two women were here (cardinal) (ii) The first prisoner ahs escaped (ordinal).
- 11. Indefinite Adjective: e.g. some, marry, much, few, all etc.

12. Distributive Adjective: e.g. each, either.

ADVERBS

Adverbs are words used to provide more information about the actions and events (slowly, suddenly). Some adverbs such as "really" and "very" are also used with adjectives to modify the information about things (really, large object; very stupid, ideas).

Types of Adverbs

There are different types of adverbs:

- Primary adverbs: They do not have inflectional characteristic which differentiates them from other words;
 e.g. here, there, since, hence, fast, well, back.
- Derivative Adverb/Derived Adverbs: Such adverbs are often derived from adjectives by the addition of suffix e.g.

"ly" gentle - gently

"wise" clock - clockwise

"ward" back - backward

Sometimes derived adverbs may be formed by a process known as compounding; e.g. when + ever = whenever

Sometimes adverbs are classified according to the position they occupy in a sentence. Here, we have three types thus:

FPA - Front Position Adverb MPA - Mid

Position Adverb EPA - End Position

Adverb.

These are classification according to the position they occupy in the sentence e.g. i. **Immediately** the lecture ends, I will go home (FPA). ii. I will go home **immediately** the lecture ends (MPA), iii. After the lecture, I will go home **immediately** (EPA). The clausal function which adverbs perform is termed **adverbial**.

Not only did adverb include words like quickly, smoothly, but also words like indeed, quite, very, despite, etc and even words like yes, no, not, not well etc. Syntactically an adverb functions either as a constituent of a phrase or of clause

- As a constituent of a phrase an adverb modifies an adjectives. For example; It is a **wonderfully** interesting story: The adverb **wonderfully** modifies the adjective interesting.
- As constituent of a clause, an adverb performs two different functions:

It generally modifies the verb by adding some information about the time, place and manner of the action or state indicated as in:

i. I work here. ii. She plays dangerously.

CHAPTER THREE

THE MINOR FORM CLASSES OTHERWISE KNOWN AS THE MINOR PARTS OF SPEECH

The minor parts of speech are called so because they make up what is known as **closed-system items** or **minor form classes**. This means that these items are closed in the sense that they cannot be extended by creating additional members from them. These minor parts of speech are: **Pronouns, Prepositions** and **conjunctions**.

One can easily have a list of all the items in a close system. The items are very exclusive in that when one item is used in a particular structure, it excludes the possibility of using any other. For example; one can say: *The bucket* or *a bucket* we but cannot have *a the bucket*.

Pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions are classified according to their uses in sentence. These words give important signals about the structure of sentences. They are also called **structural words**.

THE ARTICLES

An article is just a determiner. It has little meaning of its own. It is a word that is used before a noun in order to show which thing you mean. In English, there are two articles, namely:

- The definite article (The)
- The indefinite article (A, an)

It is a rule that every common noun in the singular is preceded by an article. For example: I saw a leopard, (not I saw leopard).

This is a book, (not this is book).

I have an Orange (not I have orange).

The girl was crying, (not girl was crying).

Plural nouns can be used with or without article. Example: He ate pigeons (correct), He ate the pigeons (also correct).

The indefinite articles are "a" and "an". These are called the indefinite articles because they do not point out a particular person or thing. They are used with countable nouns in the singular. For example; I met a boy (it could be any boy).

The is the definite article because it points out a particular person or thing. For example: **The** man was sleeping (which man? The one I saw). A and **an** are used according to the sound before them. When a noun begins with consonant sound, the article **a** is used before it. While **an** is used before a noun that begins with a vowel sound. Example are (1) A monkey (2) An umbrella.

PRONOUN

A pronoun stand for a name, or for a person or thing or for a group of persons or thing. When a pronoun refers to a general idea that is not clearly expressed, it is called **General Reference.** These pronouns: which, this, that and it are usually used in a general way.

Weak Reference Pronoun occurs when the antecedent is not expressed, it only exist in the writer's mind.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

Pronouns are grouped into the following classes;

- **Personal pronouns:** These are used for definite persons or things. Personal pronouns refers to the person speaking. For example,
- The first person 1:1 swept my room today.
- The person spoken to (second person) you: you are here.
- The person or thing spoken about (third person).
- **Interrogative pronouns:** These are used to ask questions about persons or things. The interrogative pronouns currently used are: who, (which has these other forms **whose** and whom) which, what.
- **Relative pronouns:** They serve the purpose of joining short statements into longer sentences and this makes for smoother discourse.
- **Demonstrative pronouns:** A demonstrative pronoun points out persons or things that are directly mentioned in a sentence. Examples are:
 - i. This is my spoon, ii. Those oranges belong to Amadi. iii. That is my umbrella.
- Indefinite pronouns: These pronouns stand for an indefinite number or quantity of persons or things. They do not say exactly which person or thing that is meant. Most of them are compounds of two or more words. They are: somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, everyone, everything, nobody, somebody else, anyone else, everybody else, everyone else, somewhat. Their meaning are not particularized.

If any of these pronouns is used in the possessive, 's' is added at the end: e.g. someone's bag.

- Possessive pronoun: My, thy, his, her, its, our, yours, and their are possessive case of personal pronouns.
- Reflexive pronouns: These types of pronouns refer to self. They are formed from the personal pronouns by adding the word self and (its plural) selves. The object refers to the same person, likewise the subject of the sentence e.g. myself, yourself, himself etc.

PREPOSITION

It relates a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence. It governs the noun or pronoun following it. They are sub-divided into **three types**:

- **Time Prepositions:** These ones define time and clarify what time an event happened or will happen. They are: in, at, on, for, during, while. They come before nouns and pronouns.
- **Place Prepositions:** These are used to describe the place or position of nouns; that is, they clarify a particular place someone is. The place someone is. The place prepositions are: in, on, at.
- **Direction preposition:** These ones clarify the direction of someone or something. Examples: under, over, right, left, etc.

CONJUNCTION

These join two parts of a sentence. They are: and, or, because, neither, nor. There are two types of conjunction - **coordinating conjunctions** and **subordinating conjunctions**. Example of coordinating conjunctions are: an, but, or nor, for yet, so etc. while that of subordinating conjunctions are: **although,** because, since, unless, even though.

FORMS OF CONJUNCTION

Conjunctions have three basic forms:

- Single word conjunction but, because, and, although
- Compound These types often end with as or that. For example, as long as, or order that, so long as, in as much as, etc

Conjunctions have two basic functions:

Coordinating conjunctions are used to join two parts of a sentence **that are grammatically equal**. The two parts may be single words or clauses. They are: and, but, or, nor, for, yet, so. They come between the words or clauses that they join. Examples are: I like Mary **and** Martha; Ego like oranges **but** John prefers peas.

Subordinating conjunctions are used to join a dependent or subordinate clause to the main clause. They are in the majority. They cannot exist alone. But a main or independent clause can exist along. Example of subordinate conjunctions are: although, after, because, before, as, how, if, once, since, than, that, though, till, until, when, where, whether, while. Example: She ate the food, **although** it was cold; The girl come to school late, **because** it was raining.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SENTENCE AS A GRAMMATICAL UNIT IN ENGLISH

The word sentence was derived form the Latin word, 'sententia', which means <u>opinion</u> or a way of thinking. A sentence is a configuration of the various parts of speech to express a definite idea or a complete thought.

SENTENCE ELEMENT

Sentence element refers to those functional units into which a sentence structure could be broken and analysed. In traditional grammar, these units include subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial.

However, in systemic grammar, these elements may take on different name, for example, the verb as an element is described in systemic grammar as the

Predicator. Adverbials take on the name **adjuncts** and object come under the broader categorization of **complements**.

THE SUBJECT OF A SENTENCE AND TYPES OF SUBJECT

The subject of a sentence is classically accepted in the literature as that word or word-group in a given grammatical structure which represents the thing or person about whom a statement is made. The subject usually occupies the first position in a sentence. When this happens, we call it **front position subjects** (FPS). E.g **Men** work hard.

In particular constructions, the subject do not begin the sentence but may come at the middle. These are known as **mid position subjects** (MPS).e.g Having prepared the meal, **the lady** went to the market.

Word or word-group that may be used as subject

The subject of a sentence could be:

- a. Nouns e.g. (i) Birds fly. (ii) Children play
- b. An infinitive e.g. To swing is difficult.
- c. **Gerunds** e.g. **Reading** is enjoyable.
- d. **Adjectives** e.g The **disabled** came for aims.
- e. Pronouns e.g. He came to my house.
- **Noun clauses** A noun clause is a group of words which functions as a noun. A noun clause can effectively function as the subject of a sentence. E.g. **How he survived the attack** remained a puzzle to his assailants.
- Infinitive phrases An infinitive phrase is a group of words with an infinitive as the headword in which subject and predicate elements are absent e.g. To be or not to be is the question. The underlined infinitive phrase is the subject of the sentence.

Types of subject

- **Simple subjects:** A simple subject is a word or word group (singular or plural in number) which occupies the subject slot m any glven sentence. E.g. *The boy* works hard.
- **Double or compound subjects:** A compound or a double subject is one which consist of two simple subject (singular or plural) joined by a coordinating conjuction. Eg. *Ekene and Precious* are Class Reps.
- **Multiple subject:** This occurs when several nouns or pronouns are used in a series to form the subject group. E.g *Musa, Bola, Ada and Eni* attended the party (multiple subject).

