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NEW HORIZONS
IN
COMMUNICATION
SKILLS:
A USE OF ENGLISH COURSE TEXT

J.C. OGBODO; E.J. OTAGBURUAGU; C.L. NGONEBU;
C.U. OGBUEHI; E.C. OGENYI (EDS)

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The main objective of this second edition of *New Horizons in Communication Skills: A Use of English Course Text* remains the enhancement of the communication ability of students in tertiary institutions and others interested in language learning and usage. Communication is one of the strongest weapons of humanity with which one can control one's world. Without effective communication, individuals cannot attain self-actualization and the strides for the acquisition of skills and empowerment through education will flounder in frustration. The 21st Century is a communication-driven era during which the individual needs communicative competence to be relevant in the new world order.

Again, Communicative Skills Studies as a freshman course, is both remedial and developmental in content. The developmental component attempts to equip the learner with creative thinking and language skills which one needs to be able to function optimally within and outside the academic environment. The remedial component of the programme attempts to correct any faulty habits in the receptive and productive language skills, and learning and examination techniques which the student must have brought into his/her early career as an undergraduate. The primary goal is the production of students who will be academically sound and productive because they are able to exploit the rich potentialities of language as a communicative device.

Virtually, every chapter in this edition has received additional touch of expertise in order to help the readers tap into whatever prior knowledge of communication they already had. The teaching and learning of communication skills in Nigerian universities have suffered from the dearth of locally produced texts that are tailored to meet the goals of the programme. Most texts have merely parodied 18th century models with little or no regard to changes in curriculum design, developments in research, and methodology.

The present volume has therefore been written to fill these yawning gaps. The book examines such critical issues as the nature and functions of language, human communication, vocabulary

development techniques, listening and reading skills, study and examination techniques, basic phonetics of the English language, summary and term paper writing in which bibliographical documentation is treated as a critical factor in the presentation of research reports and other genres where citations may be required.

The work is written by experienced lecturers and ELT practitioners. One quality which recommends it to readers is the neat prose in which it is written with an accompaniment of high research content.

Students and teachers as well as those who want to develop communication fluency and efficiency for academic and social interactive purposes will find the book very useful.

JCO
EJO
(2015)

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- Judy Pearse, *et al Human Communication*, Boston: McGrawhill Publishers,
- Otagburuagu, *New Perspective in Business Communication*, Awka: Meks Link Publishers,
- Elgin, S.H. *What is Linguistics?* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall,
- Gimson, A.C. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*, London: ELBS, and
- Adler, R.B. and Rodman, G. *Understanding Human Communication*, USA: Harcourt College Publishers, among others.

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Chapter One

LANGUAGE: MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS

B. I. Obuasi, Ph. D

Introduction

Before going into the meaning of language, it is necessary to take a look at the different speculations on the origin of language. We describe the origin of language as speculations because there is no empirical evidence of the origin of language.

For Christians, God created Adam and gave him power of language (Gen. 2:19). In Gen. 11:9 also, there is a record of the different languages according to the story of "The City of Babylon". For the Hindu tradition, language came from the goddess – Sarasvati, the wife of Brahma who created the universe.

In addition to the religious perspective, the boo-woo theory of the origin of language believes that the words used in different languages developed from the imitation of the natural sounds made by objects. This theory further adds that more words developed from natural cries of emotions, and sounds in the physical efforts involving grunts, groans and swear words used in lifting things. This suggests that language developed under a social context, within the social life of the human group. A social explanation like this should be understood from the environmental perspective and use of language.

Some other people propose special specific connection between physical and oral gestures. That is to say that communication is by the movement of the parts of the body indicating a wide range of emotional states and intentions. But, a great range of linguistic messages cannot be given through this means. Still others believe that the physical features of man (organs of speech) have been there from the beginning of speech/language production just for the sake of speech. This can be acceptable, but

the question remains how did man begin to use them for speech and therefore communication?

What is Language?

There are many definitions of language as there are speculations of how it came about. Language is a highly organized and dynamic phenomenon defined from different perspectives. Some definitions are wide; some are narrow depending on the context of the definition, as well as the interest of whoever is giving the definition. What is easily acceptable in the definition of language is that it is used by every speech community for communication – just as a tool is used for a function. Some other definitions of language by some experts in the field include:

- (a) Language is nothing but a set of human habits, the purpose of which is to give expressions to thoughts, and feelings, and especially to impact them to others (Barbara & Strang 1969).
- (b) Language is a tool built for use by humans. Just as a pair of scissors enables us to exploit our basic manipulative capacities to fulfill new ends, language enables us to exploit our basic cognitive capacities of pattern recognition and transformation in ways that reach out to new behavioural and intellectual horizons (Clark 1997).
- (c) Atolagbe in Oyeleye (2004) defines language as “a system of vocal auditory communication, using conventional signs, composed arbitrary patterned sound units, and assembled according to set when interacting with the experiences of its users.”
- (d) A language is a dynamic set of sensory symbols of communication and the element used to manipulate them (*Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia* 2009).

Some human scientists see language as a set of culturally transmitted behavioural patterns, shared by a group of individuals. While Bell – a philosopher – sees language as an instrument of thought, Lyons – a linguist – defines it as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols.

As linguists, and for the purpose of this course, we shall define language as a set of codes of arbitrary vocal symbols and signs

for communication in a speech community. By this definition, language is a peculiar possession of human beings who have conventionalized utterances. By description, it is obvious also that language is an organized method of control by the use of symbols or conventions which involve the notion of meaning.

There are thousands of languages scattered all over the world today. These languages are classified generally according to their ancestral language family. Such families are grouped as genetic classification based on an abundance of related words in a member of languages. The language families include groupings according to geographical locations: European, South Asians, North Asian, South Asian, East Asian, Southeast Asian, African and Americans.

Every language has its unique structures and its own characteristic system of formal structural signal expressing the total meaning of every utterance. According to Wikipedia, there are many characteristics of language. Every language has grammar, phoneme, morpheme, syntax, and is oral, social, symbolic, arbitrary, unique and diverse, learnable, dynamic, intellectual, and changes. Different authors have different criteria for expressing the characteristics of language, but we shall consider only a few here.

Characteristics/Core Features of Language

To talk about characteristics or features of language is to talk about those attributes that can distinguish it from other phenomena in society. They are those recognizable qualities with which it can be associated. The most striking of which is that it is the distinctive feature of man. Only man speaks language; that is, makes use of vocal symbols systematically. Other characteristics include:

(1) **Arbitrariness:** Language is arbitrary. There is no formal relationship between words and what they represent. The word ‘woman’ and the symbol – woman – have no resemblance. A ‘book’ is called a book not for any reason. So, we say that the linguistic symbols and their meanings are arbitrarily assigned but generally accepted by the group that uses them.

(2) **Dynamism:** Language is dynamic. Bell (1981) sees language as an organism. Thus, it has life, can change and grow; this implies that it is not static, but changes with time. As the world develops, man is faced with a number of new objects and situations. Language is therefore manipulated to have enough vocabulary to suit these developments. This is the essence of its growth and dynamism.

(3) **Conventionality:** Language is conventional and versatile. Language is used for a long time and is considered the usual thing; it is normal, right and socially accepted. Its versatility encompasses and accommodates all fields of life. It is spoken by every community/group of people. It is also used by every profession.

(4) **Creativity:** Language is creative and complex. The phonemes and morphemes are manipulated syntactically and semantically to express our thoughts, feelings and ideas. There is no limit to what our thoughts can create which exposes the open-endedness and complexity of language. Yet, every new sentence in a language is understood by a speaker, especially a native speaker of such a language.

(5) **Culture Dependent:** Language is culturally bounded and transmitted. It is passed from one generation to another as a part of culture, but not genetic. That is why a child can inherit the colour of its parents, but not their language. One can only learn the language one is exposed to and the culture of such a language will unconsciously manifest itself. Language is learnable.

(7) **Systematic:** Language is a system. Just as the body is considered a system – which is a set of working parts for a common goal – language is a combination of rules organized to govern speech, and in effect life. It is an illocutionary act which gives room for total feedback. Every utterance lives behind some traces of it in man's sub-conscious, and as such man can reflect on or get back to any information, and even create fiction or talk about things or events in the past, present or future accordingly.

(8) **Discreteness:** Language is distinct in sounds. The sounds of every language are distinct and discrete from one another. They therefore bring about changes in the meaning of words. The removal of any sound that is significant in a word either gives it a different meaning or renders it meaningless, for example, the removal of any of the sounds in the following words will bring a change in their meaning: e. g.,

book - /b/ /u/ /k/	/	gone - /g/ /ɒ/ /n/
look - /l/ /u/ /k/	/	done - /d/ /ʌ/ /n/

It is this characteristic of language that brings about the distinctiveness of words with same spellings but different meanings which are common in tonal languages like the Igbo language.

(9) **Contextualization:** Language is contextualized in the sense that meanings of sounds, words or sentences are situated. No language exists without a speech community. It exists in a socio-cultural setting for the expression of the community's culture and traditions. The speech community is the context of language, as the meanings of words are derived from the environment of each language. This attribute of language – context dependent – overlaps with its characteristic of being culture dependent. It also gives rise to what is called, in the literature, register.

Functions of Language

Humans speak a wide variety of languages. However, all humans use language in one form or another for communication as noted by psychologists and linguists. Kemberling (2002) identifies three distinct uses of language; first, he talks about the *informative use of language* which involves an effort to accommodate some true content. Secondly, he identifies the *expressive use of language* which intends only to vent some feelings or perhaps to evoke some feelings from other people. Finally, he notes the *directive use of language* which aims at preventing some overt action(s) by a human agent.

Gardner (1983), a psychologist, groups the uses of language into four. According to him, language is used first to induce action; secondly, language is used as a tool by one individual to help another; thirdly, it is used to transfer knowledge from one person to another. Fourthly, he concludes that language is used to talk about language.

Akindele & Adegbite (1999) classifies language according to its uses in a bi/multilingual speech community. They focus specifically on the notions of language. When we talk of notions, we mean the social functions or social options of language use in a multilingual environment. This type of classification of function does not accommodate all languages since not all can fit into the functions. It is important to discuss it here because our nation is a multilingual society.

National Functions of Language

(a) First language (L1) or mother tongue (MT)

First language (L1) and mother tongue (MT) are usually interchangeably used. It is the language a person acquires from his first contact with his environment. It is the only language of a monolingual person usually acquired in his native environment. It takes care of all his linguistic needs. But it is good to note that most communities are turning bi/multilingual. L1 or MT is the language that ranks first in a person's speech repertoire – that is to say that a person is most fluent in his first language and it identifies the person's native culture. The term mother tongue is used to refer to first language since it is assumed that a child acquires this language from the parents who give the child his first social contact.

(b) Second language (L2)

Second language, as it is called, ranks sequentially second in a bi/multilingual person. It ranks second in the individuals speech faculty. It is often learnt for official setting and usage. In Nigeria, English is the second language. This helps to project the views of the international community. Second language, being an official one, requires the functional effectiveness of the user's knowledge of the

basic skills in language, which are listening, speaking, reading and writing.

(c) Foreign Language (FL)

A language is used as a foreign language where the users already have a mother tongue, and indeed a second language, but need a language to communicate across frontiers. It is used to conduct only specialized activities, in which case, the users may have only partial linguistic facility or intuitive knowledge. It is not learnt mandatorily; thus, the user is not required to possess full facility or knowledge of the skills in such a language. The functions of a foreign language are somehow restricted to tourism, interactional/social transactions, and commerce. In Nigeria, French is regarded as a foreign language.

(d) National Language

A language is regarded as a national language when it has the authority of the government conferred on it as the language for official use. It must be a language of a geo-political area of the nation as spoken by an ethnic group of the nation. It is often deliberately chosen as a symbol of nationalism. Nigeria has the Igbo, Hausa, and Yoruba as her national languages.

(e) Official Language

A language adopted by the state for administration and institutional use including use in schools is an official language. It shows that such a state is multilingual. Nigeria's official language is also English. Some other countries in Africa, especially those colonized by the British, have English as their official language; e.g., Ghana, Kenya, Zimbabwe, etc.

(f) Lingua Franca

This is a language used by people from different ethnic backgrounds to facilitate communication. Most communities of the world are turning multilingual; thus, there is a serious need for social cross-interactions. It may be the language of one of the ethnic groups involved as is the case in most northern communities of Nigeria, where Hausa is used as lingua franca, though there is no official

statement to this effect. But, generally in Nigeria, though English is an official language, a variety of English – (pidgin) is turning into the lingua franca of most communities. Officially, though, English is a lingua franca in Nigeria.

As observed earlier, we can see that not all languages can possibly fit into all these notional functional classification of language. But, according to Malia Knezek, one “obvious use of language is to communicate one’s thought In fact, this may seem the only... important use of our linguistic ability.”

We acknowledge all these wide variety of ways in which we use language, but we believe that these can be summed up into the following broad categories of functions.

(1) Language as an instrument of thought

Ideas and feelings are born in the mind in language. That is to say that one starts to communicate within oneself first, before voicing out whatever is conceived and intended to be communicated. Language therefore offers the necessary mental tool for the process behind every utterance – thought.

(2) Language as an instrument of communication

Conceived ideas, feelings etc. can only be communicated in the language one has some competence in. It makes communication possible and allows mutual intelligibility. In some views, language is used for “teaching”, “giving information”, “preventing overt actions”, “inducing actions”, “helping one another”, etc. These are all forms of communication the instrument of which is language.

(3) Language as an instrument of social identity

Every group of people is identified by the language they speak as it is a part of their culture. Again, man finds himself identified with one who speaks same language with him as “brother” even when no such relationship exists. One’s language is therefore one’s mark of and for social identity.

There is perhaps nothing more subtle than language, and it may not be an exaggeration to say that nothing has many different

uses as language. Without any doubt, claims to identify all the uses and functions of language may be seen as an oversimplification, but we have tried to create some awareness of the uses as many scholars view them, which have helped us to streamline the functions into only three, yet exposing the complexity of language with its characteristics.

Exercise

- (a) A most distinctive characteristic of man is that he possesses
- (b) Give an appropriate, brief definition of your answer to ‘A’ above. *about ...*
- (c) Differentiate between the real and the notional functions of language.
- (d) A language used in common in a country of multiple indigenous languages is called
- (e) Name four countries in Africa where English is used as second language.
- (f) Give and explain five characteristics of language.

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- www.yourdictionary.com/language

Chapter Two

STUDY SKILLS

Prof. E. A. Ogbonna

Preamble

The topic – **study skills** – is both pertinent and relevant to any student or person who wants to acquire any kind of knowledge. It will therefore be necessary to try to understand the two operational words that make up the topic by defining them. This will make for easy discussion and better understanding.

Study

Study is a conscious attempt to increase, by learning, the stock of knowledge a person has. By studying, one imbibes new ideas, re-establishes already existing ideas or facts, reaffirms what is already known, refutes a claim or confirms a point, fact, or claim. Study is, therefore, an endeavor to apply oneself to the acquisition or increase of knowledge by reading, investigating or reflecting. It does not preclude the ability to retain and retrieve all you have gathered. To achieve the goal of learning, therefore, one must concentrate and be focused.

Skills

Skills, the second word of our topic, are learned abilities with predetermined results often within a given amount of time, energy or both. If one is able to form and develop the right skills, they will help one in the process of organizing and taking in new information, or in dealing with assessment. It is only when this is done that it can be said that skills have been applied to learning which in turn yields good dividends. Based on this, some people refer to appropriate and result oriented skills as competence, excellence in performance and expertness.

From the foregoing, definitions we can say that skills are arts, strategies and techniques consciously learned, developed and

practiced to enable us to achieve a planned result through studying. Since studying is a must – an integral part – in a student's academic life, at various levels it becomes pertinent that the student should learn, develop and use skills with their accompanying strategies and techniques in order to make a success of his career. Suffice it to say that studying without the appropriate skills is like beating about the bush or a wild goose chase or an endeavor with no direction, no purpose and no focus.

As stated earlier, skills are arts, strategies and techniques consciously learned and developed to help the student make the most efficient use of his time, resources and academic potentials. With the right skills, the student gets more work (studying) done in less time because he has focus and direction, learning becomes easier and he is able to imbibe, retain and recall the facts.

Language Skills

Why talk about language skills in a chapter that dwells on study skills?

Language skills do not mean the same thing as study skills but they are fundamental to the acquisition of knowledge. One cannot, therefore, talk about study skills without first talking about the fundamentals, language skills. There are four language skills. These are: listening, reading, writing and speaking. However, brief mention of these skills with specific reference to how they affect effective studying will be done in this chapter. More elaborate and detailed discussion of the skills have been done in other chapters of this text.

Listening is essential to studying and learning. For every context or situation listening must have a purpose and that purpose can only be said to have been achieved when listening is effective. To listen effectively, therefore, some techniques must be applied.

Factors and Conditions for Effective Listening

- 1) Establish the purpose for listening so as to determine the level of your focus, concentration and attention.

- 2) For a student who listens for the purpose of academic success they should operate on the conjectural or projective level so as to follow the thought patterns of the speaker
- 3) The material that is listened to, the voice of the speaker, clarity of the speech is one of the factors that aid listening efficiency.

For more details of factors that could help you develop effective and purposeful listening skills, it may be pertinent to look at the chapter on listening skills. Also, go through the sub-section on factors that could inhibit the development of good listening techniques.

Reading

Reading is another important skills in studying. Various modes of information are stored in books. Unlike the listening skill, where the student listens through in different contexts, it is only through reading that the information in books can be accessed.

For studying and learning, the skill of reading is best developed and practiced for effective result by:

- 1 choosing the appropriate material for the purpose of reading;
2. having control of the material you are reading for study;
3. reading with understanding and comprehension;
- 4 reading beyond the literal or factual and inferential levels. At this point, reading as a skill should be at conjectural or projective level. At this level, the reader goes beyond the graphic words to look for extended meanings to get the writer's ideas. Then, he uses these ideas to project or conjecture new ideas;
5. Faster reading. By applying the technique of faster reading, one is able to cover the necessary volume within the shortest possible time. Again, go through the techniques of faster reading in the chapter on reading;
6. reading widely to access the relevant information for learning; and
7. reading pointedly and focused.

Obviously a student who follows the points we laid out here and practices them will be a serious and successful student in his field of study.

Writing Skill
The skill of writing is a reproductive or expressive skill. It is one of the skills a student needs to succeed from the point of noting what they have listened to in class, to making notes from their personal studies and finally to answering examination questions. If effectively and efficiently developed aids the student to put down what he learnt and read.

Again, details of how to acquire this all important skill will be left for the relevant chapter of this book.

Studying

At the beginning of this chapter, we tried to define and explain what it means to study and what skills are all about. For anyone to acquire any skill irrespective of the form it may take there are certain basic things the individual must first acquire. In this case, we have mentioned some general ones namely: the language skills. Without those competences, one cannot do any meaningful study. There are however other skills, call them sub-skills if you like, which a person needs to be skilled in studying.

As in every other skill acquisition process, studying apart from first acquiring the language competences, requires knowing how to study. For the sake of convenience, we shall break this into two. First we will talk about the techniques of studying and then talk about the methods of studying.

As you may observe as we go on, note taking, note making and comprehension seem to be primordial in study skills' acquisition. Again, because they have been accounted for in great details in other chapters of this book, we will treat them here only as they relate to techniques and methods of acquiring study competencies.

Study Techniques

If you are a ballerina, a sprinter, or a boxer, you will agree that there are special ways of moving your body in order to perform well in the theatre, field or ring. Not until you learn and perfect these body movements, you will not be adjudged skilled in any of these professions. These special ways of movement are techniques by

which you learn these arts. A guitarist who does not first learn musical notations, chords, chord progressions is not likely to play that instrument better than one who learnt these basic things first.

In studying, there are also some special things you must learn to do in order to study well or be skilled in studying. You may find some of these special ways of studying repeated in other aspects of this course. This is so because everything taught under Language Skills is geared towards making you a better and a more effective student than you were before entering the university.

Study techniques can therefore be grouped as follows:

1. **Know what is important:** It is difficult to talk about studying without first knowing what you should study. In academics, one can easily do this by using the course outline. Every course has an outline which tells you as a student what is relevant to the course. Using this outline to guide your study is therefore of great benefit if you want to remain focused. What is important can also be known from a lecturer's emphasis during classes, during tutorials and revision and past question papers. With all these you can even do a self-assessment of your competencies.
2. **Attend classes:** Perhaps the most crucial study technique for a student is attending classes. Classroom study pattern is interactive and this helps in understanding and retaining concepts clearly.
3. **Note-Taking:** Organizing and keeping comprehensive notes during and after lectures is very important and has numerous advantages. Apart from reminding you of what was taught, reviewing such notes engender self-study and help you sum up your understanding of the topic. Again they guide and give perspective to your further research. There are numerous ways of taking notes which include, the outline method, diagram, chart or table, the Cornell Method, mapping method, etc.

4. **Tapping and Telling:** As the name suggests, you tap the information from a source which could be a textbook, lecture, audio material, etc and you tell someone or group about it. The greatest thing among the strengths of this technique is that it is very effective in helping a learner internalize the information so gathered. While explaining to someone else, you learn more as you make the information yours. Apart from this, it is believed that the more senses a person involves in a learning process, the ideas become clearer to the individual and the information sets in the person's memory. So while tapping, you either engage your auditory sense or your sense of sight or while telling you engage your sense of speech. Thirdly, the more the number of times one explains an idea the clearer the idea becomes to the individual.
5. **Chunking:** This involves summarizing a textbook or lecture note over and over again. One makes the first summary and then summarizes the summary up to five times by which time you would have revised the material over and over again and grasping the main idea(s) better and eliminating the sub-ideas/facts until you have what looks like an outline. The beauty of chunking is that by the time you have an outline, you would internalize the central idea which you would have revised many times over.
6. **Diagram, Summaries and Mind Maps:** You must have come across diagrams in many learning situations like in the classroom, textbooks, etc. These are used to represent or illustrate ideas. Summaries on the other hand compress ideas into specifics and aid understanding, consequently learning. Mind maps simply are representations you make that remind you of ideas. They could come in the form of special diagrams or pictorials that create images of what is being learnt. The idea of mind maps stems from the belief that pictures are more easily remembered than list of words.

These three techniques help you organize words and ideas in ways that are compact, concise and indeed precise.

7. **Reading with a question:** This is a very good study technique. It could be a question coined from the subject matter by you or a question that has always agitated your mind concerning the object of study or from past question. Irrespective of the source, reading with a question keeps your mind focused on the objective of your study.
8. **Mnemonics:** The commonest forms of this old but very effective study technique are acronyms and acrostics.

Acronyms: Here you pick the first letters of the keywords in your work and make another word from them. Once you remember the word you formulated from the keywords the entire ideas flood back. For instance, a user of this book may wish to remember the first four points under Study techniques in this chapter with the acronym KANT. Where K stands for Know what is important; A: attend classes, N: note-taking and T: Tapping and Telling. An acronym should therefore be pronounceable

Acrostics: These are used mainly where it is difficult to form an acronym and there is a sequence you must learn. In acrostics, one takes the first letters of words from a sequence to be learned and coins a special sentence using each letter to begin a word in the sentence. A typical example would be naming the planets in relation to their distance from the sun. The sequence would be: Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune and Pluto. This sequence can be represented by this sentence: *My Very Eager Mother Just Swam Under the North Pole.*

Mnemonics generally are targeted at keeping what a learner is learning close to their knowledge base.

Study Methods
Planning is central to studying. Everyone is different and is bound to have different study preferences or methods. Therefore, we do not advocate strict methods because we believe that one method may be more effective for one person and inapplicable to another. However, there are methods of studying that can enhance comprehension and there are those that just cannot as in everything else we do. Some things are helpful and others are not. So the first thing we recommend is that you must know what works for you and what does not work for you. For instance, some people assimilate better in quiet environments; some others would need some soft music at the background. Be that as it may, the following study methods have been tried and tested and seem to work for every serious minded person who wants to study.

1. **Make and keep a Schedule:** it is recommended that you make a schedule for your studies. You must study at a particular time, spending particular hours of the day on your studies. This should be one of the habits every student should form and keep. Make those hours sacrosanct and make sure nothing interferes with them. It is recommended that for every hour of lecture, a student should spend at least two hours on the same lecture topic.
2. **Just Study because you have to:** One common mistake students make is waiting to be motivated. The primary reason you are in school is to study and nothing else. But you find many students saying that they are not in mood to study. Studying at this point should be a habit, a must, not something that depends on how you feel.
3. **Prepare for classes in Advance:** Any student who studies before classes is already ahead of the class. The implication of this is that in most cases while his peers are hearing of a topic for the first time, he is already

revising the topic. Such a student sees the classroom situation as an opportunity to clarify issue with the teacher.

4. **Attendance to Classes:** Attending classes regularly is a must for every serious minded student. Just like studying, you do not attend classes because you are in the mood or miss classes because you are not in the mood. Rather you should attend classes because you are in school to learn and the classroom situation offers the greatest opportunity for that.
5. **Take good notes:** Taking and eventually making good notes is very important. For successful study, you should make sure you do not read notes that were copied or made by someone else. Part of the reason for this is that people have peculiar ways of abbreviating during note taking which you may not be familiar with. Apart from that, reading a note should be part of revising what was said in class. For copying or reading someone else's note in most cases presupposes you were not in class. So as much as possible, avoid reading borrowed notes.
6. **Have an appropriate study environment:** This is very important as it is key to effective studying. The most important feature of an appropriate environment for studying is the availability of the things you need. A study environment should not be such that if you want a pencil, you have to go elsewhere to get it or anything else at that. Rather it should be such that is equipped with everything that will prevent you from having to move out until your study time is over. Again an appropriate study environment should be fixed. It should be a particular place where you study at the same time each day. This has a way of improving not just your ability to concentrate but puts in the right frame of mind each time you come to study.

7. **Further Research:** always research further on every topic that was treated in class. Do not be satisfied with only what the teacher was able to give you in class. Further research more often than not improves your understanding of a subject and exposes you to several other ideas on the subject.
8. **Internalize what was read:** There are many ways of internalizing what has been read. Many of these have been touched on under study techniques in other relevant chapters of this book, especially the chapter on comprehension. The essence of every study is comprehension. Once this is lacking, time spent studying becomes time wasted. So it is recommended that you take these comprehension techniques seriously as they will help in your regular studies.
9. **Timetable:** This is central to every study plan. You cannot plan to study without a timetable. A good timetable should spell out the study time, the subject to be studied and the number of hours to be spent studying each subject or course.
10. **Balanced Study:** A good time should be such that makes for balanced study. So apart from making sure that adequate time is spent on each course, it should also ensure that other aspects of life are not ignored. It is only a healthy person that studies meaningfully. Students should therefore adopt study plans that enhance their total well-being. A good study plan should not hamper your sleep or your recreational activities as it may run down your health and jeopardize your ability to study effectively.

Conclusion

What we have done in this chapter is first and foremost to establish what study skills means and then differentiate language skills from study skills while at the same time highlight the relationship between the two. However, we limited our discussion of the various study skills to such dimension that aids effective studying and learning. This chapter does not claim to be exhaustive of all aspects of study skills. Many of the details that were not mentioned were deliberately dropped to avoid what may seem unnecessary repetitions in other chapters of this book.

For instance, Reading Comprehension, which is an essential part of Study Skills was given very sketchy mention here because it has been discussed in fuller details in another chapter. Note-taking and Note-making which are veritable techniques for effective studies were not also given the span of attention they deserve in this chapter for the same reason. It is therefore expected that the user of this book should be able to draw from the stock of knowledge these other chapters offer and fill in the blank spaces, as it were, in this chapter. If the user of this book can apply what has been discussed so far to their studies, then the individual's learning will definitely achieve a huge success

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Chapter Three

NOTE-TAKING

C. U. Ogbuehi

It is important for you to understand and apply the concepts of effective note-taking, especially during lectures. Your major assignment is to listen and make notes of major points and their supporting details. Your power of judgment and selection comes into play. You are simultaneously involved in decoding, re-interpreting and re-presenting information gathered using your internalized dictionary. This way you will avoid, during reviews and examinations, a verbatim regurgitation of a lecturer's ideas.

Guidelines towards Effective Note-Taking during Lectures

1. Always go to class regularly and on time with a bound note –book or properly tagged loose sheets in a file. Put a date on your notes
2. Always prepare yourself mentally and physically to take notes in class. This means being alert to receive, process and record information and ideas during lectures. Avoid laziness
3. Listen attentively; listening is an important learning tool.
4. Listen to the title of a lecture and take note as indicated. Pause and listen again to explanations or remarks about the title and take note accordingly.
5. Share your time between listening and writing. Do not concentrate on the physical process of writing without listening to the lecturer.
6. Take note of major points about the topic, taking cognizance of examples and details that elaborate them, including the relationships between major points and supporting ideas.
7. Make notes using the formal outline method or using the continuous prose format which summarizes the major points.
8. Use standard abbreviations and symbols to increase your speed of note-taking. Here are some commonly used ones:

Abbreviations	Meanings
nb.	note well
no.	number
sth.	Something
esp.	especially
usu.	usually
ch.	chapter
impt.	important
edu.	education
univ.	university
phone.	telephone
xtian.	Christian
ltd.	limited
govt.	government
cld.	could
wld.	would
stds.	student(s)
excl.	excluding
incl.	including
i.e.	that is to say
e.g.	for example
abbr.	abbreviation
lang.	language
max.	maximum
Diff.	different
approx.	approximately
dept.	department
inf.	information
ref.	reference
Symbol	Meanings
=	equals to ; is
//	parallel
≡	similar to
+	plus, in addition to

→	leads to
?	question
-	minus, less
b/4	before
>	greater than
<	less than
∴	therefore
∵	because
&	and
” ”	same as above, ditto
/	this or that
//	the opposite of
→	does not result/result in, cause
w/o	without
w/	With
* or v	important idea
Q	question
√	correct word/answer

10. Provide space along the margin for extra notes /cross-referencing.
11. Take note of recommended texts for extra reading.
12. Make your note legible to avoid confusion when reviewing it.
13. Make your notes precise, clear and unambiguous.
14. Arrange your note systematically so that the major and minor points are easily identified.
15. Avoid clogging your notes with digressions; make distinction between illustrations, explanation and jokes from the lecturer.
16. Take note of transitional words and expressions.
17. Make graphic representation of ideas through branching, outlining, etc.

Task I: Imagine that the passage below is a class lecture on a brief history of the bicycle, make notes from it using the outline method and the summary method.

A Brief History of the Bicycle

The basic idea of a two-wheeled machine astride which a man might sit and propel himself along is undoubtedly of considerable antiquity, but it did not assume a practical form until 1818. Then a German, Baron Karl von Drais de Sauerbvon (d. 1851) constructed an improved type of hobby-horse, or dandy-horse, as such machines were called in England. It consisted of a wooden frame or backbone to which two wheels of equal size were attached by iron brackets, the front one being capable of turning relatively to the frame by means of a handle bar fixed to the top of the front fork. The rider sat on a saddle mounted in the centre of the backbone and leaned forward against a padded support between the saddle and the handle bar propelling himself by taking long strides with each foot in turn against the ground. The wheels were wooden and no brake was fitted. To ride the hobby horse down-hill must have been an alarming experience.

About 1839 Kirkpatrick Macmillan, a Scot, built a machine incorporating a system of treadles, linked by connecting rods and cranks to the rear wheel, which was the first bicycle to be propelled by the rider without touching the ground with his feet. A brake on the rear wheel could be applied by twisting the handle-bar. It was not until 1861 that cranks and pedals were directly applied to the wheel of a hobby horse, and credit for the first use of these on the front wheels must go to Ernest Michaux, a Frenchman, who by 1867 had formed a company for the manufacture of velocipedes of his own design. Late in the previous year the first American bicycle patent had been taken out jointly by Pierre Lallement and J. Carrol.

During the next few years, the bicycle industry in France grew rapidly. On November 17, 1869 a great international race from Paris to Rouen, a distance of 83 miles was won by an Englishman, James Moore, riding a machine fitted with ball-bearings, which were soon adopted by manufacturers generally. By this time England was waking up to the fact that there was a growing demand for

bicycles, and in 1869 the first machine to be made in this country were built at Coventry. James Starley (1831-81) of that city took out a patent for that first ladies' bicycle in 1874, and also invented the tangentially spoked wheel—a great improvement on the earlier and radial-spoke design. He patented the Coventry tricycle in 1876 and a year later took out another patent for the use of the differential gear in combination with chain-driven, which features he embodied in the Coventry tricycle. This machine paved way for the introduction by other manufacturers of many different designs with two three and four wheels. More than 200 varieties were on the markets in 1884.

The high or 'ordinary' bicycle was now rapidly becoming the standard type, for a reason which is comprehensible if not immediately obvious. In order that each revolution of the pedals attached directly to the hub of the front or high wheel should cause the machine to travel a reasonable distance, it was necessary that the wheel should be from 4 to 5 ft. in diameter, and in fact they were so made, with variation in steps of 2 in to suit the length of legs of different riders. Attempts to make the front-driving machine safer were numerous, one such being the kangaroo bicycle in which the front or driving wheel was considerably smaller than the case of 'ordinary', the pedals being mounted at point about half-way between the hub and the ground and driving the former by geared up-chains. Another design was the Geared facile which incorporated a lever action and sun-and planet gearing. A slightly inclined front fork also helped by placing the weight of the rider farther behind the centre of wheel.

This advent of the contemporary safety bicycle was foreshadowed as early as 1876 when H.J. Lawson patented a rear-driving machine known as the crocodile. In this machine the rear-wheel, rotated by a system of levers and treadles, was considerably larger than the front it was not a commercial success. In 1879 Lawson designed the first rear-driven safety bicycle using ordinary cranks and pedals, a geared-up chain-driven to the small rear wheel being employed. A large front wheel gave the machine a rather ungainly appearance.

It was left to J.K. Starley of Coventry nephew of James Starley, to design and manufacture the first commercially successful safety bicycle, the Rover, in 1885. It employed all the elements of the modern machine, having wheels of almost equal size, direct steering with inclined forks, and geared-up chain-driven to the rear wheel. It soon attained great popularity. The introduction of this machine and others constructed on similar principles doomed the 'ordinary' to extinction. The invention of the pneumatic tyre very soon afterwards was the final blow and by the turn of the century the safety bicycle, now fitted with a free-wheel, a device that had been anticipated at least thirty years earlier, reigned supreme. (From: *Oxford History of Technology*).
AR Kelly, *The Use of English for Technical students*, Harrape Co, 1963 pp 136-8.

Note-Taking from Books during Private Study

During your career in the university you will be involved in reading extensively during your private study periods. Such private reading will augment notes taken in class during lectures, seminars/symposia and tutorials and will immensely help you to expand on knowledge already acquired. It will, in addition, help to improve your power of judgment and discrimination when you review and compare your notes with notes taken during lectures.

There are two major ways you take notes from texts during private reading. First, is through underlining in the text itself. According to Mortimer J. Adler, "marking up a book is not an act of mutilation but of love." Second, is through outlining or summarization on separate note pads.

Guidelines towards Effective Note-Taking during Private Study

- Use a good marker. Choose marks that will distinguish major ideas from minor, e.g., unbroken lines, broken lines, circles, double lines, etc.
- Circle, bracket or put an asterisk on ideas you want to look up and expand on later.
- Take note of page references on the blank pages sometimes provided in the book at the back of it.

The second method is to make your notes on separate note pads. Before doing this,

- state the source of your note by putting down bibliographical information. Skim the book using table of contents. Take note of the major points and develop according to the writer's views;
- take note of supporting ideas;
- restate the author's ideas in your own words.

Techniques of Note-Taking

You have the option of making your notes in an outline form or in continuous connected sentences called summary.

(a) The Outline Method

The outline method is a formal presentation of writer's or lecturer's ideas. It has a format which is drawn up along specific rules. It is a graphic representation of the major and minor ideas in a piece of writing or speech, including the relationships existing between them. Outlining is a major study skill which you require in the judgment and selection of salient points in a lecture and in planning your English language essays. We are concerned here with outlining during lectures and from books. It is an aid to comprehension and retention because it is presented in a graphic form with ideas selected and re-arranged logically.

Guidelines to the Formal Features of an Outline

- Decide on the notation symbols that you consider appropriate in marking the major points from the minor ones and other details. Usually the following symbols are commonly used:

Major points – 1, 11, 111, IV, v, etc.

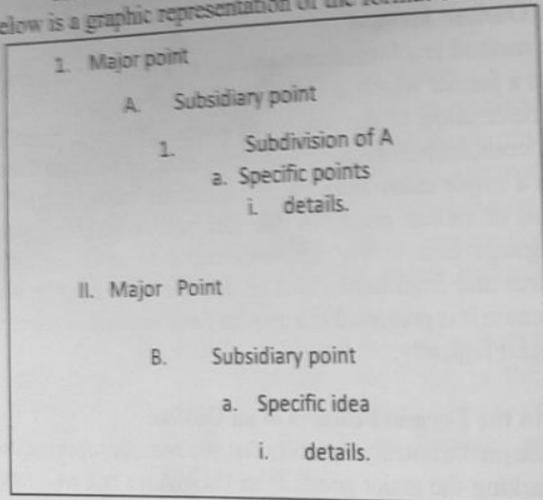
Secondary points – A, B, C, D, C, etc.

Relate to 1, 11, 111, IV.

Subdivisions -1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc

Related to A, B, C, D, etc

- (b) Begin each major point flush with the margin of your writing material.
 - (c) Indent subordinate headings some spaces to the right of the margin.
 - (d) All other lines of subordinate idea should proceed accordingly.
 - (e) Avoid writing directly under the symbols; they should stand out conspicuously.
 - (f) Use grammatically equal structures at each level of your outline, e.g., sentences, clauses, phrases or words.
 - (g) The first word of every statement should begin with a capital letter. This rule applies also to sub-headings. Place a period after each symbol.
- Below is a graphic representation of the format of an outline.



Task II: Read the following passage and make notes from it using the outline method.