The predicate

The predicate is that part of the sentence which contains (a) the verb, (b) the object (s) of the sentence and (c) adjuncts or other sentence element.

Simply put, the predicate says something about the subject. Chalker and Weiner^ (2000) state that the parts of a sentence which lie outside the subject constitute the predicate.

Types of predicates

We have simple predicate_and compound predicate.

A simple predicate is basically made up of a finite verb e.g. i.

Certain insects **stings**,ii. Angry children **cry**.

You will notice that the predicate in the above examples are single verbs. A simple predicate could consist of several words some of which could be a verb phrase as in the underlined words in the underlined words in the sentence below:

They have been playing since morning.

OBJECTS (as constituent elements of the predicate)

The object of a sentence is that word (a noun or a pronoun) which is governed by a transitive verb. The object is also called the *complement of the transitive verb*. The direct object answers the question "what" or "whom".

We have direct, indirect and cognate object.

The direct object of a transitive verb is the thing or person in the predicate structure that suffers the action of the verb directly. E.g I bought *a book* from the bookshop last month.

Indirect object of a transitive verb or a sentence is always the ultimate recipient of the action of the verb; i.e., the thing or person to whom or for whom a particular action is undertaken. Example; I gave **Akachukwu** the book. **Akachukwu** is the indirect object while **the book** is the direct object.

The indirect object of a sentence can readily be ascertained by the use of these interrogative structure:

(i) To whom? (ii) For whom?

The responses got from these question always point out who or what the indirect object of a sentence is. *Cognate object (C.O):*Object of intransitive verbs which have been used transitively are called cognate objects. This is because such objects are identical in meaning with the verbs which govern them. Examples:

i. Ihuoma dreamt a dream, ii. We ran the race. iii. The lady died a shameful death.

Complements of Direct Object (C.D.O)

The objects of certain action verbs are followed by nouns which make up/complete their meaning. These are called *object complements*. Here are examples of verbs which usually take object complements: *make*, *elect*, *promote*, *appoint*, *crown*, *nominate*, *call*. E.g. They crowned Emeka <u>king</u> (c.d.o.); I made John **caption** (c.d.o).

If the complement of a direct object is preceded by *a linking verb* such as *seem, look, appear*etc. such a complement is called *a predicative*. A predicative which is a noun is called *a predicative noun*as in:

The girl a *nurse*(predicative noun).

A predicative which is an adjective is called predicative adjective. E.g. The classroom is dirty.

Compound predicate

A compound predicate always has two finite verbs joined together by a co-ordinating conjunction. E.g. i. The men played and danced happily, ii. The workers made the mounds and planted the vams.

A compound predicate must contain two main verbs joined together by a co-ordinating conjunction.

Sentence pattern

A sentence pattern is a specific and recognizable way in which a sentence can be constructed.

Elements of a sentence pattern.

A sentence pattern may consist of the following element in its structure:

(i) A subject (ii) A verb (iii) A direct object (od) and (iv) An indirect object (Oi).

A sentence pattern may also contain complements (C). Complements may be defined as words or word groups which occur after verbs in sentences in order to complete the meaning of such sentences. Complements can be categorized into four distinctive types, according to the function they perform in sentences. They are: (i) Subject complement (ii) Object complement (iii) Adjective complement (iv) Prepositional complement.

In addition to complements, sentence patterns may contain **Adverbials** which could function as **adjuncts**, **conjuncts**, **and disjuncts**. An adjunct is usually an adverb which modifies the actions of the verb. A distinguishing features of adjuncts is that they are integral elements in the structure of the sentence in which they are a part.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCORD IN ENGLISH

Agreement/concord is the totality of inter-connectivity between the subject and the verb in a sentence in relation to number, person, tense, case and gender.

Definition of some basic terms

A **nominal** is any other part of speech which does the work of a noun in a sentence, while *verbal* is a group of verbs functioning as a verb in a sentence.

Number refers to the singularity or plurality of a noun.

Personin grammar is the form which the pronoun takes to describe the verbs and pronouns that refers to the different people in a conversation.

*Case*refers to the different types to which nouns can belong in accordance with its function in a sentence which is indicated by a special morphological ending

Genderrefers to the forms the noun takes to show biological qualities of maleness or femaleness.

Subject/verb concord

The subject/verb concord stipulates that the verb must agree with the subject in number. This means that when the subject is singular the verb will take a singular form to match it, and when the subject is plural the verb selects a plural form to correspond with it. E.g. (i) Ekene **is** a Class Rep

(ii) Ekene and Maxwell are Class Reps.

Proximity Concord: When we talk about concord by proximity, we mean the nearness of the noun or noun phrase to the verb of the sentence. When we have two or more items being referred to in sentence, we choose the verb that suits the item that is nearer to the verb than the one that is further from it (the verb). **If** the one nearer to it is singular in form, we select a singular verb if it is plural we select a plural verb. So, if you have singular subjects connected to other singular subjects by **or**, **but**, **not only**, **nor**, we select the verb that will match the noun that is nearest to it. Examples:

- Not only the boys but the girl is here.
- Not only the girl but the boys are here.

Notional concord

Notional concord is based on the idea of the subject being either singular or plural than the - **s** suffix that show plurality or the absence of which shows singularity.

- When a collective noun is regarded as a noun of multitude, then a singular verb is used. Examples: i.The family **is** doing well. ii.The mob **is** drawing nearer.
- But when a collective noun is seen as constituting individuals of a group/unit a plural verb is selected, e.g. i.The family **are** healthy ii.The bunch **are** rotten.
- Numbers that are plural in form attract singular verbs. Examples:
 - i. Twenty years is a lot of time to wait for a child ii .A million dollars has gone down the drain.

It is recommended you go through the textbook for the extensive study on concord. There would be no space as such to critically discuss it her expect questions in this regard in your exam.

CHAPTER SIX

DIRECT AND REPORTED (INDIRECT) SPEECH

The modem man leams and uses language through listening, speaking, reading and writing.

When speech is transmitted directly from the speaker to a listener, we say that channel of communication is **direct**; if, however, speech is transmitted form a speaker to a listener through a third party, the speech becomes **indirect speech**.

There are **three main areas** in which changes take place in the rendition of the text of a speaker's message:

- The reporting/introductory clause;
- Punctuation marks; and

Lexical and structural items.

CHAPTER SEVEN

IDIOMS, FIGURATIVE EXPRESSIONS AND LITERARY USAGE

The term idiom comes from the Greek and Latin word: "Idioma". Etymologically, idioms are words that have special properties, features and phrasing. They are, therefore, words that have developed specialized meaning. Linguists regard idioms as "habitual collocations".

An idiom simply means a word or phrase whose standard or dictionary meaning is different from the meaning it conveys and whose individual words cannot be changed.

Characteristics of idioms

- They are words or single units: This means that idioms are lexical items (lexemes) and can be found in the dictionary.
- *Idioms have figurative meaning-.*The meaning of idioms are beyond the dictionary or literal meanings of the individual words.
- Idioms are cultural and contextual.
- The meanings and words of idioms are fixed and cannot change.
- · Idioms are collocational in nature.
- · Idioms are learned.

Sources of English Idioms

- a. Biblical sources
- b. Literary sources e.g. Foreign sources
- c. Historical sources

Idiomatic prepositions occur when certain words co-occur with prepositions to achieve different shades of meaning.

Idioms, collocations, proverbs and slangs

Collocation, proverbs and slang are terms that should not be confused with idioms.

Collocations are "word pairs or sets" that frequently occur one another. The co-occurrence of two or more word pairs do not always imply that they are idiomatic. The word sets: **bread and butter, father and mother, hot and cold, beans and rice,** and **a bag of beans** are all **collocations**.

They show that words meaningfully co-occur.

Proverbs are short sayings that express a supposed truth or moral lesson.

Slang on the other hand, are words or phrases that are used in casual (very informal) speech. They are invented and spread by people of the same age and social group and it often fades with time. The following are examples of the terms:

- It rained cats and dogs last night idiomatic
- A stitch in time saves nine proverb
- I will like to marry that chick slang(chick is a slangy word for a beautiful unmarried young girl). Literal and

non-literal meanings

In language and literary usage, a distinction is normally made between **literal** and **non-literal** levels of meaning.

A language is literal when its words convey the original, usual and obvious sense of it, without any association or extension of its meaning. The literal sense of a word is the ordinary, surface, denotative or dictionary meaning of that word.

The non - literal use of language is traditionally referred to as *figurative*. Figurative is a metaphorical term that refers to the non-literal use of language. Here, words loses its literal meaning and assume a deeper meaning. This is also known as **connotative meaning**.

The following are brief explanations and instances of some popular figures of speech used in everyday speech and writing in making figurative expressions:

- Simile: A simile is a figure of speech that involves an indirect comparison of two different thing, that cannot be naturally related, but which have one feature or characteristics in common. This is often done with the use of "as" or "like". E.g. Ngozi is like a lion.
- Metaphor: This is a direct or implied comparison of two dissimilar things that have a particular quality in common. Metaphor directly describes something as through it is the other and it does not use the words "as" or "like". E.g. Ngozi is a lion.