Civilization

I have not yet defined civilization; but perhaps I have made definition superfluous. Anyone I fancy, who has done me the honour of reading so far will by now understand pretty well what I mean. Civilization is a characteristic of societies. In its crudest form it is

the characteristic which differentiates what anthropologists call 'advanced' from what they call 'low' or 'backward' societies. So, soon as savages begin to apply reason to instinct, so soon as they acquire a rudimentary sense of values—so soon, that is, as they begin to distinguish between ends and means or between direct means to good and remote — they have taken the first step upward. The first step towards civilization is the correcting of instinct by reasons the second, the deliberate rejection of immediate satisfactions with a view to obtaining subtler. The hungry savage, when he catches a rabbit; eats it there and then, or instinctively takes it home, as a fox might, to be eaten raw by his cubs, the first who all hungry though he was, took it home and cooked it was on the road to Athens. He was a pioneer, who with equal justice may be described as the first decadent. The fact is significant. Civilization is something artificial and unnatural. Progress and decadence are interchangeable terms. All who have added to human knowledge and sensibility, and most of those even who have merely increased materials comfort, have been hailed by contemporaries capable of profiting by their discoveries as benefactors, and denounced by all whom age, stupidity, or jealousy rendered incapable, as degenerates. It is silly to quarrel about words; let us agree that the habit of cooking one's victuals may with equal propriety be considered a step towards civilization or a falling away from the primitive perfection of the upstanding ape.

From these primary qualities, reasonableness and a sense of values, spring a host of secondaries: a taste for truth and beauty, tolerance, intellectual honesty, fastidiousness, a sense of humour, good manner, curiosity, a dislike of vulgarity, brutality, and over-emphases, freedom superstition and prudery, a fearless acceptance of the good things of life, a desire for complete self-expression and for a liberal education a contempt for utilitarianism and philistinism, in two words—sweetness and light. Not all societies that struggle out of barbarism grasp all or even most of these, and fewer still grasp any of them firmly. That is why we find a considerable number of civilized societies and very few highly civilized, for only by grasping a good handful of civilized qualities and holding them tight does a society become that.

But can an entity so vague as a society be said to have or to hold qualities so subtle? Only in the vaguest sense can societies express themselves in certain more or less permanent and more or less legible forms which become for anthropologists and historians monuments of their civility. They express themselves in manners, customs and conventions, in laws and in social and economic organizations, above all, in the literature, science and art they have appreciated and encouraged: less surely they tell us something about themselves through the literature, science and art, which they may or may not have appreciated, but which was created by artists and thinkers whom they produced. All these taken together will be reckoned-none too confidently-to compose a legible symbol of a prevailing attitude to life. And it is this attitude, made manifest in these more or less public and permanent forms, which we call civilization. (HLB Moody, *Varieties of English*, pp. 48 – 50).

Summarization

A summary is a reduced version of an original passage. The skill of summarization helps you to put information gathered from lectures, symposia, tutorials and books in your own language in a precise manner.

Guidelines for Writing a Summary

- (a) Begin by reading the passage at least twice. Make sure you comprehend the passage at all levels of meaning in terms of content and the lexis at both the denotative and connotative levels.
- (b) Identify major points and minor ones including their supporting details.
- (c) Understand the logical sequence of ideas.
- (d) State the major and minor points first in an outline format.
- (e) Examine each paragraph of the passage and try to identify the topic sentences
- (f) Use only words you understand. Check difficult words in the passage in the dictionary.
- (g) Exclude from the summary your personal opinion of the writer's ideas.

(h) Make your summary in continuous prose, pruning off very minor details.

(i) Reduce the passage to about one-third of the original.

Task III:

Read the passage and summarize it. Reduce to one-third of the original.

English at the University

English continues in most areas to be used even more intensively as a medium of instruction when the pupil goes on to further education beyond school, notably at training colleges, and the university.

At the university level the main emphasis switches to the written form of English, and a student's written English often needs attention throughout his whole university period. The oral approach is best for earlier stages of education yet the very success of this approach is likely to have effect on the student's written style, and the university student needs supplementary practice in what is, after all, a separate and equally necessary idiom, that of written English. The attainment of the Oversea School Certificate or its equivalent does not guarantee that the candidate will write perfect idiomatic English at the university. Accordingly, continuous attention to student's English composition is necessary if they are to derive the full profit from their course.

The final aim should be to produce a student whose English will give him full control of the type of writing and reading required to master his subject successfully at degree level, and to use his attainments afterwards both in his professional life and in society in general. Since, therefore, adequate English for an engineer, for example, may be different from the English adequate for a student of English literature, any supplementary English course required at higher specialization stage or university should be based on a survey of these varying needs. Several courses of this type will probably be required to cover the range of subjects being studied.

The need for training students in efficient methods of study is a universal educational problem, but when it is related to study through the medium of English as a second language the two aspects

interact with particularly important consequences. If a student is taught to use his skill in language methodically, he will avoid dissipating energy on problems that may not be language problems at all.

A special problem arises with a student who proceeds by scholarship or another means to a university or other institution in the United Kingdom or any other English speaking country. He now faces the ultimate test of use of English, namely, direct competition with students who speak and write English as native speakers. The student from overseas who has learned his English as a second language can seldom compete on absolutely equal terms. For this reason attention is drawn to our proposals for supplementary course in English.

(Culled from the Makerere Report on the Teaching of English as a second language, 1962. HLB Moody, *Varieties of English* pp 119-120.)

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Chapter Four
**ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
IN NIGERIA**

Prof. C. L. Ngonebu Ph. D

Introduction

The origin of English in Nigeria can be traced to Europe's contact with Africa as far back as the middle of the fifteenth century. According to Buah (I), for many centuries Europe's knowledge of Africa was limited to Northern Africa, particularly Egypt and Carthage, now Tunisia, and parts of the neighbouring countries. In fact, the word Africa, which means "without cold", was given to an area of Northern Africa by the ancient Greeks. For thousands of years, the Europeans saw the world as consisting of only Europe and Northern Africa. But in the fifth decade of the fifteenth century, a new surge for discovery and adventure swept through Europe. First, Portuguese navigators and explorers began to visit the Upper Guinea Coast of West Africa (Buah II). Gradually, there arose a boom of interest in this erstwhile unknown part of Africa.

This explosion of interest in the coastal lines of Africa arose due to a number of reasons.

1. The Europeans' quest to enrich themselves from the immense wealth of Africa was a major reason. The Europeans were filled with news that Africa was a rich haven for gold, ivory, gum, timber, cam wood, pepper, animal skin and other articles of trade.
2. The Portuguese saw Africa as a "dark continent" in need of deliverance and Christianization. So, as the explorers and traders descended on the Guinea Coast so also the Christian missionaries.
3. There was a need to find a new sea route to the East as the route through North Africa was tumultuous. The Guinea Coast of

West Africa provided a welcome alternative for the European traders.

4. There arose an increasing demand for slaves as North Africa could not provide all that Europe required.
5. The Europeans wanted to stop the spread of Islam down South. The Arabs had already conquered and Islamized the North and the Europeans did not want them to take over the entire continent.

For over a century, the Portuguese dominated the trade on the Guinea Coast. When other Europeans noticed the immense wealth the Portuguese were amassing, they too ventured into the territory. Hence, from the 16th century, both France and Britain joined in the expedition into other coastal regions of West Africa. As the British and Portuguese traders began to interact with the local traders along the Niger Delta, they began to use a corruption of the English and local languages known as Pidgin. This trend continued up to the 19th century when Britain formally established Nigeria as its colony. Britain first began their total control of Nigeria by first making Lagos a British crown colony in 1862. Gradually, the Northern and Southern protectorates were amalgamated in 1914 and the entity called Nigeria was born.

As the British were consolidating their administrative and commercial control of the land, another set of foreigners came along: the missionaries. Hence, in addition to colonizing the country, exploring the interior parts, and amassing the vast resources of the land, the British also introduced their religion to the people and set about massive and intensive evangelization. With the increasing control of the British came an increasing need for the English language. It was here that the missionaries came in handy. They built schools as well as churches because they needed the natives to learn English, the language of the Bible. Secondly, there was the need to provide the badly needed low-level manpower to assist the colonists in their administrative work. Thus, the need for interpreters, court clerks, messengers, telegraph probationers, accounting personnel facilitated the establishment of schools and the teaching of English (Ngonebu 12). Gradually, English was made compulsory in schools in order to give it leverage over other local languages. Knowledge of English also

became a key to success and advancement. The desire for it, therefore, began to grow among the people (Ngonebu 12). Even when the British left, after independence, the English language remained as the only language that could keep the multi-ethnic, multi-lingual, disparate communities of the country together.

Positive Impact of the Use of English in Nigeria

1. English is the country's lingua franca, that is, the language for communication and administration of the multi-lingual ethnic groups in the country.
2. English is used internationally. Hence, Nigerians can communicate with other countries that use the language.
3. English is the key to advancement in all spheres of life. According to the 1989 constitution, any candidate for election to the national or state assembly must have a secondary school certificate.
4. English is the medium of education in the country. English is valued so much that for one to get admission in any tertiary institution one must get a (credit) pass in the language.
5. English is a unifying force in the country.
6. English gives access to the fast growing world of science and technology.
7. English has opened a vast array of avenue for literary creation for the country's authors.

Many of our writers like Chinua Achebe, Wole Soyinka, Ben Okiri, Flora Nwapa, to mention just these four, have achieved international acclaim for their literary works which are all written in the English language

Negative Impact of English on Nigeria

Inasmuch as English has an international status and is a key to advancement both locally and internationally, it has some negative effects on the country. Some of these effects are discussed below.

1. English has undermined the growth of indigenous languages.
2. English has helped to erode the rich cultural heritage of the country.

3. English and its associated western cultural habits have created in the Nigerian psyche an inferior mentality. Consequently, locally made items are seen as sub-standard, low-quality or value-less compared to their foreign counterparts.
4. There is complete erosion of traditional values, symbols, and philosophy in pursuit of foreign ideologies embedded in the language of the colonialists.
5. The use of English right from the early stages of education increasingly alienates Nigerian youths from their roots and acculturates them into a foreign one. Adekunle (62) asserts that the cold fact is that every generation in every society or nation through its educational system tries to inculcate in the young generation its traditional values, its culture, and its philosophy. But this is not the case in Nigeria. The way English is entrenched and promoted in our educational system and social life will lead to the stage as Mamman says "the next generation to come will have no cultural heritage (linguistically) to hand over to their own children except the foreign one". (51)
6. The total dependence on the English language will not give Nigerian local languages the opportunity to develop orthographies that can attain international recognition for the expression of artistic ideas, and scientific and technological discoveries.

Exercise I

1. Discuss three reasons why the Europeans set off to explore new regions of the world.
2. In what ways did Portuguese activities lead to the introduction of English in Nigeria?
3. What is the relationship between the European explorers, the colonizers/administrators and the Christian missionaries?
4. Discuss four ways in which English has been an advantage to Nigerians and four ways in which it has been a disadvantage.
5. In what ways do you think the local languages can be made to compete favourably with English?
6. The primary instrument of Nigerian development is the English language. Discuss.

Typology of Language Use in a Bi/Multi-Lingual Speech Environment (Bilingualism/Multilingualism)
Bilingualism and multilingualism are sociolinguistic terms associated with the combined use of languages. Bilingualism is the use of two languages by an individual or community (Akindele and Adegbite 29). That is, the existence of two languages in the repertoire of an individual or a speech community (29). Hence, an Igbo speaker of English is bilingual just as a Yoruba who speaks Igbo or a Hausa who also speaks Kanuri.

While bilingualism is the use of two languages in a speech community, multilingualism is the use of more than two languages. It is a situation where English and two or more local languages are used. This situation occurs mainly in the urban areas where commercial, industrial, and economic activities bring people from different language backgrounds together. According to Adekunle (73), Jos, the capital of Plateau State, is typical of a Nigerian multilingual community. Adekunle identifies the languages used in the Jos metropolis as English, Arabic, Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Pidgin and other local languages like Efik, Edo, Fulfulde, etc. (73-4). Nigeria, therefore, is both bilingual and multilingual.

Having discussed the concepts of bi/multilingualism, we will now focus on the notions associated with the use of languages in those conditions. These include the concepts of English as First Language, English as a Second language, English as a Foreign Language, English as an Official Language, National Language, and Lingua Franca.

English as a First Language (L₁) /Mother Tongue (EMT)

English occurs as first language or mother tongue in those environments where it is acquired naturally. Mother tongue refers to the language that is original to a people, the language that is inherently part and parcel of a person's native culture, the language spoken from birth, the language of the home, one's parents, brothers, sisters, friends, and people around one (Ngonebu 13). This is why the first language or mother tongue is also referred to as the Native language. English, therefore, is the first language of Britain, USA, British Canada, and Australia.

English as a Second Language (ESL)

English occurs as a second language in bi/multilingual situations where the users have their indigenous languages but use English for inter-ethnic communication, for education and other official or administrative matters. Second language arises due to colonization, conquest or the need to trade or co-exist with other ethnic regions. A country like Nigeria which was colonized by the English and which has about 400 local languages and numerous ethnicities has no alternative than to adopt the colonizers' language as a unifying language. All commonwealth countries use English as a second language.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

A foreign language unlike a second language is not used for internal communication in a country and does not serve any utilitarian function within the country it is spoken. Users of a foreign language have their own native language for private communication and/or a second language for official transaction. The foreign language, however, is learned and used for international transactions in commerce, tourism, and media coverage. Countries where English is a foreign language include Saudi Arabia, China, Japan, etc.

National Language

The status of national language can only be accorded to one or more of the indigenous languages in a country. This is because a national language refers to a language which has the authority of the government conferred on it as the language of a number of ethnic groups in a given geo-socio and political area (Akindele and Adegbite 52). It is deliberately chosen as a symbol of oneness and unity and of achievement of independence in an erstwhile colonial situation and of the state of nationhood (Akindele and Adegbite 52-3). Hence, though English is deeply entrenched in the country's life in most domains (Jowitt 36), it is still a language of imposition and cannot be referred to as a national language. Countries that have national languages include Tanzania, Japan, Turkey, etc. As it is now, though Nigeria has a national language policy, it has not clearly taken a stand on instituting a national language.

Official Language
An official language is a language used by a multilingual community for purposes of wider communication and other functions such as the medium of instruction in secondary and tertiary institutions, the language of commerce, army, law, administration and literary expression. An official language may be a language that is foreign to the country such as English is in Nigeria, Ghana, and other Commonwealth countries, or it may be the national language as in Tanzania, Somalia, Sweden, or Turkey.

Lingua Franca
A lingua franca is a language used for communication in a country with diverse local languages. It is a language that is not indigenous to the users and is not the mother tongue of any of the ethnic groups using it. Hence, English is our lingua franca as it is used for interaction by all the ethnic regions in the country.

Exercise 2

1. List four countries where English performs the following roles:
 - a) EMT
 - b) ESL
 - c) EFL
2. List five countries that have National Languages.
3. What is the difference between a national language and an official language?
4. Argue for or against the need for a national language in Nigeria.
5. Discuss the differences between language of national unity and national language.
6. What do you understand by the term "Commonwealth Countries"?

Problems Associated with the Use of English in Nigeria

There are a number of problems facing the Nigerian learner and user of English. These problems arise from the conflict between the learner's mother tongue and the second language. This conflict is

referred to as linguistic interference or the interference phenomena. Linguistic interference occurs at four levels. Hence, we have:

1. Phonological Interference
2. Grammatical Interference
3. Morphological Interference
4. Semantic Interference

Phonological Interference

Phonological interference occurs when the speech sounds/ patterns of a first language/ mother tongue hinder the effective pronunciation of the second language. Igbo speakers, for instance, have problems pronouncing the English sounds /l/, /r/, /θ/ and final vowel sounds. Hence, instead of saying /lu:k/ the Igbo says /ruk/ and instead of /bɔ:l/, they say, /bɔ lu/.

The Yorubas' have similar problems in phonology. So, instead of /haus/, the Yoruba says /aus/, and instead of /θink/, they say /tink/. The Hausa as well suffers from phonological interference 'very' is /beri/, 'go' is /gwo/, and 'driver' is /draiba/.

Grammatical Interference

This, like phonological interference, occurs when the grammatical structures of the mother tongue interfere negatively with those of the target language. This results in the production of ungrammatical structures. For example, our students are fond of saying "The lecturer is not on seat" instead of "The lecturer is not in" or "...is not in the office"; "I have credited English" instead of "I have got a credit pass in English".

Morphological Interference

Morphological problems arise from the difficulty of forming words in English language. English words are so vast and their formation so irregular that an uninformed person would find it hard to use the right word for the right expression, use the appropriate tense or even the appropriate phrase. So, a student may have a problem forming the past tense of *cut*, *thrust*, *split*, *broadcast*, if she/he applies the traditional rule of adding *-ed* to the present tense form of the word.

Semantic Interference

Another problem that emanates when two languages come in contact with each other is semantic in nature. A second language learner may have difficulty coping with the enormous vocabulary of the English language with its "vast store of idioms, figurative expressions, specially invented words, derivatives, registers" (Ngonebu 31). The problem is compounded by many issues two of which include:

1. The English language forms words in awkward and illogical manner. For example, a "farmer" is a person who farms. "A teacher" is a person who teaches. But a "cooker" is not a person who cooks. Rather, it is an instrument for cooking, like a gas cooker.
2. Local languages have extended the meanings of English words. In Igbo, for instance, one's brother or sister can range from one's sibling to anyone from one's town or state or even race. But in English, one's sister or brother is one who has the same mother and father as one. Other filial relationships in English are expressed by the use of terms like first/second/third cousin, nephews and nieces, half-sister or half-brother. This is not so in the local languages. These nuances in meaning of English words sometimes create difficulty for the second language user's quest to master the language.

Hindrances to Effective Use of English in Nigeria

It is over a century now since English was institutionalized as Nigeria's official language. Over these years also, lots of efforts have been expended on improving English language efficiency amongst students. Yet, in spite of all these, in spite of the various psychological and sociolinguistic advances in L₂ teaching and learning, and in spite of the fund, time, and energy spent on language teaching facilities, our students never seem to reach an appreciable degree of proficiency in the language (Ngonebu 36). According to Mohammed (138) the rate of failure is so high and consistent that it has assumed the character of a syndrome.... A number of reasons have been put forward for these phenomena. We shall discuss a few of them here.

Unconducive Learning Environment

Many of our schools are characterized by the following features which are unconducive to learning:

- a) overcrowded classrooms
- b) lack of adequate seating facilities
- c) lack of language teaching equipment like video, cassette, language laboratory, projected media, etc
- d) consistent power failure inhibiting the use of the above if available.
- e) lack of raw linguistic input.

Lack of Experienced and Qualified Teachers

There is a belief implicit in the Nigerian psyche that anyone can teach the English language once the person can speak and write in English. In many of our primary schools, a single teacher handles all the subjects, ranging from the English language to Mathematics, Civics, Geography, Agriculture, etc. In the secondary schools, the situation is basically the same. If there is no qualified English language teacher, another teacher of History, Geography or even Physics is quickly assigned the subject. This condition does not facilitate the effective teaching and learning of the language.

Learner - Induced Problem

The Nigerian youths themselves create problems that hinder their effective use of the language.

1. The learners do not exhibit deep need to master the language. They feel they only need a certificate in the language and their degree of mastery of the language does not matter.
2. Once the learners are outside the classroom, they resort to Pidgin. This situation does not facilitate the consolidation of what is learned at school.
3. Students show apathy towards making personal efforts to enrich themselves in the language. A large number would rather spend their money on buying the latest handset in town than buying reading materials.

4. The over reliance on mobile telephones and mobile text messages to the detriment of writing is a development among the youths that is beginning to hinder effective use of the language (Ngonebu 21). People hardly write letters now. Mobile text messages, including the e-mail, the twitter and the blog, have become faster and more exciting ways of sending messages across the globe.

Exercises

- Identify three speech sounds that cause problems for the following speakers of English:
 - Ijaw
 - Urhobo
 - Efik
 - Igbo
- Identify with examples four ways the formation of English words serve as a problem to the second language learner.
- Discuss problems that hinder effective use of English in Nigeria other than the ones discussed here.
- Identify ways of overcoming the obstacle to effective use of English in the country.

Conclusion

The history of Nigeria cannot be written without mentioning the place of English language in the sphere of things. Ever since the language was introduced in the country by the British explorers cum colonizers, the language has continued to grow by leaps and bounds. This growth is associated with the rising international status of the language and the rising number of users. But even with the time span and increasing use of the language, the country is still battling with problems of ESL discourse units. There have also arisen many schools of thought advocating the elevation of Pidgin to the status of an official language; a national language to replace or exist alongside English; and the institutionalization of a Nigerian variety of English. But as the debate over these issues rages on, the fact remains that the English language would continue to flourish in the country.

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Chapter Five

VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

L. C. Ogenyi, Ph. D

Introduction

The word *English* is a name both for a language and for people who come from England. If we consider the second meaning, English is therefore the language of the English people. However, its status has grown remarkably as it is used across continental boundaries. Today, it has assumed the status of international language with a large number of speakers; it is only second to the Chinese. It is used in many countries as an official tongue, and unofficially in many more (Pei cited in Nzerem 233). This implies that most people who speak the language today are not English and were not born in England. People speak and write the English language differently. Consequently, there are different forms of English, hence, the different varieties of the English language. We agree with Ogbuehi who cites Brook as saying: "It is natural that there should be varieties of English, since language is a form of human social behaviour, and communities tend to split up into groups, each displaying differences of behaviour. Language reflects these differences" (40). Ogbuehi further explains varieties of English to mean different kinds of English spoken and written by different people with varying degrees of literacy and for different purposes. Eka avers that, "to qualify as a language variety, the language system must be used by a group and must have characteristics which distinguish it from other systems... (and that) each system must have common core features otherwise one would be dealing with separate languages" (40). Many different factors come into play in determining the various varieties of English. Prominent among such variables, according to Quirk and Greenbaum, include:

- i. geographical location (the place the speaker comes from);
- ii. social status or level of education in the language;

- iii. context of use/subject matter being discussed, and
- iv. medium of usage (1 – 9).

We would, however, like to discuss these factors under two broad headings, thus:

- a) varieties according to *user*, and b) varieties according to *use*.

I. Varieties According to User

Do all the people of your tribe who live in different geographical locations speak your language the same way? Or are there some differences in the way such people speak your language? Are we right to say that certain items are called different names by different members of your tribe? If your answer to each of the above questions is YES, then you will by now be imagining that languages vary because of differences in geographical locations. Geographical dispersion is the classic basis for language variation. Variety of a language caused by geographical location is also known as regional variety. Varieties determined by region have a well-known tag: dialects. The dialect of English which a person uses will depend partly on where the person comes from. The dialects of a language, English inclusive, are mutually intelligible to all the users of the dialects. The study of dialects is referred to by the term dialectology. Such study often gives a lot of information about the history and culture of the speakers of the dialects. Each dialect of the English language, like the dialects of other languages, is differentiated from others in the language by some linguistic features such as *pronunciation, orthography/spelling, grammar, and lexicon/vocabulary*. We shall, in a short while, discuss and illustrate the disparities that exist between the two major varieties (dialects) of the English language. But before this, it is important to note that there is a set of grammatical characteristics that are common to all dialects (Quirk & Greenbaum 1).

There are very many varieties of English according to region. However, there are two dominant regional varieties: *British English (BrE)*, and *American English (AmE)*. British-based form of English is the variety of English used in most Commonwealth countries. It is sometimes called Commonwealth English (Nzerem 235). It is the variety of English used across the United Kingdom, and in most of

the former colonies in the British Empire, notably South Africa, Egypt, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, New Zealand, Malaysia, Thailand, Hong Kong, and all of the English speaking Caribbean, including the Anglophone countries of Africa. Groups that use British English include the European Union, the United Nations, International Olympic Committee, NATO, the World Trade Organization, etc. Regions and countries that tend to use American English in teaching and publishing include much of the East Asia – Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines, and Singapore. The World Bank and the Organization of American States also use American English. These varieties (BrE and AmE) differ from each other in the linguistic features listed above. Let us now discuss these disparities one after the other.

A. *Differences in Lexis (words)*
Differences in lexical items (words) are far more numerous than the other linguistic features. Such differences are especially common in some areas of English such as transport, food, and clothing. Again, some words can be used in both places (i. e., in Britain & in America). The following illustrates the views we have just expressed:

Usual in BrE	Usual in AmE
vest	undershirt
flyover	overpass
pay packet	pay envelope
clothes peg	clothes pin
biscuit	cookie
maize	corn
flat	apartment
lift	elevator

B. *Differences in Spelling/orthography*
A number of words have different spellings in the British and the American varieties of English. The spelling system in AmE tends to be simpler; here, words tend to be spelled more like the way they are pronounced. This is not the case in the British orthography. One of the problems facing the student of English as a second language is

that most words are not spelt the way they are pronounced. Common spelling differences are put into groups below. Spellings given in the middle column are acceptable in both varieties of English.

a)	<u>- our and -or</u>	
British	British & American	American
amour		armor
behaviour	glamour	behavior
favourite		favorite
b)	<u>- re and - er</u>	
centre	litre	center
metre	fibre	meter, liter +
	meager	meager +
	theatre	theater +
c)	<u>-ae- /-oe and -e-</u>	
anaesthetic		anesthetic
	archaeology	archeology
	encyclopaedia *	
	enclopedia+	
foetus		fetus
haemorrhage		hemorrhage
manoeuvre		maneuver
	aerial	
d)	<u>-ence and -ense</u>	
defence		defense
licence(n)	license(v)	license(n)
defence		defense
pretence		pretense
e)	<u>-ogue and -og</u>	
analogue		analog
catalogue		catalog
dialogue		dialog +
prologue		prolog +

	<u>-amme and -am</u>	
f) programme	telegram kilogram	program
g) jewelry	<u>-ll- and -l-</u> councillor counsellor	councilor+ counselor+ jewelry traveler+
h) skilful	traveller <u>-l and -ll</u> appal instalment	skillful appall installment+
i)	<u>-s and -ze</u>	
analyse paralyse equalise organise		analyze paralyze equalize organize

+ = the usual spelling in American English

* = the usual spelling in British English

It can be observed from the foregoing that when there are differences in the spelling system of the British and the American English, there are, in some situations, spellings that are acceptable in both varieties.

C. Differences in Stress

It is common to find in English that many nouns and adjectives are stressed on the first syllable. However, when a noun is used as a verb, the stress usually moves to the second syllable in the verb. For example:

i) his 'conduct(n)

ii) to con'duct (v)

On the other hand, in American English, the verb is often stressed on the first syllable; e.g., 'decrease (AmE) de'crease (BrE).

D. Differences in Morphology and Syntax

The British and the American English do not have many differences in grammar. The few noticeable differences could be found in the following areas:

i) The past forms of the verb

Verb morphology, (i. e., the past forms of some verbs) can be different. In American English, some irregular verbs can have an additional form of the past simple or past participle that is not used in British variety. A few examples include:

Infinitive	Past Tense		Past Participle	
	Br	Am	Br	Am
dive	dived	dove	dived	dove
dwell	dwelt	dwelled	dwelt	dwelled
get	got	got	got	gotten
smell	smelt	smelled	smelt	smelled
burst	burst	burst	burst	burst
plead	pleaded	pled	pleaded	pled

ii) Inclusion and exclusion of some verb forms

In certain situations where British English uses the present perfect form of the verb, American English uses the past simple:

1. BrE: I believe I *have lost* my wallet.
AmE: I believe I *lost* my wallet.
2. BrE: Thanks, but I've already *eaten*.
AmE: Thanks, but I already *ate*.
3. BrE: The Labour Union protested *against* the hike in fuel prices.
AmE: The Labor Union protested the hike in fuel prices.

iii) Different prepositions are sometimes used:

1. BrE: The office is open *from* Monday *to* Friday.

AmE: The office is open *from* Monday through Friday.

2. BrE: It is quarter *past* eight.

AmE: It is quarter *after* eight.

3. BrE: He is always leaving his clothes *about*.

AmE: He is always leaving his clothes *around*.

There are variations in floor numbering between the United States (US) and the United Kingdom (UK). In the UK, the *first floor* is one above the entrance level, while the entrance level is the *ground floor*; whereas, normal American usage labels the entrance level as the *first floor* and does not use *ground floor*.

E. Differences in Pronunciation

The British and the American varieties of English have some differences in the pronunciation of some vowels and diphthongs, and in the pronunciation of "r" and "r". A few examples will serve our purpose here:

Br	Am	E.g.	Br.	Am.	
/ɑ:/	/æ/	Fast	/fɑ:st/	/fæst/	Where Br. has /ɑ:/, Am. usually has /æ/, except before "r".
/ɔ:/	/ɑ:/	ought	/ɔ:t/	/ɑ:t/	Where Br. has /ɔ:/, Am. has /ɑ:/ except before "r".
/ɪə/	/i/	Ear	/ɪə/	/ɪr/	The diphthong /ɪə/ is not found in AmE. and is replaced by /i/
	/r/	Farm	/fɑ:m/	/fɑ:rm/	Am. pronounces "r" in a word. In Br. "r" is not pronounced before a consonant or at the end of a word.

Apart from the differences in the British and American English, some distinctive dialects have developed in different parts of the world where English is spoken, because of the influence of the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the inhabitants and the way of

life prevalent in those areas. Thus, today we hear about Australian English, Nigerian English, Malaysian English, and South African English, to mention only these.

We have noted earlier that every language of the world comprises several dialects which differ from one another in lexis and structure. Usually, if a person speaks the dialect characteristic of a region, he will also speak an accent characteristic of that same region. However, Ellis and Tomlinson maintain that, "None of these varieties of English is inherently superior to any other; they are all equally valid provided they achieve efficient communication within the country and are internationally intelligible" (5).

II. Varieties According to Use

You may have noticed that people in different walks of life use certain words exclusively. Do you know that some words assume different meanings in different fields of life/professions or contexts? These explain the fact that varieties of languages, including the English language, are caused by the context of use. Variety determined by use is mainly a matter of lexis (vocabulary and idiom), and grammatical structure. We sometimes refer to it as *register*. The term *register* helps us to recognize and classify the ways in which language differs as its use varies. Each register has a specialized vocabulary and a permitted or at least expected range of structural patterns. When we observe language use in various contexts, we therefore find disparities in the type of language forms selected as suitable for different types of situations. Register is used to explain what people do with language in various human activities. We shall further discuss the concept of *register* according to Quirk and Greenbaum's classification thus: field of discourse, mode or medium of discourse, and style of discourse (6).

a) Field of discourse

Field of discourse refers to the *subject matter or the activity being discussed*. With varieties according to subject matter, the belief is that "the same speaker has a repertoire of varieties and habitually switches to the appropriate one as occasion arises" (Quirk & Greenbaum 6). The switch entails that the speaker or writer

constantly turns to a particular set of lexical items and structural patterns which are usually used for treating the subject in question. It is based on this that we have specific words that are often exclusively used in the following areas:

transportation, law, football, politics, engineering, banking, agriculture, economics, medicine, architecture, music, war, book publishing, theatre art, mass communication, religion, etc.

This presupposes the fact that, in principle, the type of language needed and used in a particular subject matter will be relatively constant.

b) Mode or medium of discourse

Language variety prompted by medium of expression recognizes whether the language is *spoken* or *written*. The two have situational roles. The differences that exist between spoken and written languages are found in two major areas. One of the sources is situational. The use of written medium, in the opinion of Quirk and Greenbaum, presumes the absence of the person(s) being addressed (6). This implies that the writer has to be explicit in his choice of words and other grammatical items. This is most important in order to enable his reader to understand him.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to communicate when we are involved in the spoken medium are impossible to represent with the "crudely simple repertoire of conventional orthography" (Quirk & Greenbaum 7). Prominent among such devices include *stress, rhythm, intonation* and *tempo* and other paralinguistic features – *gestures, body movements, and false starts*. This second factor underlines the fact that the writer must "reformulate his sentences if he is to convey fully and successfully what he wants to express with the orthographic system" (7). In speech, too, the sentences are shorter as a result of the use of contractions.

c) Style of Discourse

We believe that you do not speak to your lecturer in the same manner with which you talk to your parents or friends. Again, are we right

to say that you do not use the same tone or words to express anger and love? Does your attitude to an issue influence the words and expressions you use in talking about that matter? You may, by now, have started thinking that one's mood, attitude, purpose, and audience contribute substantially to the type of language one uses; that is, the style of discourse. You are perfectly correct! Quirk and Greenbaum call this "variety of English according to attitude" (7). Ellis and Tomlinson define style as "the relationship between language and the purpose for which a particular piece of writing is designed" (190). They further explain that an appropriate style involves the selection of words and structures to suit the aim of the writer and also the audience the writer has in mind when he writes. Style is, therefore, concerned with the choice of linguistic forms that proceed from our attitude to the hearer or reader to the subject matter, or to the purpose of our communication. The most essential of the non-linguistic component (i. e., attitude) is the gradient between stiff, formal, cold, impersonal on the one hand, and relaxed, warm, friendly on the other hand (Quirk & Greenbaum 7).

Consequent upon the foregoing facts, we can distinguish, under the heading, formal and informal (or colloquial), language use. Ellis and Tomlinson list the following as the characteristics of formal style:

- i) the writer tries to establish an impersonal relationship with his audience;
- ii) the message is usually direct and the language relevant to the topic;
- iii) a wide range of vocabulary and structural patterns are acceptable;
- iv) there is no restriction on sentence length;
- v) the third person pronoun preferred to the first or second person; and
- vi) language associated with a particular region or social group is avoided.

They further state that in informal style, the following features will apply:

- i) the writer wishes to establish an easy, intimate relationship with his audience;

- ii) precision of language is not very important (entertaining digressions are often acceptable);
- iii) short sentences are preferred; and
- iv) language associated with a particular regional or social group is acceptable (190-1).

Generally speaking, style is a significant factor in all types of writing. However, it assumes special importance in the following:

- i) letters (where we have definite conventions of address and language),
- ii) official documents, and
- iii) advertisements.

We noted in the introductory part of this chapter that varieties of English could arise or be determined by educational and social standing of the user and interference (the trace left by someone's native language upon another language which one is acquiring). This propels us to another variety of English – Standard English.

III. Standard English

We would like to start this section by borrowing the words of Boadi, Grieve and Nwankwo as follows:

In developed national states, with a sense of unity, good communications, a degree of literacy, and a good measure of inter-regional commerce...one dialect...may emerge as the STANDARD: in this sense 'standard' language is one dialect among many. It becomes the 'standard' not because of any intrinsic superiority as a dialect, but because of the interaction of a large number of non-linguistic factors, which are social, cultural, commercial and economic. (43)

In the minds of Akindele and Adegbite, "the term 'standard language' is an abstraction. It does not refer to any particular national standard form of English like British, American, Australian and South African Englishes" (155). They further explain that it refers to a variety of English accepted to the English audience worldwide. Consequently, its appropriate label should be *World English* or *International English*.

Standard English is a variety of the language. It is a variety that is always accorded social prestige; it is rated higher than other dialects which are, in this circumstance, called *local* or *non-standard* dialects. A national Standard English is often associated with educated usage. Educated users use it for formal, intra and international communication. Scholars are agreed that the variety of language described as standard is the form of that language which is considered acceptable and correct by most educated users of it. The *British Standard English* is the common linguistic currency of the whole country. It is the type of English spoken and written by educated English man, and the *Received Pronunciation* (RP) is that type of pronunciation used by the educated English man whose accent is not influenced by any regional variety (Boadi, Grieve, & Nwankwo 43). In British English, this type of pronunciation – RP – comes very close to enjoying the status of *standard*. However, Quirk and Greenbaum assert that RP no longer has the unique authority it had in the first half of the twentieth century (6). Contrary to this view, the accent is widely spoken by educated English men in the South of England and by a rather smaller proportion in the North. It is also the RP values that are commonly given in dictionaries. We wish to note that the Standard English and the RP are the models introduced by the early missionaries, administrators and traders in what is today known as *English as a Second Language* (ESL) speaking African countries. Therefore, in West Africa, Nigeria inclusive, Standard English has been the target English language variety for the teaching of English and the medium for the teaching of other subjects. By and large, each language or dialect serves the purpose of expressing the culture of the people that own it, hence the saying that no language or dialect is better/superior than/to the other.

IV. Pidgin

Assigning pidgin the status of a variety of English is still a linguistic controversy. For the lay man, it is "Pidgin English" probably because it sounds more English than any of the other languages that compose it. For some others, it is "Pidgin" and, therefore, an autonomous language. The rationale for discussing it in this chapter devoted to varieties of English is simply to underscore the fact that Pidgin has

sociolinguistic importance in Nigeria. The controversy is not our concern but the point that Pidgin is a communication code that can no longer be ignored in Nigeria.

Let us suppose that a person from Akwa-Ibom, Benue, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Lagos, or Rivers had come in contact with you once or several times. Was the type of the English language s/he used when talking with you equivalent to the type you hear your lecturers use during lectures? Do we hear you say, "No"? You may not be completely wrong, and if you are right you probably call his type of language "Broken" or "Pidgin". Yes, *Pidgin* is a type of language. Some writers call the Nigerian version "Nigerian English" (Opara 15), or "Nigerian Pidgin" (Ibrahim 93). Holms is quoted to have defined Pidgin as:

...a reduced language that results from extended contact between groups of people with no language in common; it evolves when they need some verbal communication, perhaps for trade, but no group learns the language of any other group for social reasons that may include lack of trust or close contact. (93)

The major languages which gave rise to Pidgin, according to Ibrahim, are English, French, Spanish, Zulu, Portuguese, Italian, and Chinook. You may have noticed, if you are a traveller, that this variety (Pidgin) is very common in most African countries where English is used as a second language. The words, grammar, phonological realizations, and in most cases, the semantic import are quite different from the other varieties which we discussed earlier. Akindele and Adegbite cite Lepage who says that pidgins are formed when speakers of one language engage in trade with speakers of another, or work on plantation managed by speakers of another language and neither knows each other's language (54). This language is no one's mother tongue. It is used between people who come from different linguistic backgrounds, and who speak other languages other than English (such as your friend from Delta State and you).

indigenous languages and the English language. In Nigeria, to be specific, it reflects the phonological, lexical, syntactic and, in most cases, semantic properties of native languages. It is described as "an interference type" (Akindele & Adegbite 63), because it has certain features that can be classified as Nigerianism.¹ It exhibits some characteristics of Nigerian languages (Opara 16). Its pronunciation is also incongruous when placed side by side with the Received Pronunciation (RP).