Metaphor is also referred to as condensed simile because it directly refers to something as the other. Metaphor is said to be the most important figurative device in literature.

- **Hyperbole (Exaggeration):** Hyperbole is a deliberate witty overstatement or exaggeration that blows up the proportion of a thing. For example: *His love for her* was ¹ deeper than the deepest sea.
- **Personification:** This is a figure of speech that gives human or animate attributes to inanimate object or abstractions. E.g. (i) "Death, where is thy sting?" (ii) The night wept bitterly. It's only human that weeps; night cannot.
- **Synecdoche:** This is a figurative device in which a part stands for the whole or the whole stands for the part. Examples: i. *All hands should be on deck, if that job must be completed,* ii. *The Head is around and wants to see you.*

In example one, hands which is a part of the human body is used to represent a lot of people. Same with the second.

- **Metonymy:** A figure of speech that does not call a thing by its real name but by something or tool that it is normally associated with. E.g. i. The pen is mightier than the sword, ii. He worked hard to the throne.
- Litotes (Understatement): Litotes is a deliberate understatement that asserts the truth by denying it. Examples: i. I am from no mean city (This means that I am from an important city), ii. / am not unaware of the fact (This means that he knows the fact).
- **Irony:** A figure of speech in which what is said is the exact opposite of what is meant, e.g. **i.** Congratulation on your failure!ii. America is a very poor country.
- **Paradox:** A brief wise saying that seems to say something that is untrue, but on closer examination contains some truth. E.g. **i.** *Better be late than never,***ii.** *The child is the father of the man.*
- Oxymoron: This is a figure of speech in which two or more contradictory words appears side by side in order to qualify a thing. E.g. i. It was a **hot-cool** day. ii. He is a **brilliant dull** boy.

- Sarcasm: This is a conscious deliberate bitter statement of ridicule and disapproval. Example: i. She is not even strong enough to lift a baby.ii. He has a pipe in his stomach that drains his money.
- **Euphemism:** This figure of speech states the correct and obvious fact in an indirect and polite manner, in order not to give offence about something which is not pleasant. Euphemism is a mild way of stating a distasteful painful truth. Example:
- Obi is visually challenged (This means that Obi is blind).
- She is a woman of easy virtue (This means that she is a harlot).
- Onomatopoeia: This is a literary device used by writers to imitate the natural sound of an object. The device is achieved through the formation or use of words that imitate the sounds or objects being imitated. For example:
- She heard the ticking of the clock.
- The sheep was **bleating** behind the compound.
- Alliteration: This is the repetition of similar initial consonant sounds of sequences of nearby words in a line or lines of poetry. For example: The Western Wind Was aflame
- **Assonance:** This is the opposite of alliteration. Assonance is the repetition of similar vowel sounds in a line of poetry or strings of nearby words. E.g. *like* **bleeding** flesh **speaking** of...
- **Apostrophe:** This figure **of** speech makes an invocation or call. It addresses a dead or imaginary thing or person as though present and able to hear and understand the address. Example: *Death where is thy sting.*
- **Climax:** This is a figure of speech that involves the orderly arrangement of ideas in an ascending manner until the last main point is noted e.g. *He came, He saw, He conquered.*
- Anti-Climax (Bathos): This is the opposite of climax. Here, ideas are arranged in descending order and the
 least vital idea is put last. Example: i. She rushed out, had her bath, got out of bed and woke up. ii. 7
 conquered, I saw, I came.

CHAPTER EIGHT

QUALITIES AND VARIETIES OF WRITING

Writing, simply taken, stands to mean words, symbols, or hieroglyphics written down as a means of communication.

The purpose of writing could be to give information, to make requests/enquiry, to describe a thing, to make a social courtesy etc. To group these varieties of essay better for appropriate exposure of purposes, it is divided into two broad varieties. They are: i. *The compositions (essay);* and ii. *The correspondences* - this group is also called *technical writing*.

The composition or the Essay

To compose is to artistically create. This form of writing therefore simply means artistic creation of a piece of writing.

TYPES OF ESSAY

There are four types of essays namely:

- Narrative Essays
- Descriptive Essays
- Argumentative Essays
- Expository Essays

A Narrative Essay is that types of essay where what happened and how it happened, what existed and how it existed is narrated. Example of such narrations include stories, histories, minutes of meetings, events of everyday life, biographies/bibliographies, etc.

Descriptive Essay: As the name suggests, descriptive essay creates a vivid, visual and mental picture to give accurate information. It consists predominantly of descriptions, though the other varieties of the composition may be involved for a more vivid picture, such as narration. **It paints a picture to create reality.** We have two types of description:

- Objective (also known as factual) and
- Subjective (which is otherwise tagged impressionistic)

Expository Essay: As the name implies, expository essay exposes concepts, situations, things, processes, ideas, how things work, etc. Expository essay answer the questions "How?" it gives a detailed vivid exposition of its subject for specific information.

STRUCTURE OF THE ESSAY

Generally, all the essay types, take the same structure: (i) The introduction (ii) The body and (iii) The conclusion

POINTS FOR GOOD WRITING

MEANING: The meaning of the writer's message has to be clear to the writer before any good communication.

- Form and structure: Every variety of writing has its format and style, though all must have introduction, body and conclusion.
- Language: Words should be carefully chosen in a way that they paint a correct picture of what the writer has in mind.
- **Conventions:** every language has its grammatical conventions. Though there are varieties of all languages, only the standard form is accepted in formal situations.

Qualities of good writing

The qualities of good writing are: Focus, Development, Unity, Coherence, Corrections, Creativity.

CHAPTER NINE

THE MECHANICS OF WRITING: SPELLING, PUNCTUATION, AND CAPITALIZATION

Spelling, otherwise known as orthography, is the forming of word or words with the necessary letters in an acceptable order and usage. It is also defined as a statement of rules or conventions, or the study of how words are to be written. The English language has forty-four (44) elementary sounds, but is written with only twenty-six (26) letters of the alphabet.

Causes of spelling errors

Otagburuagu, Obah and Ogenyi (pp. 42-46) itemize some causes of spelling errors and/or difficulty thus:

- Mixing spelling forms from British and American varieties of English;
- · Spelling words according to how they are pronounced;
- Homophony; and
- Ignorance of spelling rules in English.

Punctuation marks are the standardized graphic, non-alphabetical symbols that are used to organize writing into words, phrases, clauses, and sentences and in this way clarify the meaning of writing. (It is also advisable you go through the text book to study critically the rules of punctuation: A good number of the rules are contained therein).

CHAPTER TEN

REPORT WRITING

A report is a fact-based piece of writing which sets out a problem and proffers solutions to that problem in a highly organised way. Reports belong to the broad type of writing categorized as **official or technical writing**.

A report could either be written by an individual and known as **individual report** or written by a group of people and known as **group report**, or **a committee report**.

INDIVIDUAL REPORT

An individual report is a report written by an individual as a summary of either an investigation or an official assignment and presented to a group of people in an association. Some examples of individual report include:

• An eyewitness report 2. Valuation/feasibility studies report 3. Medical/diagnostic report 4. Minutes 5. Research abstracts 6 editorials

An individual report could be **solicited** or **unsolicited**. A report is *solicited* if the writer was requested or expected to produce it and *unsolicited* if no such request or expectation preceded the preparation of the report. For example, an eyewitness report can be said to be solicited if the police demand it from the witness and **unsolicited** if the writer *voluntarily* reports the incident as a witness by making a written statement to the police.

GROUP REPORT

A group report is usually written and presented by members of the committee to a much wider group, or to the head of an organization or association. In a group report, a member of the committee is usually appointed to write the report, after which it is discussed at the committee level and endorsed by members. However, **two** reports can emanate from a committee, a **majority report** and a **minority report**. This happens when there is a disagreement on the process and content of a report, so much do that a minority of the members feel strongly enough that their own position on the matter at stake deserve to be heard by the organization. When this is the case, the majority report becomes that prepared by the committee's officially designated secretary and countries signed by the chairman and a majority of the other members of the committee, while the minority report is that prepared by the other members of the committee who are in the minority. The minority report is usually designated "Minority Report" to distinguish it from the main report.

KINDS OF REPORT

- a. **Eyewitness Report:** This is a report that gives first hand account of events witnessed by an individual. It could report such cases as the following: an accident, a crime or a fight.
- b. **Work Report:** As the name suggests, work report is a report that deals with issues concerning the work place. It could present the progress of work, give a final report or present a one-time report.
- c. **Investigative Report:** This is a document that is meant to provide information on a certain topic that is not easily obtained.
- d. The term paper or library report: This is the name given to essay assignments usually on non-technical subject assigned at the beginning of a semester or term for collection at a specific period.
- e. **The Laboratory Report:** This is a scientific or technical report which describes the procedure result, and significance of experiments conducted in a laboratory, or observations made in the field.
- f. **The Project Report:** This is an account of investigations carried out in a wide range of scientific subjects, with its findings and recommendations.

REPORT FORMAT

The format of a report is usually determined by three things: (i) Audience (ii) Information(iii) Purpose.

GENERAL FEATURES OF A REPORT

Though reports may vary in kind, there is a basic format for writing all reports. Most reports have some or all the following parts: (1) Title page

- (2) Abstract/Executive Summary (3) Table of contents
- (4) Introduction (5) Discussion (6) Charts/Tables (7) Conclusion
- (8)Appendices

CHAPTER ELEVEN DEVELOPING LETTERS OF APPLICATION AND THE CURRICULUM VITAE

This chapter is concerned with letters of application for employment. It is important to know, right from the beginning that application for employments can be made, using the following methods:

· Letter method

B. Curriculum vitae method

THE LETTER METHOD

This is also known as the **essay method**. A letter of application is a formal or business letter. As a formal letter, it should conform to the standard and acceptable layout, conventions, style and content.

The layout and convention

The layout of a typical formal letter comprises the following parts:

- · The writer's address and date
- The recipient's address
- · The salutation or greeting
- The caption or title (subject head)
- · The body of the letter
- · The complimentary close, and
- The signature.

Convention include: The punctuation of the address and other parts, the forms of the salutation and the complimentary close. The positioning of the different parts of the layout is also conventional.

The **language style** of the letter should be free from the following:

(a)Informal words (b) slang (c) contractions (d) Abbreviations (e) jargon.

NB: Over-used (and therefore) meaningless expressions is known as Cliches.

THE CURRICULUM VITAE METHOD

It is pronounced as /korikjutam vi:tai/. The American name for curriculum vitae is **resume** which is pronounced as /rezju:mei/ in British English and /resomei/ in American English. Curriculum vitae is abbreviated as CV - /si:vi:/.

Whether or not an employer specifies the information he wants, standard curriculum vitae for the purpose of employment should contain information on the following:

- Personal data
- Educational institutions attended, with dates and qualification
- Cognate working experience
- Publications (if any and if necessary)
- Extra-curricular activities (hobbies)
- Referees.

CHAPTER TWELVE
LETTER WRITING: CHARACTERISTICS AND FORMATS

A letter is a written correspondence between one or more people. There are different types of letters. Nevertheless, whatever type of letter, three points stand out in all of them.

- The sender/writer
- The receiver/recipient
- The message/content Distinctive

features of a letter

Three features demarcate the letter from other forms of writing. These are: the address, the punctuation of the address and the form of the date.

THE ADDRESS

Every letter contains one or two addresses depending on the type of letter. The address of a letter can be written in **two** ways: **the block form** and the **_progressive indentation form** also referred to as the **slant form**.

THE BLOCK/FORM: This type of address is written with all the first words of the address written on the same straight, vertical line. The address thus appears in a block form giving rise to its name.

THE PROGRESSIVE INDENTATION FORM: This type of address is written with each subsequent entry indented more than the preceding one. Consequently, the address appears in a slant form giving rise to its other name, **the slant form of address**.

PUNCTUATION OF THE ADDRESS

There are two forms of punctuation of the address in a letter: **the open form** and **the close form.** When the address is written without punctuation, the open style is used but when the items in the address are punctuated, the closed style is used.

TYPES OF LETTER

There are basically three types of letters:

1.The informal letter 2. The semi-formal letter 3. The formal letter

CHAPTER THIRTEEN SPEECH WRITING

Public speaking is any oral communication between two or more people.

TYPES OF SPEECH

a. Formal Speech b. Informal/impromptu Speech

FORMAL SPEECH: This is speech written and presented to an audience in a formal/official situation. Formal speech requires the writer or speaker to prepare his/her speech before hand in a text or manuscript and to deliver such orally.

Informal Speech: This is also known as **impromptu speech.** In this type of speech, the speaker is not given any prior information to prepare the speech. The person is just called upon to say something. Consequently, the speech is not written down.

PURPOSE OF SPEECH WRITINGS

I.To inform 2. To stimulate/sensitize3. To convince 4. To entertain 5. To actuate/persuade 6. To accept (an offer or award) 7.To introduce (a person or a product) 8. To respond (to a welcome or a greeting) 9. To welcome (a distinguished guest).

BASIC ELEMENTS IN SPEECH MAKING

The speech making process involves three major elements:

(i) The speaker (ii) the listener or audience (iii) the message/information to be communicated.

QUALITIES OF A GOOD PUBLIC SPEAKER

The public speaker should posses certain qualities, which would enable him/her to execute the task successfully. A number of these qualities are:

- The speaker should be **knowledgeable** in the area he/she is to talk about
- A good speaker should be **truthful** to his/her audience, and the message he/she is delivering.
- A good public speaker should be sensitive to the audience.
- · A good public speaker should possess effective speaking voice.
- The competent speaker should have poise and the act of co-ordinated body movement.
- The speaker's **dress**, hair style and **general demeanour** are other important factors in speech making.
- A good speaker should device **techniques** of getting the listener's attention.

THE AUDIENCE

Two major factors that should guide the analysis of the audience are:

- Physical factors: These include analysis of the age, gender, health status, and education level of the
 audience.
- Psychological factors: These include the beliefs and values of the audience.

Formal features of a speech

The speech has special format, which differentiates it from other types of technical writing. These special formats are: (i) The heading (ii) The salutation (iii) The text (vi) The signature.

THE HEADING

The heading of a written speech serves as an introduction to the speech. A full heading contains the following:

(a) the title (b) type of speech (c) the speaker/presenter (d) the audience(e) the purpose and occasion (f) the venue (g) the time/date of speech presentation.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN BOOK REVIEW

Book review is the process of investigating a book/text systematically and presenting the information obtained objectively, in a carefully organised way so as to project its quality. In other words, book review can be defined as a systematic analysis of a book/text so as evaluate and project its quality.

TYPES OF TEXT REVIEW

The basic types of book review are: a. Literary Review and b. Critical Review Literary Review

Literary review involves extensive discussion on creative works such as fictional text - novels, drama and poetry. The reviewer focuses on the following literary terms of a novel and other creative works:

The subject matter/central idea The theme The diction The setting Characterization The narrative plot Point-of-view, and The narrative technique/device **The narrative technique** is the author's style/method employed in writing his/her text (fiction and/or non-fiction) so as to project his/her message. The narrative devices are listed as follows:

1. Figures of speech 2. diction 3. theme characterization?, point of view

4. setting 5. the plot 6.

DICTION

This simply means the choice and use of language. In determining the choice of words used in the text, these questions should guide the reviewer:

- Does the author use simple/complex words?
- Are the sentences long/short?
- What are the effects of the words or language used by the author on the reader?

Theme

The term, theme, is meant the message/central idea/subject matter of the story on which the rest of the contents of the text revolve. So, to unravel the theme of a novel, the reviewer should ask the following question: **What idea(s)** is/are re-echoed/illustrated in the story?

Setting

This, simply put, means the locale of the story; that is, the background or place used to write the story. It also refers to the historical period, and the prevailing socio-economic circumstances at the time the text was written. The setting of a novel can influence its characters and plot.

[Prepared for the First Year Students by **Ekene Ugwuanyi**]

THE PLOT

It is the story-line of the novel. Put another way, the plot of a literary text is the arrangement and/or the sequences of events that make up the story.

CHARACTERIZATION

This refers to the people (caste) in the story. In drama, the term is called **dramatis personae.** The characters are the actors and movers/performers of the actions of the text. In a novel, the characters are divided into:

- Main/principal character(s) termed the protagonist;
- The **antagonist** termed the **foil**. This character opposes the protagonist.
- · Round or district character
- Flat or non-district character.

POINT OF VIEW

In literature, point of view entails the angle from which the story is told; that is, the person who is telling the story. Is it the author narrating the story about himself? Or, is it a person telling a story about a character(s)? Thus, there are two types of point of view, and they are:

- · I Narrator or first person point of view, and
- · Omniscient Narrator or third person point of view.

BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR BOOK REVIEW

The following constituted the major steps which a reviewer employs as he/she reviews a text:

- The bibliographical/ publication details
- Text exposition, and
- Text evaluation/critique.

Under the bibliographical/publication details, the reviewer gives information pertaining

- The title of the text
- · The author's name
- · Category of the book/subject area,
- The imprint (place of publication, publisher & date of publication)
- The price of the text (optional)
- · The pagination (number of pages) and
- ISBN/ISSN (optional).

TEXT EXPOSITION

This is an important feature/aspect of book review, because here the reviewer introduces the text, comments and classifies it under the following sub-headings:

a. Expository b. Argumentative c. Descriptive.

He/she then discusses and summarizes the major issues in the text, chapter by chapter, or summarizes the contents in paragraphs, **using the present tense**.

TEXT EVALUATION/CRITIQUE

This is the third step/stage of book review. Here, the reviewer critizes the text by evaluating:

The author's style of writing,

29

- The language used/diction
- The suitability/appropriateness of the contents of the text
- The quality of the text (its strengths & weaknesses).

In this stage too, in addition to making value judgment, the reviewer expresses his/her opinion about the text. He/she can also compare the text being reviewed with another similar text.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

LITERARY APPRECIATION AND EVALUATIONS

Literary appreciation means understanding a work of literature and developing literary taste.

To assess and appreciate a novel, the following criteria are looked into - plot, characterization, theme, point of view, setting, language and style.