Initially, Pidgin was looked upon as inferior, bastardized, and haphazard version of a language; thus, the early linguists considered it as not worthy of consideration; it was looked upon as the language of the uneducated, and of humour and jest (Ejele 123; Ibrahim 93). However, in recent years, due to the use of Pidgin in several contexts, and as a result of the fact that it is used by people irrespective of their educational status, there has been a noticeable change in the negative perception of Pidgin: scholars have begun to show interest in it. The emerging importance of Pidgin in the modern world is encapsulated in this passage:

...with the coming of modern civilization and technology...pidgin has proved vital in education and political life...In New Guinea and the Solomons, as well as in many parts of West Africa, pidgin is ...the people's own lingua franca, indispensable for communication and easier to learn than English... (Ibrahim 94)

Indeed, Pidgin serves as a lingua franca in some multilingual states in Nigeria such as Edo, Delta, Cross River and Rivers; it is a trade language in Igbo, Hausa, and Yoruba communities. For many children in Nigeria, especially those in urban areas, Pidgin is of primary importance. There is a growing acceptability of Pidgin in Nigerian society; government relies so much on it to reach out to the people as it is being used in popular adverts and cartoons, political campaigns, economic and health matters, and in sending messages for fostering goodwill.

As a result of the fact that the people's negative perception for Pidgin is changing for a more positive outlook, the rise in terms of prestige,

and the functions it is serving, some linguists and language enthusiasts have, over the years, argued for its realistic position in the scheme of things, and have even proposed it as a lingua franca for Nigeria (Ejele 126; Ibrahim 99).

Tasks

1. What are the major determinants of varieties of English?
2. Varieties of English based on region are said to be different in some linguistic features. Mention these areas of differences and illustrate each with, at least, two examples.
3. Varieties of English according to use are treated under three sub-headings. List them and briefly discuss any two.
4. Why does a second language (L2) learner find spelling in English difficult?
5. Explain the term *dialectology*.
6. What is style?
7. List the characteristics of: (a) formal style, and (b) informal style.
8. Write short notes on: (a) RP, and (b) Pidgin
9. The term *standard* does not imply any value judgment; *dialects* are by no means corruptions of the Standard English. Discuss.

Notes

¹ For more information on *Nigerianism* in Nigerian English, see Akindele, F. and Adegbite, W. *The Sociology and Politics of English in Nigeria: An Introduction*. Ile-Ife: Obafemi Awolowo University Press Ltd., 1999, 62-70.

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METHODS OF VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

J. C. Oghodo

Using the Dictionary

"A good dictionary is a biography of words" - Glenn Leggett.

Introduction

A desk dictionary, which is the common standard abridged dictionary generally in use, has about 200,000 entries. No single book can exhaustively list and define all the words available in a particular language. Even unabridged dictionaries cannot achieve the feat because there are millions of words that make up a given language. Lexicographers do enormous work in listing and defining most of but not **all** the words in use in a given language. The lexicographer's work is complicated by the dynamic nature of language – there are constant changes in vocabulary with the concomitant effect that certain given words, though still part of the language in question in some instances, shed part of their meaning and/or acquire some other shades of new meanings. In addition to the stated fact, in a world that is fast becoming one global village, new words constantly enter the vocabulary of a given language thus outpacing the rate at which such words are documented and defined.

Our target language, the English language for instance, is surfeiting with various new words 'clamouring' for entry in our unabridged and desk dictionaries. For example, most of the technical computer terminologies are yet to be listed in most of our desk dictionaries yet they are fast becoming common words among internet users. Needless to say that youth in today's state-of-the-art secondary schools teach their university graduate fathers what computer terms stand for. Of course, if Shakespeare were to re-enter our present world, he would be at sea with many of the linguistic terms and diction of contemporary users of the English language.

Nevertheless, "the dictionary has been described as an invaluable resource and indispensable tool for writers and readers". According to Legget and others a "good dictionary is a biography of words. More than a source for checking spelling, pronunciation and meaning ... word history, part of speech ... usage ..." It is, therefore, imperatively demanding that everyone who has anything to do with language must acquaint himself with a standard desk dictionary. Having something to do with language does not necessarily mean studying language or language related courses – a mathematician or a scientist has something to do with language because such a mathematician or scientist communicates in language. The essence of this work is to emphasize the need for the dictionary to be everyone's companion and also to make the general user of the dictionary aware of certain pieces of information available in the dictionary and which are hitherto overlooked.

The Dictionary

As one can deduce from the introduction, there are two popular types of dictionaries, namely: the abridged and unabridged. The unabridged dictionary is an attempt by lexicographers to record all the words in a particular language. Although their efforts are laudable, all the volumes of an unabridged dictionary have not successfully recorded all the words in a given language. The task is daunting because of the dynamic nature of language – new words enter the vocabulary of a particular language either because of contact with other languages or scientific branding of new products or both. However, this fact does not, in any way, diminish the invaluable efforts of lexicographers at a comprehensive compilation of words of a particular language. Visit the reference section of a good library and avail yourself of information from the volumes of an unabridged dictionary.

The abridged dictionary is also called the desk dictionary. An example of this type of dictionary is *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. An abridged dictionary does not have volumes. It is handy, easier to carry about, and comprehensive enough to work with. It is the standard dictionary recommended for students and not the pocket dictionary.

Words in the dictionary are arranged in alphabetical order. The words, together with the head-words on every page are boldfaced to assist the user locate easily the word sought for. The systematic arrangement of words also saves time in that one can quickly go to the page(s) that has (have) the first-letter entry of the relevant word.

The feature just discussed may be a familiar one to most users of the dictionary and can be taken for granted but using *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* 3rd ed. (2001) as reference point, let us examine some other pieces of information we can avail ourselves of and which can be seen in any other good dictionary. A typical entry example for the word **PLACE** is given below. **Note:** Encircled capital letters of the alphabet which are not part of the dictionary entries are deliberately placed as guides to the detailed explanations that follow:

S 1 place¹ /pleis/ n C (1) place, position,

W 1 or Area (2) Take place (3) In place (4)

First/Second place (5) Other meanings

(1) Place, position, or Area 1 – point/position (a) any area, point or position in space: This is the place where the accident happened/make sure you keep it in a safe place/we kept moving from place to place/ The whole place was covered in dust. (b) a particular point in a larger area: a sore place on my shoulder/ There's a place on the wall where the paint's coming off. – see POSITION (USAGE) see graph at LOCATION. 2 – place for doing something – a place that is used for, or is suitable for, a particular purpose or activity: place to live/eat/park etc. What they need is a decent place to live. I couldn't find a place to park. Place for: It's a great place for a vacation. Sth's place (=where something is usually kept) put it back in its place when you've finished with it ...).

Note: There are thirty entries under **place¹** which, for want of space, cannot be reproduced here.

Usage Note: Place

WORD CHOICE: room, space, place, somewhere, anywhere. The uncountable nouns **room** and **space** can both mean an empty area that can be used for any purpose: Is there (any) room/space for me/us to sit down in here? Is there room/space for more books on this shelf? There's not enough room/space to move in here! **A place** or **a space** is a single piece of space that can be used for something. However, **a place** in this sense often has a planned or official purpose, while **a space** may be unplanned and smaller: I need a place to work (= an office, a study, or desk) / I need a space to work (= a part of a room or table). You say **a public place** but usually **a parking space** (= for one car) and **an open/green space**. In spoken English people often use **somewhere** or **anywhere**: I can't find anywhere to park/He's looking for somewhere to park his car.

Grammar

Place is singular, with the plural **places**: I visited a lot of different places (NOT place). 20 **all over the place** informal (a) everywhere (b) in a very untidy state. 27 **have no place** formal; to be completely unacceptable.

Urchin /'ɜːtʃ in/ n C old fashioned ...

Ennui !/Dnwi: / n U French; formal ...

Maverick/mævərɪk/ n C an unusual person who has different ideas and ways of behaving from other people and is often very successful.

Let us now examine the information conveyed under the entry **place** as listed above. Remember that capital letters of the alphabet are used for ease of reference to the particular place of information.

S1 S in this instance represents SPOKEN while W represents WRITTEN.

W1

The number 1 attached to each of the letters tells the user that the word **place** is one of the 1000 most frequent words in spoken and written English.

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Task 1

- Pick up your standard desk dictionary. Turn to the preliminary pages; find and write down **ten** abbreviations and their full explanations.
- If you are using *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE) explain the following (i) S2 (ii) S3 (iii) CanE (iv) NZE W2 W3 (v) SafrE (vi) ScotE (vii) T (viii) I (ix) C (x) U
- Arrange the following words in the order they would be in the dictionary: attorney, grapes, zebra, joyful, grapevine, vinegar, boutique, boater, grape, rot, jive, light, qwerty, victory, harvest, yacht, tumble, dribble, treatment, arrangement, pugilist, pulchritude.

Place – The letters p-l-a-c-e are systematically strung together as the correct spelling of the word. The dictionary is, therefore, a trusted source of right spelling of any given word. Where there are two possible spellings of a given word as a result of variety of English according to region, the two spellings are clearly indicated with the regions, thus, **centre** BrE **Center** AmE /sentə//ðr/ are given together with their pronunciation differences /sentə//ðr/ separated by two vertical lines.

A cursory glance at the **short forms and labels** page will inform the user that BrE and AmE stand for British English and American English respectively. Notice that **place** is a one syllable word and the implication is that it “cannot be divided at the end of a line”. On the other hand, **center** has two syllables. Most dictionaries use dots to indicate syllable boundaries for words that have more than one syllable. The syllable boundaries are veritable points for dividing words at line ends in most cases.

Task 2

- The spelling of each of the words listed below is wrong. Rewrite the words correctly and use your dictionary to check out your correctness.
 - auxilliary
 - writing
 - questionnaire
 - recieve
 - believe
 - appology
 - pronunciation
 - necessary
 - intresting
 - acomodation

- (b) Break each of the following words into syllables; use dots to indicate the syllable boundaries: (i) about (ii) intelligent (iii) procrastination (iv) foreigner (v) exchange (vi) demarcate.
- (c) How many syllables does each of the following words have? (i) queue (ii) awe (iii) impoverish (iv) misconceptualization (v) amputation.

The superscript (¹) imposed on **place**¹ indicates that there is at least a **place**² which belongs to a different word class from **place**¹. Even under the entry for **place**¹ there are five broad entries and thirty different sub-entries indicative of meaning and usage. A good user of the dictionary should be conscious of these entries so as to arrive at the desired meaning.

The phonemic transcription of the word is given /pleis/. To many unformed users of the dictionary, the symbols are meaningless and so they hardly pay attention to them or if they do, it is to make a funny reference to them as "shorthand". This should not be – in fact, your being enrolled for this course means that you should be one of those informed people who would use their knowledge of vowels and consonants to arrive at the right pronunciation of words just as they had earlier been able to use the letters of the alphabet to arrive at the right formation of words.

It is important to note that there is a difference between phonemic and phonetic transcription though they are interchangeably used in some course books. What we have above is a phonemic transcription which is the common pronunciation entry in most desk dictionaries. Phonetic transcription, in the strict sense of it, includes diacritical marks examples of which may be seen in English pronouncing dictionaries or phonology course books. The phonemic transcription /pleis/ shows that we have a CCVC structure (consonant + consonant + vowel + consonant) where the V element is a diphthong and NOT the common erroneous monothongized /ples/*. For the sake of emphasis, the vowel /ei/ is a diphthong and should be rightly pronounced as such. The right pronunciation will help you do the right transcription. In the same vein, the correct interpretation of the given phonemic transcription is helpful in arriving at the right pronunciation.

Task 3

- (a) Identify the structure of each of the words below by using the consonant/vowel (CV) symbols e.g. cow – CV
(i) buy (ii) bridge (iii) field (iv) foetus (v) faith (vi) enjoyable (vii) Africa (viii) egg (ix) beans (x) beautify
- (b) Using your dictionary, find the following words and beside each word write the phonemic transcription as seen in the dictionary: (i) name (ii) quiet (iii) eager (iv) right (v) write (vi) unique (vii) hunt (viii) pleasure (ix) wish (x) venom
- (c) Turn to the preliminary page of your dictionary that lists the consonants and vowels of English. How many consonants and vowels are listed there? Are they the same in number with what you were taught? If there is any difference, what accounts for the difference?

The grammatical abbreviation (n) shows that the word class or part of speech of **place**¹ is **noun**. In the same dictionary, **place**² has the grammatical abbreviation **v** which means that the word is a verb. There are other abbreviations which the user of the dictionary should be familiar with in order to effectively use the dictionary:

adj	-	adjective
adv	-	adverb
conj	-	conjunction
prep	-	preposition
pron	-	pronoun

Some other complex abbreviations such as **vt** and **phr v** which represent **transitive verb** and **phrasal verb** respectively are mastered by a conscious effort to find out what the abbreviations stand for.

The letter **C** indicates that the noun is countable. Some nouns are uncountable and **U** is used to indicate such nouns. Some others can be used in a count (countable) and non-count (uncountable) sense depending on the intended meaning. For instance, the word **induction** is used as a countable noun when one is referring to "a ceremony in which someone is officially introduced into an official

position or an organization". The same word is used as a non-count noun when it technically refers to "the production of electricity in one object by another that already has electrical or magnetic power".

Task 4

- (a) i) List ten words that are purely count nouns.
ii) List ten words that are purely non-count nouns.
iii) List five words that are both count and non-count nouns.
- (b) Write the part of speech or word class of each of the following words. Dictionary abbreviations for the part of speech should be used in each case.
(i) advice (ii) advise (iii) practise (iv) practice
(v) immune (vi) immunize (vii) modern (viii) pretty
(ix) occasionally (x) immunization

The encircled (1) shows that some other entries of place under **place**¹ follow. For example, there are: (2) TAKE PLACE (3) IN PLACE, (4) FIRST/SECOND PLACE, and (5) OTHER MEANINGS.

The numbering 1, 2, 3, ... 30 are variants of the denotative and connotative meanings and usages of **place**¹.

Meaning – There are suggested meanings of **place** under (a) and (b) in this entry. There is a generally accepted erroneous idea that the dictionary gives the meaning of a word. Contrary to this, the dictionary rather SUGGESTS the meaning or meanings of a word. It is incumbent on the user of the dictionary to go through the suggested meanings of a word (if more than one is given) in the dictionary and make a choice of meaning that is not only contextually relevant but co-textually suitable. Otherwise, an uninformed user of the dictionary will jump to conclusions by accepting any meaning on the premise that it was given by the dictionary.

Usage – The usage notes given in the dictionary play enormous role in teaching the user how certain words are used. In this entry a **place** has a planned or official purpose, while a **space** may be unplanned and smaller. I need a place to work (= an office, a study, or desk). I

need a space to work (= a part of a room or table)". We "say a public place but usually a parking space".

Grammar – the user is informed that **place** is a countable noun with the plural **places**. One would say, "I visited a lot of different places (NOT place)". Pieces of information of this nature are often overlooked in the hurry to search for meaning.

Task 5

- (a) Find the following words in your dictionary: priest, clergyman, clergy, minister, pastor, chaplain, padre. Make a usage note for the words.
- (b) For each of sentences 1 to 5 below three-sentence options are given in relation to the italicized word in the sentence.

Identify the sentence that is appropriate for the italicized word.

1. When the drug baron was convicted, his *properties* were confiscated by government estate agents.
 - i) **Property** and not **properties** should have been used here.
 - ii) **Properties** is appropriately used in this context because it includes a piece of land and building.
 - iii) **Properties** here refers to the quality and power that belong to the drug.
2. The computer *mouse* became inoperable because of power outage.
 - i) **The mouse** that lived in the computer died as a result of power outage.
 - ii) **Mouse** here refers to the wire that connects the computer to the wall socket.
 - iii) **Mouse** here is a small object connected to a computer by a wire.
3. I would not *house* a person whose temperament is unpredictable.
 - i) **house** in the sentence is a noun.
 - ii) **house** in the sentence can be both noun and verb.

- iii) **house** in the sentence can be replaced with **accommodate**.
4. The taxi driver picked his **fare** at the wrong place and was penalized by the police.
- fare** refers to the money paid by a customer which the taxi driver collected at the wrong place.
 - fare** is an object used to beautify a car which the driver picked at a wrong place.
 - Fare** refers to a passenger the taxi driver picked at the wrong place.
5. "I want **dessert**", the small boy demanded after he had taken his lunch.
- "You can't have **dessert** boy, the Sahara is far from us", replied the mother.
 - "You mean you want to leave me?" asked the mother. "O.K. go to your friends".
 - "Take ice cream from the freezer", replied the mother.

Formal, informal, old-fashioned, slang, colloquial etc are some of the stylistic features that can be found against certain words in the dictionary. The user of the dictionary should avail oneself of such information by avoiding slang, colloquial and old-fashioned words in formal writing. Whereas slang, old-fashioned words, informal words, and colloquial may be permissible in informal speech situations, they are avoided in formal writings, and, to some extent, in formal speech situations.

Ennui /Dn'wi:/ n. U French. The dictionary indicates the origin of certain words. The word **ennui** is not English in origin but French. However, it has become part of the English language and has also retained its French pronunciation therein. An unwary person may pronounce the word wrongly as */enuji/ but the correct pronunciation is /Dn'wi:/. This fact emphasizes the difference between how most words are spelt and how they are pronounced in the English language.

Maverick /mævərik/ n. C You might be interested in reading about the history of certain words and thereby discovering yourself that the dynamism of language distances it from being a closed

system. History has it that **maverick** was once a proper noun and the name of someone. In fact, Samuel Augustus Maverick was a rancher in Texas in the mid-1880s*. His community decided that everyone should brand his or her cattle for ease of identification. Everyone in the community complied except Maverick so that wherever an unbranded cow or calf was seen, it was called a maverick. Maverick had indirectly "branded" his cattle in a different way from that of members of his community. Every unbranded cow was a maverick which then meant a cow that belonged to Maverick. The name stuck and entered the vocabulary of the English language such that today maverick means "an unusual person who has different ideas and ways of behaving from other people and is often very successful".

Conclusion

Few other books compare with the desk dictionary in giving grammatical, stylistic and lexical information on the English language. The dictionary is therefore an invaluable asset in:

- establishing the correct spelling of words.
- recording the right pronunciation of words.
- suggesting the meaning(s) of a word.
- giving the word class or part of speech of a word..
- giving the origin of certain words.
- supplying the usage information of certain words.
- interpreting standard and peculiar abbreviations found in the dictionary.
- establishing syllable boundaries of two or more syllable words.
- indicating the position of the primary and secondary stresses where applicable.
- giving and explaining idiomatic expressions associated with given words.
- introducing new words which enrich the diction and language repertoire of the avid user of the dictionary.

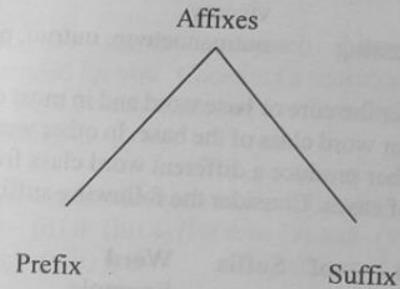
Task 6

- a) State the origin of the following words:
(i) sockeroo (ii) strudel (iii) wee (adj) (iv) voodoo
(v) duke (vi) apparel (vii) specimen (viii) tedium
(ix) antenna (x) latte (xi) radicchio
- b) Group the following words where each belongs to under the headings formal, informal, and old fashioned (archaic):
incurious, hanky, goalie, melancholy, nerd, shrewish, sodomite, soil (verb), turd, twixt, vino, wench, byte, pronto (adverb), tyke, the good book, in good faith, prostitute, harlot, golly, kinky, mucky, prattle, lesbian.
- c) List ten uses of the dictionary and give a sentence example of each of them.

Vocabulary Development

We have been told and we have practically found out on our own that a good dictionary is a biography of words. In developing one's vocabulary, the dictionary is not only an invaluable tool but also an indispensable one. One of the objectives of introducing a novel as part of the first semester work in the Use of English Unit of the School of General Studies programme is to enable students find the meaning of new words and relate the meaning to the context and context of usage. In doing this exercise, a studious and diligent student would be exposed to many different words hitherto unknown. The repertoire of English words known by such student increases, because the brain has the capacity to store such words and to make them available for use in suitable situations, or to recall their meanings when next such words are met in some other similar contexts. Consequently, passive vocabulary, which refers to words that can be recognized by one while reading or listening to a discourse but which one does not actually make use of, and active vocabulary which refers to words that one can work with by making use of them in writing and in speech, are very much enhanced. This is one way of developing one's vocabulary in the language.

However, the dictionary may not be on hand all the time. Constantly, one may rely on one's knowledge of words in some situations and use such knowledge to decipher the meaning of a new word. The knowledge of the forms English words take is an example. It has been noted that words in the English language "can be made up of at most three principal parts. There is the core part, which always remains in the middle if all three parts are present. It is this core part that can usually be another word on its own. When all three parts are not present, that is to say only two are found, then the core part may be either at the beginning or at the end"¹. This introduces us to what is called **affixes** which comprises prefix and suffix.



A prefix comes before the core or root word while a suffix comes after the core or root word. The meaning of a morpheme attached as a prefix to the core or root word affects the meaning of the core word; thus, the prefix and the core together create a new meaning. Prefixation may not change the part of speech or word class of the core word but it definitely changes the meaning of the core word by the imposition of the meaning of the prefix. A diligent student of the English language should be aware of the interesting nature of the prefix and use it either to create new words or decipher the meaning of words. Consider the following prefixes:

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
Mono	one, single	monotonous, monoplane, monosyllabic
in-	Not	intolerant, insignificant, insufficient
im-	Not	immaterial, immobile, immortal
bi-	Two	bilabial, biennial, bifurcation
re-	back, again	remake, reform, reiterate
ante-	Before	antenatal, antemeridian, antecedent
Mis-	Wrong	Mismanage, misquote, misuse
un-	Not	Unprepared, uninteresting, unbelief
poly-	Many	polysemy, polyandry
vice-	instead of	Vice Chancellor, Vice President, viceroy
out-	Surpassing	outmanoeuvre, outrun, outlying

A suffix comes after the core or base word and in most cases changes the part of speech or word class of the base. In other words, the suffix and the base together produce a different word class from that of the base in majority of cases. Consider the following suffixes:

Base	Part of Speech	Suffix	Word Example	Part of Speech
Move	Verb	-able	moveable	adjective
Question	Verb	-able	questionable	adjective
Skill	Noun	-ful	skillful	adjective
Care	Noun	-ful	careful	adjective
Full	Adjective	-y	Fully	adverb
Man	Noun	-ly	Manly	adverb

There are, however, few cases in the English language where suffixation does not alter the word class of the core or base word. Consider the following instances:

Base	Part of Speech	Suffix	Word Example	Part of Speech
Baron	Noun	-ess	baroness	noun
King	Noun	-dom	kingdom	noun
Serf	Noun	-dom	Serfdom	noun

Lion	Noun	-ess	lioness	noun
Gang	Noun	-ster	gangster	noun
Hotel	Noun	-ier	hotelier	noun
Cook	Noun	-er	Cooker	noun

In summary, there is no substitute to a conscious mastering of affixes as a means of developing one's vocabulary and as a tool for forming acceptable words in the language. Bear in mind the words of Legget and others that a "good vocabulary is the product of years of serious reading, of listening to intelligent talk and trying to speak and write forcefully and clearly".

Task 7

- List two new words from each chapter of the novel recommended for you. Construct a sentence with each of the words. Your sentence may not reflect the same context as that in the novel.
- Form two words with each of the following prefixes: (i) foster- (ii) il- (iii) a- (iv) mis- (v) anti- (vi) im- (vii) mega- (viii) mal- (ix) circum- (x) un-
- The following are core or base words. Add a suitable suffix to each of them. (i) form (ii) preach (iii) adore (iv) wild (v) mourn (vi) create (vii) equal (viii) cup (ix) clock (x) valid (xi) style (xii) devil (xiii) difficult (xiv) woman.

Synonyms

Synonyms are words that are similar or nearly the same in meaning. It is important to note that words are hardly synonymous in the English language. In the words of Gatherer, "No two words in English have precisely the same meaning since almost all words carry different connotations or associations. The term synonym is therefore used to signify words having the same or nearly the same essential meaning."

The fact so stated prepares the mind of the English language user to be cautious in choosing words which on the surface seem synonymous but whose implication may veer away from the intended meaning. For instance, a conscious choice should be made from **rain, shower, drizzle**, to reflect the appropriate condition. To say that it is **raining** when it is actually **drizzling** borders on ambiguity of expression which is a result of ignorance of the difference between **raining** and **drizzling**. In the same vein **go, leave, depart, vamoose, desert, abdicate** are from the same semantic field – **move away from** – yet they cannot be used interchangeably because of the peculiar shade of difference in meaning encapsulated in each of the words. Consider the following synonyms:

1. viper and adder are perfectly synonymous.
2. petrol and gasoline; bonnet and hood are regionally synonymous.
3. read and peruse; speak and talk are synonyms that are not perfect.

There is a shade of difference in meaning and usage between **read** and **peruse**. For instance, **read** needs the adverb **carefully** to compare favourably with **peruse** since **peruse** in itself embodies **read + carefulness**. It is common to command, “stop talking!” rather than, “stop speaking!”. In summary, the “possibility of choosing between two or more alternatives is fundamental to our modern conception of style, and synonymy affords one of the most clear-cut examples of such choice. If more than one word is available for the expression of the same idea, the writer will select that one which is best suited to the context: the one which will carry the right amount of emotion and emphasis, which will fit most harmoniously into the phonetic structure of the sentence, and which will be best attuned to the general tone of the utterance.”

Antonyms

Antonyms are words that are opposite in meaning. It is important to note that certain words in the English language have degree of oppositeness. For instance, the opposite of **slow** is **fast**. **Slow** and

fast are gradable opposites – slower, faster; slowest, fastest. Consider the following antonyms also:

hot	cold
young	old
good	bad
low	high
black	white
long	short
big	small
fat	thin

Some words that are opposites do not accept gradability. For instance, the opposite of **true** is **false**. What is true is simply true and cannot be **more true***; in the same way what is **false** is simply **false** and cannot be **more false***. Consider the following antonyms:

spinster	bachelor
genuine	fake
male	female
innocent	guilty
master	servant
employer	employee

Some other antonyms are morphologically related and in most cases require prefixes in order to turn the given words to their opposites:

logical	illogical
legal	illegal
moral	immoral
sexual	asexual
married	unmarried
literate	illiterate
legible	illegible
political	apolitical

Homonyms

Homonyms are words that have the same form or graphic representation, the same sound but different origin and meaning. Consider the following examples with adapted meanings from *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*:

ruler(n)	-	someone who has official power over a group of people.
ruler (n)	-	a flat narrow piece of plastic, metal or wood used in measuring things or making straight lines on paper.
bark (n)	-	a short loud sound that dogs and some other animals make.
bark (n)	-	the outer covering of a tree.
staff (n)	-	people who work for an organization.
staff (n)	-	a long stick that an official holds in some ceremonies.
dear (n)	-	used when speaking or writing to a loved one.
dear (adj)	-	very expensive
bear (n)	-	a large strong animal
bear (v)	-	to carry from one place to another

Homophones

A homophone is a word that sounds the same as another but is different in spelling and meaning. The following are examples:

know	-	no
night	-	knight
bough	-	bow
air	-	heir
mail	-	male
fowl	-	foul
made	-	maid
buoy	-	boy

Acronyms

The *Dictionary of Contemporary English for Advanced Learners* (New Edition, 2009) defines an acronym as a word made up from the first letters of the name of something such as an organization. It exemplifies this with NATO which is made up from North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Acronyms are therefore abbreviations that are pronounceable as words. They do not normally need periods after each abbreviated letter. The following are examples:

NEPA	-	National Electric Power Authority
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
JAMB	-	Joint Admission and Matriculation Board
VAT	-	Value Added Tax
WHO	-	World Health Organization
WAEC	-	West African Examinations Council
ASUU	-	Academic Staff Union of Universities
UNICEF	-	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UFO	-	Unidentified Flying Object
AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
NAFDAC	-	National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control

Note, however, that the following abbreviations are not acronyms because none of them can be pronounced as a word:

P.T.O.	-	Please Turn over
I.S.B.N.	-	International Standard Book Number
N.Y.S.C.	-	National Youth Service Corps
U.N.N.	-	University of Nigeria, Nsukka
F.B.N.	-	First Bank of Nigeria
P.H.C.N.	-	Power Holding Company of Nigeria

Polysemy

A word is polysemous when it is capable of eliciting two or more different meanings. In language, economy of words is achieved by making one word to have two or more meanings. In the words of Ulman "If it were not possible to attach several senses to one word, this would mean a crushing burden on our memory: we would have to possess separate terms for every conceivable subject we might wish to talk about". Polysemous words to a large extent have close or nearly close similarity to their referents and this fact is the dividing line between polysemy and homonymy. For instance, the polysemes **foot** of a human being, **foot** of a mountain, **foot** of a tree

and foot of a bed have a semantic field *lower part of* whereas there is no semantic affinity between the homonym **ruler** – a flat narrow piece of plastic, wood, or metal, and **ruler** – someone who has official power over a group of people. Neither is there any affinity between the homonymous “saw (the tool) and saw (the past tense verb)” (Kolin, M. and Funk, R.).

Consider the following examples of polysemous words:

- Tooth - of a human being
- tooth - of a comb
- hand - of a human being
- hand - of a clock
- eye - of a mammal
- eye - of a needle
- nose - of a mammal
- nose - of a plane

Conclusion

In addition to some other methods of vocabulary development discussed in this chapter, much emphasis has been laid on the need to make use of the dictionary as a resource tool. Extensive reading and effective listening are also necessary in the mastery of the English language. For instance, a voracious reader has a well of words to choose from in given situations and will not succumb to the cliché – “I know the answer but I do not know how to put it”. On the other hand, listening to native speakers of the language or proficient second language speakers of the English language facilitates one’s competence.

Task 8

From the words in parenthesis against each sentence, choose the word that most appropriately fills the gap in the sentence:

- The list of those workers to be retrenched is -----in secrecy. (covered, closed, shrouded, shut)
- I would have failed in my ----- if the errant worker was left unpunished. (task, job, work, duty)
- The governor ----- his authority to a sole administrator. (abandoned, deserted, relinquished, forsook)

- The word formerly reads *pink* and not *think* which is here now; it then means there has been ----- (a change, an alteration, a variation).
- The penitent armed robber pleaded for ----- (mercy, clemency, leniency).

Task 9

- Give a word that is similar in meaning to each of the words listed below:
 - heavenly
 - reject
 - worldly
 - universe
 - broad
- Give a word that is opposite to each of the following words:
 - wrong
 - alive
 - legitimate
 - married
 - responsible
- Select the appropriate homophone from column B for each of the words in column A.

A		B
i.	tail	blurb
ii	new	plumb
iii	cite	crew
iv	blue	sight
v	plum	blew
		kike
		news
		knew
		tell
		tale
		site

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Chapter Seven

WORD CHOICE AND USAGE IN SPEECH AND WRITING

A. C. Chigbu

‘When I use a word, it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less’ (Lewis Carroll, 1832 – 1898).

1.1 Introduction

Indeed, speaking and writing involve a series of choices. As we work on a paper, we choose our topic, our approach, our sources, and our thesis. When it is time to write, we have to choose the words we shall use to express our ideas and decide how we shall arrange those words into sentences. As we revise our draft, more choices are made. The following questions could be asked: Is this really what I mean? Will my audience understand this? Does this sound good? Whichever way the question goes, finding words that capture our meaning and conveying that meaning to our audience always proves a challenging task.

In English, this task is more challenging especially for those who study it as a Second Language (L₂). The need to strive for clarity and avoid confusion is always a desired goal. Every word used is expected to count: it has to be the right word, in the right context, and for the right audience.

This chapter is set to help you accomplish this goal. It discusses the sensitive nature of words, and how you can handle them with care and precision, in both oral and written media.

1.2 Word Choice as a Concept

Word choice can be described as the purposeful selection and use of effective words and phrases to convey meaning in speech or writing. In essence, word choice is not a random affair, but an exercise that is regulated and determined by a number of factors. For one, every

word chosen has to be accurate. As Quinn and Filak put it, 'it has to be right, not close to right, not nearly right, but absolutely right' (*Convergent Journalism*). Again, the word has to be appropriate for the context; otherwise the intended message or meaning will be lost. Moreso, every word chosen has to be apt. In other words, it should tell. What this entails is that word choice is an art that requires every language user to exercise caution.

Word choice and the term, 'diction' are often used interchangeably. However, note that diction relates more to the distinctive choice of words or manner of expression associated with a speaker or writer. But word choice connects the processes or conditions that delimit a speaker or writer in his/her preference for a word or expression. These processes are our main concern here.

2.1 Factors Limiting Word Choice and Usage

Every good word choice requires a sound sense of judgment. In other words, you must get your fact, in clear perspective, as regards what you want to speak or write about. You can ask yourself the following questions: What constitutes my subject matter? What is my purpose? Who is my audience? What is the context of my speech or writing? Each of these questions shapes and sharpens not only your thought process but your sense of responsibility in regard to the proper words to choose to accomplish your communication task. Let us briefly examine what each suggests.

2.1.1 Subject Matter Any speech or writing focuses on something: an idea, an object, an individual, an area of interest (social, economic, religious, political etc), a phenomenon or a field of study. Whichever thing your writing or speech dwells on is your subject matter. Your choice of words must show that you have a sound knowledge of this subject matter. In other words, it has to be a determining factor. If you are discussing a special field of study, say, Information Technology, you will be required to choose the appropriate registers (i.e., technical terms applicable to the field). But you must apply caution as you use them, especially when you have a mixed audience. You do not throw them in just to sound learned. This is because your most important goal should be to communicate

clearly and effectively. For instance, you can decide to use the word 'memory' instead of 'RAM'. Or if you have to use 'RAM', define and explain what it is, in common terms. This will make your audience well disposed towards your discussion.

2.1.2 Purpose

Every communication task should have a purpose. According to Sheehan & Paine, 'the basic purpose of communication are two: to inform and to persuade' (qtd. in Sproat et al 'Purposes'). However, the two can be broken down as follows:

to inform	to persuade
to describe	to convince
to explain	to influence
to demonstrate	to argue
to illustrate	to recommend
to review	to change
to instruct	to advocate
to advise	to urge
to announce	to defend
to analyse	to justify
	to support

Whichever one you identify as your purpose, it should play a major role in your word selection. For instance, if your purpose is to persuade, words that offend sensibilities of your audience are to be avoided, since your aim will be to make them accept your position or idea. Again, words that are vague (for instance, 'may be,' 'perhaps,' 'seems' etc) must not be in the picture, since they indicate that you are uncertain or unconvinced about what you are discussing. You must, therefore, create time to identify and analyze your purpose before you engage in any communication event.

2.1.3 Audience

This constitutes an important aspect of any communication project. The way you address a group of little children will be different from the way you address a group of adults. This difference subsists when you encounter people with different social, cultural, religious or political affiliations. Therefore, analyzing your audience before

engaging in your communication task is necessary: Who are they? What are their areas of interests? Are they literate, semi – literate or non – literate? Are they a group of experts in a particular field of study? How much do they know about your topic? What are the things they expect from you? What are their goals? Your attempt to understand and answer these questions will yield better results with regard to your word selection and the realization of your own communication goal.

2.1.4 Context

How your message is interpreted depends to a large extent on the context in which it is communicated. By context, we mean the setting, framework, background, situations, circumstances or environment in which communication takes place. According to Beach, there are five kinds of context in which every act of communication can take place: historical, psychological, cultural, social and psychological contexts ('Types of communication contexts').

2.1.4.1 Historical Context

This involves the expectation of the speaker and the audience in situations that happen regularly or have happened in the past. If for example, you address or write to/for a particular group of people periodically, overtime there will evolve certain expectations about your speech or writing. It does not mean that the same expectations and reactions must happen every time, but you should be aware of how they have reacted to certain words or expressions you have used in the past, and guard against the use of those ones that elicit negative response.

2.1.4.2 Psychological Context

This refers to the mood and emotions of the audience, as well as the speaker or writer to a lesser extent. How your audience feel at the time of communication usually impacts on how your message is received. For instance, if you are presenting a funeral oration, words that give consolation and hope will be more acceptable than jokes or political rhetoric. Again, in situations of oppressions, words that

echo self determination and survival will create more impact than the ones that point to resignation.

2.1.4.3 Cultural Context

Culture relates to the beliefs and values of a people or a group. Studies have shown that rules and patterns of communication differ from one native culture, say, Igbo to another, say, Yoruba. In Igbo culture, for instance, the use of proverbs is recognized as something that adds value to the message. Therefore, as a speaker or writer, learning to use them in the right manner, especially when addressing a core Igbo community, becomes an added advantage. In the area of beliefs, Christians and Moslems are two different groups. The best way to present a piece of information to one may not be the best way to present the same piece of information to another. Thus, in your word choice, the religious differences between the two groups must act as limiting factor.

2.1.4.4 Social Context

This involves the relationship between the speaker or writer and the audience and the expectations involved in that relationship. The relationship here could be formal, semi – formal or informal. Identifying the level which your communication task falls into will help you choose the right words that will sustain, not break the relationship.

2.1.4.5 Physical Context

There is time and space for everything. The physical context involves the actual location, the time of the day, the noise level and related factors. If you are speaking at a political rally, you might shout, pound the podium and use inflammatory words to get your audience excited. Doing the same with a small group of friends during a workout in a gym will produce a very different reaction.

Overall, the limiting factors demand that you must be "rhetorically sensitive" (Lee 'Understanding Communication Setting'); that is, knowing what kinds of words are appropriate, in which settings, and anticipating how they are interpreted.

3.1 Strategies for Successful Word Choice and Usage
The most important thing when you speak or write is to present your ideas clearly. It is better to err on the side of simplicity than to try to impress your listener or reader with complexity, but fail to communicate. Generally, there are no hard-and-fast rules about how words must be chosen and used. However, the following guidelines have gained wide currency amongst experts.