Plot: *In a novel, plot is the structured arrangement of actions.* When a story begins form the middle, the plot is known as **media res** (in the middle of events).

Characterization: This involves the creation and development of fictional characters by an author and how he presents them to the reader. Actions in a plot are carried out by *characters*.

TYPES OF CHARACTERS

There are **major** and **minor** characters in novel or dramatic work. **A major character** is the **protagonist** on whom the major actions depend on. Conflicts in the plot are created when the protagonist is opposed to another character called the **antagonist**.

A character may be **round**, that is well-developed or may be **flat**, that is one without complexity - one dimensional. If a character changes in the course of the story we say he is a **dynamic** character; if not, he is **static**. Some characters are easily recognized when they appear and are called **stock characters**. For example, the wicked step mother, the local gossip etc.

Setting: Settings is the place where the story is located in space and time. For example, Achebe's **Things Fall Apart** is situated in Umuofia **in space** and early 19th century **in time** when colonial rule come to Igbo land.

Point of view: Point of view is the perceptive from which the story is told. The author chooses who tells the story to the reader. There are two major points of view - **the first person** and **the third person**.

Theme: Theme is usually, the lesson that emerges from a novel. A novel may have multiple themes.

Language and style: To evaluate an author's language, we look at the diction which means choice of words.

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

MEMORANDUM

A Memorandum is a written communication that is written and distributed within outside and outside an organization, school, an establishment or a business.

30

TYPES OF MEMO

There are **two major types** of memorandum. They are the **internal** and the **external** memorandum.

Internal memorandum: The internal memorandum is the more commonly used of the two types. It is a means of conveying information, a request, a message, instruction, announcement, confirmation, advice, reprimand, and reminder to various officers and members within the same organization or establishment.

External Memorandum: An external memorandum is usually a well prepared document containing the opinions and suggestion (s) of an individual to be presented to an organization or a panel. Such memos are usually referred to as **solicited memos** because the writer is reacting to an invitation to submit a memo. When a writer writes a memo without being invited to contribute, it is referred to as **unsolicited.**

Qualities of a good writer of a memorandum

- (1) Tact(2) Good organization (3) Clarity (4) Conciseness
- (5) Punctuation
- (6) Formailty (7) The end: The memo ends with the signature, name and official status of the writer.

CHAPTER SEVENTEEN

THE LANGAUAGE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT): AN AID TO LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Computer can be defined as an electronic device which can accept data from input device (keyboard), process the data and display the information on the screen.

The simulation of language by the use of computers is called **computational linguistics**. It is a branch of linguistics in which computational techniques and concepts are applied to the elucidation of linguistics and phonetic problems.

ICT

The acronym ICT simply means Information and Communication Technology. Okwor (2002) defines ICT as "the use of computer and telecommunication systems in the collation, collection, analysis, processing, manipulation, storage, retrieval, transmission and communication of data in different forms which may include audio, visual, and audio-visual formats".

Programming Language

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia defines programming language as an artificial language designed to express computations that can be performed by machine, particularly a computer. A programming language is a notation for writing program, which are specification of a computation or algorithm.

The term, **computer language** is used interchangeably with *programming language*.

Syntax: A programming language's surface form is known as syntax.

*Static***semantics**: The static semantics defines restrictions on the structure of valid texts that are hard or impossible to express in standard synctatic formation. For compiled languages, static semantics essentially include those semantic rules that can be checked at compile time.

Execution Semantics: The execution semantics/dynamic semantics of language defines how and when the various constructs of a language should produce program behaviour.

Specification: The specification of a programming language is intended to provide a definition that the language users and implementers can use to determine whether the behaviour of a program is correct, given its source code.

TYPES OF PROGRAMMING LANGAUGE

Programming language fall into two categories:

a) Low level assembly languages and (b) High level language

Some major high level languages are:

- i. Action script Programming language use for flash programs
- ii. Ada Comprehension, Pascal-based language used by the Department of Defense.
- iii. COBOL- Common Business Oriented Language (COBOL) which was developed in the 1990 and widely used for mini and mainframe programming.
- iv. FORTH Developed in the 1960s. it has been used in process control and game applications.

FORTRAN - Formula Translation Language is developed in 1957 by IBM. It was the first major scientific programming language and continuous to be widely used. Some commercial application have been developed in FORTRAN language.

JAVA - The programming language developed by sun and repositioned for well use. It is widely used on the server side.

PYTHON - A scripting language used for system utilities and internet script and developed in **Armsterdam** by **Guide Van Rossum.**

Web Language - Languages such as Java-Scripts, Perl and CGI are used to automate web pages as well as link the other applications running in servers.

PASCAL - Developed in 1970 and named after the French philosopher-scientist Blaise Pascal.

SNOBOL - Developed in 1964.

PROLOG - Programming in logic, developed in 1974.

BASIC - Beginner's All Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code developed in 1964.

THE LANGUAGE OF ELECTRONIC SEARCHING AND THE REGISTER OF COMPUTER/INTERNET

ACCESSIBILITY: It encompasses the capability to identify and obtain information; that is, how easy is it to find needed information and retrieve it when you need it. Assistive technology that increases usability and improves internet accessibility includes:web page coding, screen readers and magnifiers, Braille Screens, voice recognition system, and hearing assistance devices.

Archives: The term is used to refer to an organized collection of non-current and/or previously issued organizational or personal documents. In an internet context, archives are usually the accumulated past messages of a list server or an electronic journal or newsletter.

Boolean Searching/Boolean Query: Refers to how multiple terms or phrases are combined in a search query.

Browser/browsing: On the internet, a browser is a computer program that allows access to the internet, including

World Wide Web sites, using URLs. Examples: **Netscape, Mozilla firefox** and **Internet Explorer.** Browsing is a means of searching for information in the internet.

Case Sensitive: Searching tools that distinguish between uppercase and lowercase letters are said to be *case sensitive.*

Controlled Vocabulary: To improve searchability, many databases and indexes assign subject headings or descriptors to database records. These descriptive terms come from an authorized list of terms or thesaurus.

Data: It is raw facts about a person, objects, place, ideas, observations and events which can be converted into useful information by a process called *data processing*.

Database: A database is a collection of related information (data).

Default: A value setting that a computer program automatically selects if you do not specify a substitute. For example, most US search engines search for items in English (the default) only, unless you specify another language.

Descriptive: Descriptive test associate with a record **or** document.

Downloading: Copying or transferring data from a main source to a peripheral device; for instance, copying a document from a website to one's own computer, flash or diskette.

Electronic Document (E-don): A document stored on, and available via a computer or other electronic device. Electronic documents includes; **text files, web pages, e-mail messages** etc.

Field: A field is a space allocated for a particular kind of information. Fields are the smallest units of information you can access or search on. Every field has a name, called the field name.

Formatting: Specifying the properties, particularly visible properties and order, of a document, record or computer program.

Free Text Searching: Using search terms from everyday or specialized language rather than controlled vocabulary terms.

Hacker: It refers to the computer programmer that attacks files stored in another computer without permission with the aim of collecting the information (data) stored or computing the data stored in them.

Hit: In the context of a database or worldwide web search, a hit is an individual, retrieved record matching the search query.

Installation: It is the process by which programs are sent into the computer for specific operation.

Internet: An international network of computers linked to each other via Transmission Control Protocol and Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) software.

Intranet: A private internet usually set up by a company or agency for staff use.

Keyword Searching: Keywords and keyword phrases are significant descriptive words and phrases in a document's title, abstract, or text that are extracted and used to index the document.

Link: A list of computer programme commands or options from which you select.

Natural Language Processing (NLP): Some search systems allow searchers to type in a question, and use that to query various processing techniques and program algorithms which define the entire words and concepts in order to query and retrieve relevant results.

Online: Connected to, or available by connecting to, the internet, intranet, or an electronic database.

PDF File: Portable Document Format (PDF) is a document format developed by Adobe systems.

Phrase Searching: In the context of internet and database searching, a search for documents contains an exact phrase by typing the phrase within quotation marks (""), or by using a command or selecting an option.

Query: The word, words, or character string used for searching, combined with Boolean operators, truncation, and /or limits allowed **by** the search engine.

Search Engine: The program that accepts the search query, searches and index, and returns matches in the form of a result list.

Search Term: The ability for a search to include the "stem" of words by removing prefixes and suffixes.

Stop Words/Stopword: Words that are ignored in a query because they are commonly used and/or are not helpful for successful retrieval. Common stopwords are conjunctions (and, or), prepositions (to, at, on etc), and article *(the, a)*.

Thesaurus: A listing of words and phrases authorized for use in an indexing system, together with relationship (broader & narrower terms), variants and synonyms.

Truncation: Searching multiple variation or a portion of word using symbol (called a wildcard), usually an asterisks or a question mark, to represent the variable parts (one or more letters) in the term.

URL - *Universal Resource Locator:* An address specifying an internet resource uniquely. The beginning of the URL indicates the type of resource, e.g. "http" for web pages, "telnet" for computer login sessions or "malito" for e-mail addresses.

Web Page: A single World Wide Web document or individual URL.

Web Site: Term referring to a group of related World Wide Web pages lined under one URL/Domain name and associated directories and files.