3.1.1 Choose Simple Words
According to Anderson, English 'users comprehend simple words more quickly, even when they are familiar with a more elaborate counterpart' (*Technical Communication*). The table below shows some commonly-used elaborate words and their simple alternatives.

Elaborate Word	Simple Word
fabricate	build
utilize	use
terminate	end
transmit	send
commence	begin
ascertain	find out, etc

Note that this guideline does not mean you should avoid all elaborate terms. If your audience is familiar with them, you can use them. But that is after a thorough analysis of your audience. The same thing is applicable to the use of technical terms. If you are familiar with your chosen terms and your audience understands them, use them. If not, either replace with simple terms or explain the meaning of the technical terms or compare with a common concept.

3.1.2 Replace Vague Words with Specific Words

It is always important that you choose the exact words that convey your meaning, not words that obscure, conceal or hide it. For instance, you may decide to use either of these sentences to describe a new product your company is developing:

1. **The CAC Corporation is developing a new device that allows users to communicate vocally at all times.**

2. **The CAC Corporation is developing a new mobile phone.**

Your audience may not immediately understand what the first sentence describes. They may begin to ask: Is this a brand new kind of device? Or is it a device they have never heard of? The second sentence, on the other hand, says exactly what the product is, leaving little room for doubt.

3.1.3 Avoid Unnecessary Wording

Unnecessary words, like vague words, hide meaning instead of reveal it. They can take the following forms:

- i. Excessive detail:**
(a): The manager received and read the e-mail you sent two days ago about the report you are writing for the project. He agrees it needs to be edited from someone familiar with your audience.
(b) **The manager received your e-mail about the project report and agrees it needs an expert to edit it.**

- ii. Extra Determiners and Modifiers:**
(a): Basically, the first dancer pretty much surpassed the second one in overall performance.
(b) **The first dancer performed better than the second.**

- iii. Redundant Words:**
(a): The engineer considered the second elevator an unneeded luxury.
(b) **The engineer considered the second elevator a luxury.**
A close look at the (b) version of the sentences shows why it is important not to burden your sentences with words that take life out of your communication.

3.1.4 Choose Content Words instead of Functional Words.

Functional or structural words express relationships between words. But content or lexical words express actions, attributes, abstractions or things. According to Landy, functional words 'are to a sentence what zippers and seam are to an article of clothing – necessary to

hold it together but best kept out of sight (26). In contrast, he calls content words 'the fabric of prose,' for out of them you construct the meaning of sentences. Examine the following sentences:

A1. If we keep up our fences, we shall stay on good terms with our neighbours.

A2. **Good fences make good neighbours.**

B1. All that I have to offer you is plenty of bleeding, of toiling, of weeping and of sweating.

B2. **I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat.**

You may have noticed that sentences A2 and B2 are weightier, more apt and straight forward than sentences A1 and B1. This is because they contain more content words than functional words. In sentence A1, for instance, there are six content words and nine functional words. But sentence B2 has five contents words, no functional word. You are therefore advised to hold functional words to the barest minimum. Use them only when necessary.

3.1.5 Replace Multiple Negatives with Affirmatives

Multiple negatives give your audience the extra task of interpreting your meaning. Affirmatives, on the other hand, convey meaning that needs no interpretation. This is evident in the following sentences:

A. Your audience will not appreciate details that lack relevance.

B. **Your audience will appreciate relevant details.**

Sentence B has a strong positive outlook. As such, its message is clearer and more direct than sentence A.

3.1.6 Prefer the Active to the Passive Voice

English verbs can be expressed in two different voices: active and passive. In the active voice, the subject performs the action of the verb: **Okonkwo (subject) killed (verb) the snake (object)**. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action of the verb: **The snake (object) was killed (verb) by Okonkwo (subject)**. While the focus of the active sentence is the subject, in the passive sentence, it is the action. Although each voice has its place in speaking and writing

clearly, research has shown that readers understand active voice more quickly than passive voice. Consider the following sentences:

A. **The student made a presentation (active voice).**

B. **A presentation was made by the student (passive voice)**

In sentence B, there is an impression that the speaker is not interested in what the student has done, a situation that could equally dull the reader's interest. But in sentence A, the speaker sounds sharp direct and lively, a situation that calls for the reader's interest.

Again, consider the following sentences:

1. **Mistakes were made that delayed our training for weeks (passive voice)**

2. **The coach made mistakes that delayed our training for weeks (active voices)**

You will notice that the reader is left to figure out who made the mistakes in the first sentence. But such a task is not required in the second, since the person responsible is indicated. This shows that over use of passive voice can reduce the drive in your sentences. Therefore, use them only when the sense of the sentences makes them clearly preferable. For instance, you can use them when the action is more important than the subject, or when the subject is unknown, or when you do not want to identify the subject.

3.1.7 Minimize the Use of Forms of the Verb 'Be'

The verb 'be' and its various forms (is, am, are, were, was, been, being) indicate a state of being, rather than an action. Thus, they weaken the active power of sentences and, in some cases, may indicate the passive voice. Consider these two sentences:

1. **The boy is killing the snake.**

2. **The boy kills the snake.**

You will observe that the verb in the second sentence shows, not tells, the audience what is happening. By so doing, it makes the sentence fresh, appealing and full of energy. This is what happens anytime you make less use of the forms of 'be' in your speech or writing.

3.1.8 Make Transitional Elements Your Guide

Transitional elements are words and phrases that indicate connections between sentences. They can create powerful links between ideas and can help your audience understand the logic of your speech or writing. In fact, a good use of transactional elements can turn a disconnected speech or writing into a unified whole. You can use transitions in various ways:

- **to exemplify or illustrate** – for example, for instance, to demonstrate, etc
- **to show sequence** – first, second, third, next, then, hence, thus, etc.
- **to show time** – before, after, during, while, meanwhile, at length, immediately, thereafter, sometimes, afterwards, earlier, soon, later, previously, etc.
- **to show space** – above, below, inside, outside
- **to show cause and effect** – hence, as a result, therefore, because, since, consequently.
- **to show contrast/comparison** – however, although, on the other hand, nonetheless, after all, nevertheless, on the contrary, in like manner, in the same way, likewise, etc.
- **to add** – and, again, equally, further, more so, moreover, in addition, etc.
- **to emphasize** – definitely, always, never, surely, certainly, in fact, indeed, of course, undeniably, unquestionably, etc.
- **to summarize** – in brief, to conclude, in sum, to sum up, overall, in all, etc.

Before you decide to make use of any transition, make sure you understand its meaning, and that it fits rightly into the logic of your communication goal.

3.1.9 Reduce Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases help establish relationships between nouns or

pronouns and other words in a sentence. Though grammatically relevant, its overuse can interfere with the clarity of a sentence. Consider these two sentences:

1. It is a matter of the gravest importance to the health of anyone who uses a microwave and has a heart condition to avoid standing in front of the microwave while it is running.
2. **Anyone with a heart condition should avoid standing in front of an operating microwave oven.**

It is evident that the second sentence is shorter and clearer than the first one.

3.1.10 Differentiate Between Denotation and Connotation

As you choose your words, make sure you are conscious of the denotative and connotative meaning of words, to avoid misrepresentation, misinterpretation and misapplication of your ideas by your audience.

Denotation, according to Nordquist, refers to 'the cognitive, referential or conceptual meaning of a word' ('Denotation (words)'). Put differently, it is a word's direct, exact, primary, precise, literal, or dictionary meaning. Connotation, on the other hand, refers to the associated, secondary, figurative or implied meaning of a word. For instance one of the meanings of the word, 'snake,' in the dictionary, is 'an animal with a long thin body and no legs, that often has a poisonous bite' (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*). But connotatively, it could mean somebody or thing that is evil, dangerous or deceitful, depending on shared emotional, cultural or religious associations.

Connotation can be positive or negative depending on the context of use or individual experiences. For example, the word 'sheep' or 'lamb' in a religious context connotes gentility, innocence or harmlessness. But in Igbo cultural context, it connotes stupidity or foolishness.

Note also that language users can deviate from the denotative meaning of words to their connotative meaning in order to create fresher ideas or images. For instance, Mum and Dad when used in

place of mother and father connote loving parents.

To sum up, guidelines for proper word choice and usage cannot be exhausted, as what is appropriate is most of the time determined by subject matter, purpose, audience and context. What is important is the realisation that speech and writing are activities that need proper planning. You do not necessarily engage in them to impress, but to communicate meaningfully. Always choose your words to serve your purpose.

4.1 Conclusion

One of the focal points of every language act is meaningful communication. The need to strive for clarity and avoid confusion or complexity has been the focus of this chapter. First, we have noted that though the flexibility of the English language allows you to choose and use words in different ways, words have their natural homes. Hence, the limiting factors: subject matter, purpose, audience and context should never be overlooked. Second, we have shown that words are like ropes that tie up what we say and write. Forced into the wrong slot they often become distorted and can no longer function effectively. Thus, the guidelines for proper word choice are meant to help you write with confidence, not arrogance.

Overall, we have demonstrated that you need not be afraid to play with words. But be sure to let your audience play along with you.

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THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE REGISTERS

P. O. Ilechukwu

"Words are the keys to ideas, and understanding ideas is the key to successful communication." Norman (1975)

I. Introduction

This chapter exposes one to:

- a) the register of the English language against the vocabulary of everyday usage. This is necessary because
 - i) the English language, which is inevitably the language of personal, pedagogic and other interactional purposes, is a world language which has acquired the richest and the greatest stock of vocabulary;
 - ii) the English language continues to expand its vocabulary in scope, variety and quality to respond to the changes in communication, science and technology; and
 - iii) second language learners, especially those who engage in academic and professional activities should be exposed to the study of register to enable them to keep abreast of the vast and growing vocabulary of the English language.

In addition, the English language continues to expand its vocabulary/register in scope, variety and quality to respond to the ever-increasing challenges of the growing technological innovations in world communication links. New registers/ vocabulary are being created as a matter of necessity. An outstanding example is in the field of computer science where technical jargon such as: *www*, *internet*, *browse*, including slang expressions 'u' for you, '4' for 'for', 'tnx' for thanks, 'dat is y' for that is why, 'gdmng' for good morning, 'crdt' for credit, 'tmr' for tomorrow etc are now in use. Such features show how the needs of the time are exploiting the dynamics of language to achieve specific purposes. Language is a social enterprise that must follow the demands of socialization.

University students should study to keep abreast of the billions of words printed each year – general and technical terms alike. Studies reveal that the average university student in England may have 60,000 words at his command. This ability is not an esoteric activity. You can achieve more by a dint of hard work even as a second language user of English for communication efficiency. Thus according to Norman (1975): "Your ability to communicate – and be communicated with – depends on your control of vocabulary." There is an amazingly high correlation between current intelligence tests and standardized vocabulary tests. Many big corporations use this correlation when testing job applicants.

With all these benefits above and more that accrue from acquiring a rich stock of register in English and also their accurate usage in given settings, whatever energy you expend in the study is worthy of any price. The focus of the study here, however, is on the English Language Registers. There are exercises at the end of the study tested by means of short passages with numbered gaps followed by multiple-choice questions.

II Register In The English Language

The term 'register' can be used in many senses for different meanings. We shall briefly look at each mode of usage before settling on the focus of this study, in order to clear possible confusions.

- i Register may refer to an official list of names of people, events etc or a book that has this list like the official register of births, deaths and marriages.
- ii To officially state your opinion about something so that everyone knows what you think or feel; for example, The referee registered a formal protest against the decisions of the Nigerian Universities Games Association (NUGA) officials on the mode of remunerations for participants.
- iii To notice, realize or remember; for example, Her name did not register when it was first mentioned.
- iv Mail – to send a package, letter, etc; for example, Did you register the parcel?

The last and the most relevant to our study are these which are given below:

The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary vol. 2 defines register as "A variety of a language or a level of usage and especially one determined by degree of formality and choice of vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax etc according to the social context or standing of the user." By this definition, register refers to the totality of language form / style of usage. It encompasses – language skills, ingenuity, literary idiosyncrasy displayed by the speaker or writer in his communication. He demonstrates the level of his mastery of language use through his audience analysis, situation topic and a firm familiarity with choice of words and other language structures to sell his goods without undue interferences.

This is what students are called to analyse in the novel recommended by lecturers – a critical literary appreciation of both the author and the text. Our study centres on the English Language Registers.

This describes a range of language items which one frequently uses when talking about a particular area of human activity. For instance, in the register of the law court and justice, we have the law court, chief justice, adjournment of a case, to serve a sentence, to plead a case and so on (Adelusi, et al 1979).

Also Faulk (1978) says that: "Every profession has its own set of vocabulary, terms that designate concepts and phenomena with which the profession is concerned – used only by a segment of population."

Generally, students encounter enormous variety of words in their course of study and outside of classes; some are familiar to the general English language words whereas others may be terms specific to their subjects and may exclude users who are outside these fields. The latter are known as registers of that specific discipline. They are different from the general vocabulary of everyday usage. In the field of English and Literary Arts, for example, specific registers may include: genre, colloquialism, parallelism, register, irony, epic, euphemism, theatre and many more. These are also known as technical jargons.

III Registers of Various Disciplines – Samples

Below is a list of registers of various fields of study. This is not exhaustive but simply gives one an idea of the divergent nature of these registers. Some of these register items, however, can lend themselves to universal usage.

- **Government and politics**

Democracy, TitulaHead, Totalitarian, manifesto, rigging, campaign, franchise, universal adult suffrage, ballot, registration, inalienable right, constitution, rigid/ flexible constitution, electorate, constituency.

- **Medicine (Health Science)**

Vaccination, stethoscope, casualty, department, body temperature, anti-tetanus, observatory room delirium, cava, blood pressure, ambulance, psychiatry, mental derangement, specimen, Pathological department, deceased, caesarea, surgery, anesthetics, infections, sceptic, wound, autopsy, anaemia, universal donor/Group 'O', diagnosis etc.

- **Broadcasting**

Studio, programmes, tape- recorders, record-players, amplifiers, microphones, sound mixers, intercommunication system, transmitting equipment, signal, radio station, wave length, interference, reception, aerial, distribution networks, relay stations, networks.

- **Ships and Boats**

Vessel, craft, liners, ferries, tankers, cargo vessel, yacht, barges, inland waterways, canals, tugs, harbour trailer, launch, dinghy, rowing-boat, inflatable, shipwreck, launched, beached, capsize, aground, sandbank, cargo, dock, cast-off, oars, paddle, punt, rudder, tiller, helm, propeller/screw, deck, stern, bows, fore and aft, midships, portside, star board side, stow, cabin, bulkhead, porthole, gallery etc.

Registers in English are as numerous as there are diverse fields of knowledge. You can therefore go into more special fields and learn more.

Task I:

1. Attempt a general definition of Register (not in the English language).
2. With illustrations, write twenty registers associated with the computer and electronics disciplines respectively.
3. List 10 registers associated with 2 disciplines of your choice and write 2 sentences with each to bring out their meaning.
4. Distinguish between the English language registers and words of everyday usage. Give examples.
5. Write 10 registers used in your recommended novel and state the special field to which they belong.
6. Some people describe some of the words used in the Holy Bible as archaic. Select 10 words from the scriptures to illustrate this, (Kings James Bible version).

The English Language Register: Usage

"Often, the concept or idea of the word and its general context (where it is used) are as important as its stated definition" (Wassman & Rinsky).

Granted that an accumulation of or familiarity with diverse registers in English gives you an edge in communication over your counterparts, inaccurate usage forms, will mar your communication effectiveness.

According to David Jowitt & Silas Nnamonu (2003), "Careful use of language is one of the prerequisites for successful communication in English at all levels."

Worthy of note are two very important features of English register usage, among many others.

- 1a A word may occur in more than one register with different semantic imports. For example, the word 'court' appears in the registers of:
 - i Law and justice (e.g. the law court)
 - ii Kingship (e.g. King's court)

- iii Games (e.g. Lawn tennis court)
 - iv Favour seeking or love making (e.g., to play ones court to a lady) and other shades of meaning.
- 1b Another is the word 'acute' as used in:
 - i mathematics (e.g., an acute angle is less than 90° (degrees) obtuse.
 - ii English /Adjective - intensifier (e.g. an acute problem - of seriousness.
 - iii Senses (e.g., acute senses of sight, hearing, taste, which means very good and sensitive as in: young children have a particular acute sense of smell).

The right meaning of the word or a group of words is to be determined by the context. ie other words in the environment where it is used. The effective use of some of these registers listed above is tested in the exercises that follow.

Task II.

ONE: For each question, choose from the list of expressions A to E the one that best fills the gap:

A – 1 – produces and transmits its programmes made in its own - 2 -. In addition, many services obtain recorded -3 - from other broadcasting organizations and - 4 – them for their - 5 -.

A	B	C	D	E
1. features	reception	transfusion	broadcasting	studio
2. studios	reception	controls	stations	network
3. voices	news	programmes	networks	stations
4. despatch	transmit	feature	signal	tune
5. sets	receives	media	stations	wavelengths

TWO: African governments recognize the importance of radio as a - 6 – of mass - 7 -, as do the governments of countries outside Africa who wish to try and influence African - 8 – in one way or another. Thirty-four countries outside the continent have external - 9 – directed specifically to the African listener and fourteen African countries have their own - 10 – services for listeners in neighbouring states. (Adapted from: *Journal of the Royal Common Wealth Society*, February 1972).

A	B	C	D	E
6. mode	manner	sort	modicum	medium
7. service	communication	propaganda	control	censorship
8. listener	pick-ups	radios	receivers	receptionists
9. media	services	stations	studios	receivers
10. external	outside	relay	studios	alien

THREE: The library is an important – 1 – of knowledge. It is an – 2 – collection of books and other audio-visual – 3 – such as films, records, tapes, video cassettes and phonographs among others. To be able to use libraries effectively, – 4 – needs to understand – 5 – which library organizations employ. Some of these include – 6 – and – 7 –.

Classification schemes bring books or library materials on related – 8 – together. They introduce order in the – 9 – of library materials and facilitate the – 10 – of such materials within the library.

The catalogue is another useful – 11 – for library user which gives him basic and vital – 12 – about a given library material.

	A	B	C	D
1.	warehouse	building	storehouse	bookshelf
2.	official	approved	organized	establish
3.	materials	instruments	objects	apparatus
4.	a user	a writer	an assistant	employee
5.	information	aids	equipment	signs
6.	encyclopaedias	call number	cards	classification schemes
7.	cataloguing	labelling	exhibitions	publications
8.	views	ideas	subjects	matters
9.	station	arrangement	distribution	labelling
10.	control	call	catalogue	location
11.	compass	method	tool	process
12.	information	news	figures	histor.

Task III.

State in the boxes provided the various disciplines / fields to which the group of registers belongs.

1. Thinning, fallow, hybrid, grafting, herbicides, gestation [].
2. Polyandry, logos, totamism, wholistic approach, anomy, sociometrics, cultural diffusion [].

3. Maladjustment, schizophrenia, amnesia, psychotics, neurotics, endomorphy, mesomorphy [].
4. Equilibrium, consumer goods, inflation, elasticity, Malthusian theory, demand and supply curve, scale of preference [].
5. Black and white, View-finder, developing, blurred, a telephone lens, image, illumination, [].