World Wide Web (www): An internet interface in which all information that is accessible from the internet can be accessed and easily navigated in a consistent way by using a standard set of naming and access conventions. It is implemented by a special programming language and coding called HTML - Hypertext Markup-Language (or related language) and requires URLS for network-wide addressing.

Computer - Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

It is a form of computer - based learning which carries two important features: bidirectional learning and **individualized learning**. It is not a method but a tool that helps teachers to facilitate language learning process.

Computers have been used for language teaching ever since the 1960s. This 40year period can be divided into **three main stages:** *behaviourist CALL, communicative CALL,* and *integrative CALL.* Each stage corresponds to a certain pedagogical theories). **The reasons for suing computer assisted language learning include:**

- · Experimental learning,
- Motivation
- · Enhance student achievement
- Authentic materials for study
- · Greater interaction
- Individualization
- Independence from a single source of information
- Global understanding (wikipedia).

There are two fairly successful applications of **automatic speech recognition (ASR)** now, where the computer 'understands' the spoken words. The first is **training**. The second is the **software** where the learner speaks commands for the computer to do.

BASIC COMPUTER ACRONYMS

BASIC - Beginner's All-purpose symbolic Instrument Codes

ASCII -American Standard Code for Information Interchange

BIOS - Basic Input Output Units

CD-ROM - Compact Disc Read Only Memory

CLS - Clear Screen

CMOS - Complementary Metal-Oxide Semi-Conductor

CPU - Central Processing Unit

DEL - Delete

DIR - Directory

dpi - dot per inch

CRT - Cathode Ray Tube

DOS - Disk Operating System

EPROM - Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory FAT - File

Allocation Table FTP - File Transfer Protocol Gb - Gigabyte

HTML - Hypertext Markup Language

IBM - International Business Member

ISDN - Integrated Digital Services Network

ISP - Internet Service Provider

LAN - Local Area Network

LED - Light Emitting Diode

Mhz - Megahertz

MODEM - Modulator/Demodulator

OCR - Optical Character Recognition

OLE - Object Linking Embedding

RAM - Random Access Memory

SIMM - Single In-Line Memory Module

TCP - Transmission Control Protocol

UPS - Uninterrupted Power Supply

URL - Universal Resource Locator

USB - Universal Serial Bus

VRAM - Video Random Access Memory

WAN - Wide Area Network

WWW - World Wide Web

WYSIWYG - What You See Is What You Get

CHAPTER EIGHTEEN VERB FORMS AND STYLE IN WRITING

The form of verbal groups in English language is rather simple. The different forms of English verbs are used to express the aspect ("simple", "continuous", "perfect") of an action or event, and only secondarily with problems of tense or time (present, past, or future).

Formation of Modal Auxiliary Verbs

The set of twelve verbs consists of four paired forms can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would,; and four single forms-must, ought, need, dare, There are no other forms, and all modals are therefore, to varying degrees, "defective" verbs. The two verbs need and dare present special problems: dare can follow the grammatical patterns of either modal auxiliaries or lexical, 'regular verb' to need. The modal verbs including dare and need as modals have no infinitive form, and no participle forms. The principle distinctive formal features of modal verbs are

explicitly:

- a. Negative sentences are formed by adding not after the modal verb.
- b. Interrogative sentences are formed by inverting the subject and the modal verb.
- c. There is no-s-ending in the third person singular in the present tense, as there is with regular verbs (he wants, likes, etc).
- d. The modal verbs are followed by the infinitive of a verb without to (except in the case of ought).

Modal verb *need*, and *dare* in its modal pattern or form are used only in negative and interrogative sentences. These features contribute to the distinction between the two grammatical forms of dare and between the modal verb need and the regular verb to need.

CHAPTER NINETEEN

THE ENGLISH SPECIAL REGISTER: THE LANGUAGE OF MASS COMMUNICATION, LAW, ENGINEERING AND SPORTS

Register refers to a range of words (vocabulary) and expressions (grammatical structures) peculiar to people in a particular professional field, discipline or trade.

Journalism as a profession involves collecting, writing and publishing materials in newspaper and magazines or on television sets and radios. Members of this profession are generally referred to as **journalists** or **pressmen**.

The press is often said to be the **fourth estate of the realm.** In other words, it is regarded as the fourth arm of the government after the executive, legislature and judiciary. Newspapers are used in this business of informing the public. A newspaper could be **a daily,** if it is published everyday; **a weekly** if it is published on weekly basis; and **a monthly** if it is published on monthly basis. The **editorial** usually expresses the opinion of the newspaper on topical issues, which the editorial board may choose to comment upon. Each news page contains brief arresting titles for what the editor considers the most important piece of news on the page. These short titles are called the **headlines**. The shorter titles are called **captions**. **Captions** are so worded to arrest the attention of the reader who only wants to skip over the pages. Press restriction in whatever guise is called **press censorship**. Government also uses the press to inform the people about its policies through **press release** and **press conferences**.

LAW

Law is the field which deals with all the rules established by authority or custom of regulating the behaviour of members of a community or country. Those who are trained and are qualified in law to do legal work for other people are known as **lawyers** and/or **solicitors**. They are also called **counsels**, **advocates** or **barristers** when they appear in court on behalf of their **clients**. When a person has been wronged or feels that injustice has been meted on him, he can go to court to seek redress. Such a person is the **complainant** or **plaintiff**, while the person that has been complained against is the **defendant** or **respondent**. A **bailiff** usually **summons** an **accused** to answer to charges leveled against him.

ENGINEERING REGISTER

An electric circuit is simply a path through which **electric current** flows. Circuits may be **direct current** (dc) **alternating current** (ac) or **transcient current**. The passage of electric charge through an electric circuit is described in terms of its *voltage*, *current* and *resistance*.

Electricity is measured in units of **volt, ampere** and **ohm.** The charge carriers, that is, the element responsible for transmitting electricity in the circuit are the **electrons** and **ions**. These elements interact with **conducting, magnetic** and **insulating** materials as the current flows along.

In all, Registers are broadly grouped as **formal** or **informal**. The range of lexical and structural items used in *official circles* are termed *formal*, while those use in informal situations are referred to as *informal*. The **former** is characterized by polite and impersonal tone devoid of Cliches, abusage, and wordiness. And the latter is known for friendliness of tone, substandard usage, contractions and colloquialism.

CHAPTER TWENTY

ERROR ANALYSES: ERROR IDENTIFICATION AND CORRECTION

Linguists have attempted to distinguish between **errors** and **mistakes**. According to Eyisi (2003:3) "Although an error is usually used for any deviance in linguistic performance, it is obvious that negative physical and psychological conditions such as **fatigue**, **haste**, **nervousness** or **uncertainty**, **strong emotions**, **memory lapses** and **preoccupation in some non-linguistic activity** may result in minor lapses in the form of slips of the tongue or pen. Such instances of deviance are categorized as **mistakes** not errors". On the other hand, Brown (1986: 65) posits that "a performance error... is a failure to utilize a known system correctly."

ERRORS EMANATING FROM THE WRONG USE OF WORD CLASSES

Information is a non-count noun and is therefore, wrong to say *informations* (plural ized) or *an information* (singularized) but rather, **a piece** or **pieces** of information.

Staff, just like information, is a non-count noun. It does not have plural form with - s and cannot be preceded by an indefinite article **a.**The expressions *Staffs*, or **I** am **a staff** in the Vice-Chancellors office are wrong. Rather, I am a

member of staff.

Installment is one of a series of payments one make until one has paid all the money one owes. Instead of saying *by installment*, you rather say *by weekly/monthlyfyearly installments*.

Trick: *Trickish* is not an English word but rather, we have *trickster*. He is a trickish man is wrong but He is a trickster.

Alive: Say He is alive instead of he is alife. Alife is not in the lexicon of English Language.

Penultimate: This should not be used when referring to weeks. **Penultimate_week** cannot mean last week because this week is not the ultimate or the end of weeks.

Insulting: The expression, *Her insultive remarks infuriated her husband* is wrong. *Insultive* is another word that is not in the Lexicon of the English Language. Though it is common to hear or read people use the word, that fact does not make the usage of *insultive*correct. Rather, *insulting* should be used e.g. *Her insulting* remarks infuriated her husband.

Better: The expression "more better" is wrong. *More* is a comparative just like *better*. A comparative cannot be used as an internsifier to another comparative. You can rather say, much better.

Tallest: You can only use **taller** when it is only two people or things involved, but when three or more persons/things are involved, the superlative (tallest) should be used. E.g. *Of* the triplets born to the Umarus, Joy is **tallest** (not taller).

Plump: This word is an adjective and remains so. Adding - y to it is wrong. We do not have plumpy e.g. *The Plump air hostes;* not *the plumpy air hostess.*

Rainy - Do not use raining season but rainy season .

Runny: The expression, *I have a running nose* is wrong, instead, *1 have runny nose*.

Close: Don't say tight friend but close friend. Tight is an English but it does not collocate with friend. Elder/younger:

Don't say **senior/junior** brother but **elder/younger** brother.

Mature: Don't use mature in a past tense form. It is wrong to say she is a matured girl rather say, she is a mature girl.

Order of Adjectives: For order of adjectives, use this formular OPSHACOM. When a string of adjectives occur in a sentence there is an acceptable order of occurance summed up in the acronym OPSHACOM - Here

OP stands for Opinion

SH standsfor **Shape**

A standsfor Age

C stands for Colour

O stands for Origin

M stands for **Material**.

(see BBC English: Oji (1988); Baldeh (1997).

Therefore, the expression, My friend married a tall, American beautiful lady is wrong. The correct expression should be: My friend married a beautiful, tall, American Lady.

Friendly: Yours friendly is wrong. Rather, / am your friend.

Even: Except where it shows surprise, even usually goes after a model or primary auxiliary verb.

Ante Meridiem (a.m): The expression, we woke up by 1 a.m in the morning is wrong. In the morning

has the same meaning with a.m. It is therefore, redundant or tautological. Simply, We woke up by 1 a.m or We woke up by 1 in the morning.

Of course is an impolite or rude way of giving information. Rather, use yes.

Hardly: Do not say he hardly could speak but he could hardly speak.

Fish: Don't say, **Her pot of soup is always filled with fishes.** The flesh of fish used as food is non-count noun. Rather say, *Her pot of soup is always filled with fish.*

Hair: There should be no plural when all the hair on a person's head is meant. However, hairs as count non can be used to refer to the thread like strands that grow is specific parts of human beings or animals.

Pants/Trousers: Another name for **trousers** is *pants* (with an -s) but when -s is removed, it becomes a verb which means "to breathe quickly with short noisy breaths as a result of running or climbing steps." It is therefore wrong to say *I forgot my pant on the cloth rail yesterday.*

Inmate is only used for those in prison. It cannot be used to mean tenants or occupants of a building.

Seat: On seat is not an idiomatic expression in the English language neither can it be given any lucid grammatical interpretation. The expression *You were not on seat when I came to see you* is wrong. The right expression is, *You were not in the office when 1 came to see you.*

Minutes: Minutes do not collocate with a singular verb. It is wrong to say The minutes of the last meeting was read by the secretary; rather, The minutes of the last meeting were read by the secretary.

Barber You do not barb your hair, you cut it. You do not go to the Barbing salon, you go to the Barber's to cut your hair.

Deadline should not be added with **date**. It is wrong to say. The deadline date rather, the deadline.

Being/Been: The two words are forms of the verb BE but while **being** is the present participle, **been** is the past participle. The two words are also semantically different.

Taken in: Taken in as mostly used does not mean to be pregnant but to be deceived. Nowhere in the English language does taken in means to be pregnant. But to take in means to be pregnant.

Start: Start sleeping or start to sleep is unacceptable in English. Fall asleep is the right phrase.

Hear: One can *perceive* but one cannot *hear* the smell of anything.

Speak: You speak to somebody on the telephone, not talk to.

Delivered: It is wrong to say *She delivered a baby boy last Sunday.* In this case, the woman is helped to give birth to her baby. We rather say, *She was delivered of a baby boy last Sunday'*.

Credit: You did not credit Mathematics in your WAEC exams, rather you made a credit in Mathematics.

Remember: Remember me that your name is wrong but remind me of your name.

Provide: Do not say, He provided us everything needed but rather, He Provided us with everything needed.

Supposed: Supposed should be used instead of suppose when in a subjunction mood. E.g. You are supposed not You are suppose.

Can/Able: Can be able is tautological. Either say I can carry it, or I am able to carry it instead of I can be able to carry it.

Assist: You assist someone **in** or **with** but not **to**. The expression, Let me assist you to arrange the seats **is** wrong but rather, Let me assist you with or in arranging the seats.

Talkless is not an English word and should not be used even when talk and less is splitted.

Comprise: Comprise when **not** preceded by the form **of** the verb **BE** does not collocate with *of*. The room comprises of a settee, a table, a fan is wrong. The right expression is, The room comprises a settee, a table, a fan.

Entitled: In giving a book name, you do not **title** it but **entitle.** The book is entitled Toads for Ever instead of The book is titled Toad for Ever.

Bore: The past tense of bear is bore. His wife bom him three children is wrong but His wife bore him three children is the right expression.

Embarrass: Don't use *embarrass* to show surprise, rather use *surprised*. It is wrong say, **John's family** *embarrassed***me with their gift of a car.**

Talkative: Talkative is an adjective and cannot be used as a noun. The expression *The man's wife is a talkative* is wrong but *The man's wife is talkative.*

Yard - It is wrong to say; *I live in the same yard with my lecturer*. Yard in the English language refers to "an enclosed area near a building used for special purpose, activity or business." It is erroneously used to mean a building or compound that houses people. A carpenter's yard, a timber yard, a prison yard or a school yard does not house people. Rather say, *I live in the same building/compound with my lecturer*.

Intention - It is wrong to say: Forgive me, I had no intention to hurt you. Rather say; Forgive me, I had no intention of hurting you.

Police - It is wrong to say: *The police is your friend.* The word police is one of the words in the English language that cannot collocate with a singular verb. Unfortunately, the image makers of the police have their poster splashed with the bad grammar above. Rather say, *The police are you friends.*

Mail - It is wrong to say: Her mails are left unread for weeks. Mail is a non-count noun. Rather say, Her mail is left unread for weeks.

Cash - It is wrong to say: *Do I pay by cash or by cheque?* One pays **in** cash not *by* cash just as one pays **by** cheque and *not in* cheque. Rather say, *Do I pay in cash or by cheque?*

Bag and baggage - It is wrong to say: *If you do what you have just said, I will pack my bags and baggages and leave.* Although bag is a count noun, *baggage* is not. The expression bag and baggage does not occur with s. You do not pack your bag and baggage because the phrase bag and baggage already entails "with all your possessions." The right expression should be, *If you do what you have just said, I will leave bag and baggage.*

Dessert - It is wrong to say: *He listed Sahara dessert as one of the hottest in the world.* The error borders on the spelling of the worl desert. Rather say, *He listed Sahara desert as one of the hottest in the world.* Note, however, that dessert is an English word that means "sweat food served after the main part of a meal." **Dessert** and **desert** are different in spelling and pronunciation and are semantically different too. They should not be confused.

Timetable - It is wrong to say: *The time table for our first semester examination is out. Timetable* is one word. Separating table from time is bound to elicit a different meaning from the intended one or create ambiguity. Rather say, *The timetable for our first semester examination is out.*

Foreword - It is wrong to say; The foreword was written by a renowned author. Foreword and forward are two of the common errors used in place of the right word. Rather say, The foreword was written by a renowned author.

Headquarters - It is wrong to say: *Ulili is the headquarter of Luli local government*. The - **s** in headquarters is mandatory whether it occurs with a singular or plural verb. Rather say, *Ulili is the headquarters of Luli local government*.

Whereabouts - It is wrong to say: We want to know the whereabout of our father whom you arrested in January. The - s in whereabouts in mandatory. Rather say, We want to know the whereabouts of our father whom you arrested in January.

Shambles - It is wrong to say: The political party rally was in shamble from the time the president left till the end.

Shamble is a verb which means to walk slowly and awkwardly. The political party rally cannot shamble. The sentence should read: The political party rally was a shambles from the time the president left till the end. "If something is a shambles, it is very disorganized and there is a lot of confusion."

Other Errors

Your's faithfully (in closing a formal letter) is wrong. There is no apostrophe 's in yours.

He said it to my hearing is a wrong expression. He said it in my hearing

It is wrong to say: *They had a fatal accident but thank God nobody died.* A fatal accident is one that results in someone's death. It is incongruous to say that nobody died in a fatal accident.

It is wrong to say: We use to climb mountains when we were children. One is used to doing something. The right expression should be: We used to climb mountains when we were children.

The expression, Five of us gave each other a hug and a kiss and left for our various countries is wrong. Each other is usually used with two persons whereas one another is used when more than two persons are involved. Five of us gave one another a hug and a kiss and left for our various countries is the right expression.

We understood all **what** he said is a wrong expression. We understood all he said is the correct expression. The intrusion of what is actually upsetting.

The expression, *There is enough seat in the hall. Enough* in this context should be used with plural or non-count nouns. *There are enough seats* is the right expression.

It is wrong to say: You, the king of Israel, **is** the one. The right verb should agree with the subject not the noun phrase in apposition. The right thing to say is: You, the king of Israel, **are** the one.

It is wrong to say, *Eating and drinking, the evening passed pleasantly.* Sentences constructed with such dangling participial are not only ambiguous but are also meaningless. *As we were eating and drinking, the evening passed pleasantly.*

It is wrong to say: 7 support early marriage; **infact I** gave out my daughter when she was five. It is increasingly common to erroneously write the two words in fact as one word. The right spelling is: I support early marriage; **in fact I** gave out my daughter when she was five. Avoid writing the two words as one word.

CHAPTER TWENTY ONE

The use of information Literacy in Teaching Traditional and Modern Information System

The term information literacy (IL) refers to a broad set of knowledge and skills that enables a learner to recognize information needs, decide which resources to use and how to use the resource effectively. A group of people that use the public library is the *user system* and the type and group of information they use is the *information system*. Information systems as a term used in this chapter represents the entire sources of information both oral and printed, traditional and modern computer based system used for academic purpose. We have *the traditional or conventional information systems* and *computer-based information systems*.

The Traditional Information System

In general terms, the traditional information systems such as archives, museum, libraries, resource and documentation centres organize and transform oral and printed data to information. These are called traditional information system because they have been in existence from time immemorial.

- The library: There are many types of libraries, thus, there are the National library, the pubic library, the school library, the academic library, the special and research libraries, the private and virtual libraries.
- The Archives: These are buildings, facilities or areas that accommodate an archival collection. They are also

places where documents are preserved permanently or for a finite or indefinite period for historical, informational, legal or evidential records, for required research and studies. Archive documents are usually organized collections of non-current records of activities of a business, government, organization, institution or other corporate bodies. They can also be personal papers of individual(s), families or groups which are retained permanently by the originator for historical, informational, evidential, legal, administrative or monetary value. Archieves can be classified in three broad categories:

- Government archives (e.g. the National Archives of Nigeria whose branches are located in major state capitals in the country)
- *In-house archives:*These are maintained by an institution (e.g. universities, state government offices, NGO'setc)
- Clearing house archives or collecting archives: These are maintained by special organizations who have specific
 mission and objectives to carry out archival services. These institutions have legal backing of national and
 international bodies to perform the services.
- Museum and Monuments: These are either privately or publicly funded non-profit institutions which contain
 physical artifacts and specimens for purposes of education, scholarship and enjoyment. Artifacts are objects
 made or modified by the work of one or more persons. These are different form natural objects which are
 called specimen. Museum collections include: manuscripts, treasure finding, inscriptions, clay tablets, papyrus
 scrolls, rare maps, letter, diaries, cooking and war implements.
- Community information resources: The core of this information is indigenous knowledge (IK). This knowledge
 type manifests in various ways namely, cultural knowledge, environmental knowledge, knowledge of the
 community, local knowledge, traditional knowledge, farmer's or pastoralist's knowledge, folk knowledge,
 traditional technology, traditional wisdom, traditional science, people's knowledge or native intelligence, etc
 (Jain, 2008).

The Features of IK as community information system stem from the fact that it is:

Knowledge based, specific to an areas, made of informal knowledge and technologies practiced by people, orally transmitted, non-informal, based on age old beliefs, traditions, experiences and observations, not documented, constantly evolving, adaptable and perishable if not documented.

Benefits of Community Information System (CIS)

- A credible source of information for all types of research.
- Promotes indigenous knowledge and local people's image and acceptability in any type of studies.
- Encourages exchange of both tacit and explicit knowledge.

Tacit knowledge is a kind of knowledge that is difficult to put into words, but which can be expressed through action based skills.

- Documentation centres: These are organizations or agencies that specialize in receiving, processing, preserving, abstracting and indexing publications. In Nigeria, there is the Project Development Institute (PRODA) in Enugu which is a documentation centre for scientific equipment produced in the institution. PRODA was established in 1970 to develop the technologies required to undertake research and development work into power equipment, steams and accessories. It is one of the research institute under the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology.
- **Galleries:** This is a privately or publicly funded, non-profit institution whose function is to preserve and display works of art, so that they can be viewed for aesthetic research and educational purposes.
- **Network Information System** can be defined as information emanating from emerging societies and associations (e.g. clubs, fraternities, both religious and professional bodies). Network information system can also be referred to as a group of individuals or organizations that are interconnected to form a system to accomplish some specified goals. Examples of network relating to professional association are: the American

Library Association (ALA), Nigerian Library Association (NLA), etc. the *Daily Times* of Nigeria as a corporate body publish, *Who's who in Nigeria*, a biographical work listing the names and addresses of professionals, their profile, awards and family information.

Modern Information System

A computer-based information system (CBIS) is a modem information resource that uses a computer to generate and process information. They are: digital reference service system, metadata information system, web based copyright system, geographic information system, spatial information system, and management information system.

- Digital Reference Service System (DRSS): Examples of DRSS are on-line chats, Ask-the-Librarian, chat with a Librarian, welcome to the library world etc.
- Metadatabase Information System (MTIS): It is concerned with data often in electronic format and referred to
 as: database of database. In effect, metadatabase systems are those modem information systems whose
 contents are deliberately designed to consolidate bibliographic databases into a single, very large finding tools
 for intended users to have easy access to reading materials.
- Web-based copyright system (WCS): This is an electronic and online information system that determine materials under copyright and provides information on copyright clearance centres as well as related agencies.
- **Geographic information system (GIS):** This is a computer-based system designed to facilitate mathematical manipulation and analysis of spatially distributed data, and type that provides an automated link between the data and its location in space (e.g. the latitude, longitude, elevation or depth).
- Spatial information system (SIS): These are computer-based systems that link data to spatial co-ordinates, for
 example, architectural software that records the spatial relationship of beams to foundation in the design of a
 building. A typical example of SIS is the GIS.
- Management information system (MIS): This is also a computer-based information system developed and maintained by private or public enterprise to integrate data from all its departments (e.g. in academic institution; Registrar, Personnel, Departments, Faculties and Libraries etc) integrated to support managerial and supervisory decision making with real time analysis of inventories.

Functions of MIS

- Provides summary of relevant information
- Stores information
- Compares information and provides result (i.e. processing information)
- · Translates information result.

From the medieval period, literacy per se was defined as *Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, then popularly known as the 3RS.* However, we have gradually migrated to a more advanced knowledge of the concept (with multiple traditional information systems arising from the 20th century knowledge explosion and ICT intervention of the 21st century), to incorporate information literacy, print literacy, computer literacy, digital literacy and network literacy as teaching and learning contents in institutions of higher learning. *Information literacy:*This is a technique a student uses to find the information he/she needs. It is the ability of a student to access, evaluate and use information from a variety of sources such as museum, libraries, resources and documentation centres. Information literacy is an umbrella term that encompasses a range of other skills such as:

- Literacy skills: The ability to read, write and compute; these are crucial for information retrieval from books and electronic devices or even internet.
- *Library skills:* The ability to locate and retrieve information from library catalogue, shelf locations and sections of the library.
- Thinking skills: Ability to engage in reflective thinking, critical thinking skills are required to locate, access, evaluate and use information.

Print literacy

This refers to students' ability to read printed matter such as books, journals and newspaper and interpret them clearly in logical and coherent manner, including student's ability to think, learn and express self through printed matter.

Computer literacy: This is based on a conceptual understanding of computer technology and how it can be used to accomplish specific tasks. The origin of computers is in the U.S military who sought ways of protecting information sources and their communication by dispersing and fragmenting, relevant networks, the growth of computers was fostered by the American University with the take off of the World Wide Web in early 1990s.

Digital Literacy: This is the type of literacy that relies on data recorded or transmitted as discrete, discontinuous voltage pulses represented by the binary digits 'O and fig. 1' called 'bits'. In digitized text, each alpha numeric character is represented by a specific 8-bit sequence called a byte. Digital materials refer to information originally created in electronic format for access and storage purposed. Typical examples are e-journal, e-books, reference works published online and CD-ROM, bibliographic databases and other web based resources.

Network Literacy: It is the ability of a student or researcher to actively participate as a peer in the emerging knowledge network and to master the logics or protocols of the network as much as he does in the print media. Network literacy trains students in reading, writing and active participation in various, collaborative environment of the Internet.

The Search Engine: These are programmes designed to electronically search millions of web pages, held on computers that are linked to the Internet for access to required materials. Among the most useful search engines for the World Wide Web are: Alta Vista and Excite. All sites on the World Wide Web have an address: This address is called a *Uniform Resource Locator (URL)*.

There are four ways the internet can be useful to the student or researcher. They are:

- **Networking:** The Newsgroup provides electronic notice boards through which people with similar interest sent article and respond to inquiries in a permanent on-line conference. The use of the net for direct communication has its own culture and codes called *netiquettes*. *Netiquette* is a set of rule *on an acceptable practice to communicate with news groups by e-mail.*
- Library
- Media contents
- Organizations

Prepared for the First Year Students by **Ekene Ugwuanyi**

Symbol/Abbreviatio

NP VΡ S **TGG** V Adi **FPA MPA** EPA **MPS** Subj 51 **52** SS DS MS PHM AHM V-Trans DO CO 10 CSO S SC C A

ICT CPU COSOL NLP URL TCP RAM ROM Modem UPS ISP CIS **NLE CBIS WCS GIS** SIS MIS

TABLE OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Meaning

Noun Phrase Verb Phrase Sentence

Transformation Generative Grammar

Verb Adjective

Front Position Adverbs Mid-Position Adverb Front Position Subject Mid-Position Subjects Subject Singular Subject Plural Subject Single

Subject Double/Compound Subject Multiple Subject Headword Pre Head Modifier After-Head Modifier Transitive Verb Direct Object Cognate Object Indirect

Complements of Direct Object Subject

Subject Complement

Complement Adjunct

Information Communication Technology Central Processing Unit Common Business Oriented Language Natural Language Processing Universal Resource Locator Transmission Control Protocol Random Access

Memory Read Only Memory Modulator Uninterrupted Power Supply Internet Service **Provider Community Information System** National Library of Education Computer Basal Information System Web-based Copyright System Geographic Information System Spatial Information System Management Information

System