Conclusion:

The biggest task for a speaker or writer in the English language or any other language for that matter is the selection of appropriate vocabulary/register in desired situations and purposes. This you can achieve by being a voracious reader; you would notice that in due time you would acquire a feel for the language, able to use many registers with little or no formal serious studies.

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Chapter Nine

LISTENING SKILLS

C. P. Nwankwo, V. O. Eze & C. C. Ezekwesili

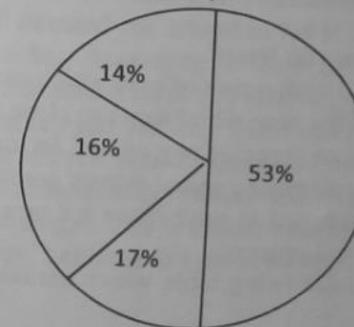
“We can’t learn when our mouth is flapping. We build trust by learning and to learn we must listen.” Anon

1.1 Introduction

After working through this chapter the student should be able to define listening, identify its types and levels, recognize faulty listening behaviour and the factors that affect listening comprehension, as well as overcome challenges they face in various listening situations.

Listening is an important skill in learning. It is the foundation on which the other three language skills – speaking, reading, and writing – are built. In fact, the Toronto Star (2002) carried a report which claims that we have learned 85 percent of what we know by listening. Yet, we tend to take listening for granted.

If frequency is a measure of importance, then listening also easily qualifies as the most prominent kind of communication. We spend more time listening to others than in any other type of communication. One study revealed that of their total communicating time, university students spend an average of 14 percent writing, 16 percent speaking, 17 percent reading, and a whopping 53 percent listening (Adler and Radman 2000: 110).



Distribution of students' time between the four language skills

Your success as a student in an institution of higher learning is dependent to a considerable extent on how you listen. If your attention is not focused on what is being said in class, the words that are spoken fall on deaf ears. No doubt you have talked to persons who only gave you part of their attention. No matter how often they agreed with you, you know that they were not really getting the point and so were not benefiting from what you said. This is called pseudo listening.

Language acquisition first starts with listening. Human beings as infants listen to the words and sentences spoken around them before trying to imitate them. Listening is regarded as a receptive skill alongside reading. This is because they involve the process of receiving information from a source or sources. One who is receiving information has to listen very well in order to comprehend the message. Much valuable information has been lost and many blunders committed just for the simple fact that some people have not listened when they should have. The school system is a fertile ground for listening. Education involves the transfer of information from the teacher to the learner. The learner must listen in order to learn.

Exercise 1

Now let us begin by answering some questions:

- What can you hear?
- Is hearing the same thing as listening?
- What is listening?

1.2 What can you hear?

You are endowed with a pair of ears which cannot be closed at will like the eyes and the nose which you can close when you do not want to see something or perceive any odour. As long as you do not have any auditory impairment, sound waves constantly enter your ears where they are carried to your brain for processing. Hearing is an automatic physical process.

Now, study the following table which contains some of the things people hear:

a. Music	h. shuffling	o. swishing	v. humming
b. Animal sound	i. Hammering	p. trickling	w. droning
c. Voices	j. smashing	q. ticking	x. explosions
d. Rustling of leaves	k. hacking	r. brushing	y. drizzling
e. Vehicles passing by	l. clattering	s. whizzing	z. hitting
f. Horns	m. booming	t. slithering	
g. Whistling	n. clanging	u. revving	

1.3 Is hearing the same thing as listening?

Exercise 2: Now read this:

Chikwendu and Nneoma are sitting in the classroom. The lecturer is talking to them. Chikwendu is looking at the lecturer. Nneoma talks to Chikwendu. She gets no response from him. She prods him on the shoulder. Chikwendu turns and asks, "What were you saying?" Nneoma gets annoyed and turns her face away.

Why did Chikwendu fail to respond to Nneoma's request?

Chikwendu failed to respond to Nneoma's request because his attention was focused on what the lecturer was saying. He was receiving, constructing, analysing and trying to retain the information coming from the lecturer. All his senses were turned towards a particular stimulus shutting off the rest. Although he hears some sound from Nneoma, he could not assess it because his brain was actively processing another sound.

From the explanation above you can see that there is a significant difference between hearing and listening. A lot of sound filter into our ears and demand our attention but it is not everything we hear that we remember. According to Cook (1981:3), 'Tests of retention have shown that after a three day interval, people recall: 10 per cent of information relayed verbally (received by listening), 20 per cent of information relayed visually (received by seeing), and 65 per cent of information relayed both verbally and visually. (Received by both listening and seeing)'. This is a clear indication that most of what we hear filter away. Let us at this point attempt to differentiate hearing from listening.

- Hearing is an unconscious process while listening is a conscious activity except when one reacts involuntarily to an intruding sound in the environment.
- Hearing is simply the act of receiving sound waves while listening is the process of receiving, processing, retaining, and comprehending aural stimuli, which are decoded and appreciated as messages.

The brain does not always interpret or store all the sounds that you hear. It selects the heard sounds only when you attach importance to them by listening.

Exercise 3: Make a list of four things you hear at the following places:

PLACE	WHAT I CAN HEAR
At home	-----
At the market	-----
At church	-----
At lectures	-----
At dinner	-----
At clubs or parties	-----
At discussion with your friends	-----

1.4. What is listening?

International Listening Association (Pearson 2003:133) defines listening as 'the active process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. It involves the ability to retain information as well as to react empathically and/or appreciatively to spoken and/or nonverbal messages'. Listening comprehension is not only about paying attention in order to receive information but also embodies the ability to process the information, assimilate it, interpret it, react to it and yet retain it to be used in future.

Our reaction to the information received can be outwardly (overt) or inwardly (covert). Listening has, therefore, been defined as "attending to a message fully with the aim of constructing a

coherent interpretation" (Anderson and Lynch 1988). So listening can be seen as hearing with thoughtful attention.

The human brain prioritizes needs and selects the type of attention to give to each listening situation. You are endowed with voluntary/selective attention and involuntary/automatic attention capability. You engage in voluntary/selective attention when you pay attention to an important stimulus while blocking off the unimportant ones. Psychologists call this 'Figure and Ground'. You give utmost attention to the things that concern you and mentally shift those that do not concern you. You engage in automatic listening when you are compelled to listen to sound that intrudes in the environment where it had not been before. For instance, you listen to the sound of your name being called, sound of alarm, loud singing which you cannot ignore. In each case, the reaction is automatic. Automatic listening comes with a change in the sound you have been experiencing before.

Exercise 4

Now that we have established that there is a difference between hearing and listening,

- Can you attempt to write down the situations in life when you set out to listen?
- What are the two ways you can approach listening in a teaching- learning situation?
- What are your purposes for listening?

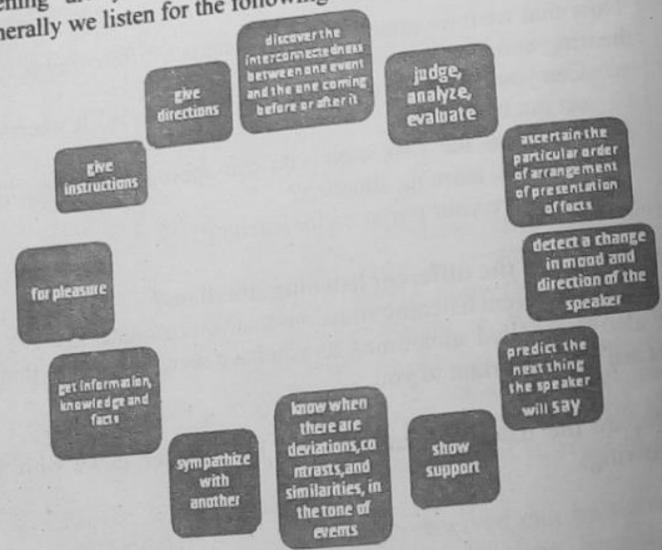
1.5. What are the different listening situations?

There are different listening situations that you encounter in life. You are also compelled sometimes, as you have seen, to listen to things that are not important to you.

Compare the listening situations you have written down with the following:

- | | | |
|---|--|-------------------------------|
| a. Religious worship | h. audio programmes | r. commercials and propaganda |
| b. Family interactions | i. audio visual programmes | s. requests |
| c. Conversation among friends and social groups | j. music and entertainment | t. debates |
| d. Work and political Mandating | k. lectures or discussions | u. workshop |
| e. Directions | l. guidance and counseling | v. social clubs |
| f. Greetings | m. oral examinations/interview | w. symposia |
| g. Listening to oneself | n. occasions/celebration or condolence | x. conference |
| | o. announcement conversation | y. talks |
| | p. telephone | z. meetings |
| | q. inaugural and valedictory speeches | |

1.6 What are the different purposes for listening?
 When you listen, you have a purpose for listening. Your purpose for listening always determines the kind of listening you adopt. Generally we listen for the following reasons:



- To discover the interconnectedness between one event and the one coming before or after it: When someone is making a presentation you listen to find out links that connect one event with another. Sentences connect with one another to show additions, similarities, contrasts, results, causes, etc.
- To judge, analyse, evaluate: People listen to judge, analyse and evaluate the speaker or the information given. This usually involves critical listening. Situations like lectures, interviews, seminars, workshops, conferences call for this type of purpose.
- To ascertain the particular order of arrangement of the presentation of facts: people listen in order to find out the manner in which the speaker presented his facts. The order of presentation could be chronological, outline or question and answer frame. The purpose of this is to help the listener understand the fact in a linear manner so as to enhance comprehension and recall. Words like, 'to begin with, again, firstly, secondly, then, etc indicate the ways facts are listed.
- To detect a change in mood and direction of the speaker: Some people may listen for the purpose of detecting a change in the mood and direction of the speaker. This happens most in interpersonal relationship. This is done to find out the state of mind of the speaker. By listening to a person, one can easily find out if the person is happy, angry, excited, confused, afraid, tense, stressed up, lonely, prejudiced, dejected, traumatized. People's emotion, most often, show in their voice and a good listener does not fail to detect this and know the direction of thought of the speaker. It is the mood of the speaker that tells you whether to offer your sympathy, advice, and help or to simply leave the speaker alone.
- To predict the next thing the speaker will say: A lot of people can fill the gaps created by people when they pause in the

course of their speech. This is because people tend to repeat themselves when they speak and this gives the listener a clue as to what the speaker will say next. People listen to make predictions of the next thing the speaker will say. If what they predict is worthwhile listening is sustained and comprehension becomes easier. They can also make deductions into what were left unsaid.

- f. To show support: You can listen to someone primarily to show support. People speak to us to solicit our support especially those who are vying for positions or authority. In politics, people hold rallies where they speak to people and state their manifestos and beg for our support.
- g. To know when there are deviations, contrasts, similarities in the tone of events: People listen to study what others are saying in order to find out the areas of differences and similarities in the tone of event. Lawyers, judges, policemen, secret agents listen for this purpose. Their intentions are usually to establish facts and discover truth and falsehood.
- h. To give sympathy: Listening is sometimes done to offer a sort of therapy to those who are in emotional trouble. A friend who is bereaved or who has a problem at work or at home may seek you out to tell you his problem. In such an instance he may need you to respond to his speech or to just give him a listening ear. We may show our support by body language, facial expressions or by simply making meaningful noise like mmm, ahhh, oh, eh or even grunts to show that we are listening and in sympathy with what they are telling us.
- i. To get information, knowledge and facts: Listening is mostly done to get information, knowledge and facts. When we listen at lectures, our aims are mostly to learn that which we have not known before. We listen to news in the media, advertisement, conferences, workshops, inaugurals, etc to gain more information, knowledge and facts.

- j. For Pleasure: Our purpose for listening may be just to derive pleasure. When we are involved in such listening we enjoy the aesthetic nature of what we are listening to. We appreciate the message and the way they are delivered. Examples are when we listen to some music or comedian works.
- k. For instruction: We listen when we are being instructed on how to carry out a task. We pay adequate attention to get the details of instruction and understand it in order to execute it accurately.
- l. For direction: People listen to get the direction to where they are going. When somebody is giving you a direction to a certain destination, you listen attentively to grasp the information given to you.

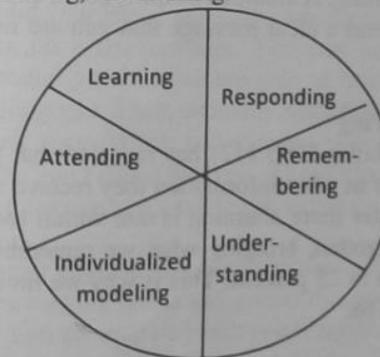
1.7 What are the characteristics of listening?

Exercise 5

Make a list of what you consider to be the characteristics and nature of listening. Compare your list with the following.

Characteristics of Listening

There are six characteristics of listening that clearly distinguish it from hearing: attending, understanding, responding, remembering, individualized modeling, and learning.



a. Attending

Attending means paying attention to a signal. An individual's needs, wants, desires, and interests determine what he attends to or selects. If you are hungry, you are more likely to attend to the message about restaurants in the neighbourhood from the person next to you, than to the competing message on the importance of communication from the lecturer on the podium.

b. Understanding

Another characteristic of listening is understanding. That is the process of making sense of a message. Various ingredients combine to make understanding possible: a grasp of the syntax of the language being spoken, semantic decoding, and knowledge of the pragmatic rules that help you to figure out a speaker's meaning from the context (Alder R and Rodman G. 2000). As early as 1948, Ralph Nicholas related successful understanding to a large number of factors, most prominent of which were verbal ability, intelligence, and motivation. One cannot listen successfully without understanding.

c. Responding

This characteristic of listening includes more than verbal response. It means giving feedback to the speaker. The feedback may be non-verbal such as leaning forward toward the speaker, making eye contact, or reacting with appropriate questions, exchanging ideas, head nodding, etc. Conversely, some responses demonstrate less successful listening. A slumped posture, bored expression, yawning, and sleeping send a clear message that you are not tuned in to the speaker.

d. Remembering

Research (Nicholas 2003:112) has revealed that people remember only about half of what information they receive at listening. What makes the matter more alarming is that within two months, half of the half is forgotten, bringing what we remember of the original message down to 25 percent. This is why we must pay attention to what we listen to.

e. Individualized Modeling

This characteristic of listening accounts for the fact that all listeners do not receive the same message. When two or more people are listening to a speaker, they understand or decode the message according to varying factors such as physiological factors, social roles, cultural background, personal interest, and needs. The factors shape the raw material we listen to into uniquely different messages.

f. Learning

Many people have the misconception that listening is like breathing, a natural activity that all people do well barring illness, injury, or earplugs. The truth is that listening is a skill much like other skills – teaching, plumbing, speaking, writing, etc. However, like speaking, everybody does it, though, few people do it well. The good news though is that listening can be improved through instruction and training. Research (Neville 1985: 122) has shown that listening is not something we can master once and for all, early in life. Listening skills may continue to develop over a long period of time.

1.8 Kinds of listening

Now, before we examine kinds of listening, do the following exercise:

Exercise 6

Imagine yourself in a lecture room waiting for the commencement of lecture. You and your friend are seated among other students and you are carrying on a conversation. You can hear other people discussing all around you but you are able to hear distinctly what your friend is telling you. Then, suddenly something crashes on the floor. You cut off your speech and channel your attention to the sudden sound. Can you explain the type of listening you were giving to your friend and the one you gave to the sudden sound of a crash?

Now, compare your explanation with the one below

Your brain prioritizes your needs and selects the type of attention to give to each one. You are endowed with voluntary/selective attention and involuntary/automatic attention capability. You engage in

voluntary/selective attention when you pay attention to an important stimulus while blocking off the unimportant ones. Psychologists call this 'Figure and Ground'. You give utmost attention to the things that concern you and mentally shift those that do not concern you. You engage in automatic listening when you are compelled to listen to sound that intrudes in the environment where it had not been before. For instance, you listen to the sound of your name being called, sound of alarm, loud singing which you cannot ignore. In each case, the reaction is automatic. Automatic listening comes with a change in the sound you have been experiencing before.

When you are faced with real life situations of listening, you discover that you are bound to adopt different kinds of listening to suit your purposes for listening and help you meet with your objectives.

There are eight types of listening namely:

- (1) Interactional listening
- (2) Secondary listening
- (3) Aesthetic listening
- (4) Creative listening
- (5) Transactional listening
- (6) Purposeful listening
- (7) Critical listening
- (8) Empathic listening

In the academic context, we are concerned mainly with types (5), (6), (7) and sometimes with type (2).

1. Interactional Listening

This is the type that occurs between friends in face-to-face or telephone conversation. It is also called social listening. Here, speech perception is high and our whole attention is focused on the meaning the speaker is trying to convey rather than on the language and other sounds he may be producing. Listening during a discussion is, in certain respects, like sharing in a conversation. To benefit fully, listen carefully. Observe the direction in which the discussion is moving and follow accordingly.

2. Secondary Listening

This is the type that occurs when we listen to a radio or television programme. One distinguishing feature of this type of listening is that it is one-way. It is also called non-reciprocal listening. Emphasis is both on speech perception and interpretation.

3. Aesthetic Listening

This type of listening occurs when we listen for enjoyment or in appreciation of a message as in listening to music, drama, story, or poetry reading. Here, emphasis is more on speech perception than on interpretation. Another name for aesthetic listening is appreciative listening.

4. Creative Listening

This is listening which inspires creativity. Here, the listener tries to recreate a situation after listening to it. It requires a high level of both listening perception and listening interpretation because a situation or context may have explicit and implicit components. If these are not comprehended during the listening session the listener will not be able to recreate it. He will not have the inspiration to do so.

5. Transactional Listening

This is listening which searches for new information. It is also called informational listening. This is the kind of listening that takes place in the classroom. Here, listening perception and interpretation are equally important as the listener is keyed up to explore new areas and increase his knowledge of the subject matter. He is better equipped if he has sufficient background knowledge which will help him process information fast enough. Here, also, ability to carry out instruction is evidence of successful listening.

6. Purposeful Listening

This type of listening for specific information is called purposeful listening, comprehensive listening or informational listening. This is listening with a specific intention. Here, the focus is on the content of the message. You are interested in getting information, which you wish to utilize for a given purpose. You are not listening to pass

judgment or to argue about the authenticity or otherwise of what you are listening to but to learn from the message. You may be required to give a feedback of what you have learnt from the message. You can provide a verbal or non-verbal response to the speaker to either indicate a positive or negative response to the message especially when there is a gap in assimilation. Instances of this type of listening are: lectures, inaugural speeches, workshops, advertisements, directions, instructions, announcements, talks, etc.

7. Critical Listening

Whereas the goal of transactional listening is to understand the speaker, the objective of critical listening (also called evaluative/active listening) is to judge the quality of a message in order to decide whether to accept or reject it. It involves evaluating an idea to test its merit. Critical listening is appropriate when someone is trying to persuade you to buy a product, to act in a certain way, to accept a belief, to join a group, etc. Occasions for this type of listening are: debates, law suits, mediations, symposiums, seminars, committee meetings, political rallies, etc.

8. Empathic Listening

We listen both transactionally and critically out of self-interest. In empathic listening, however, the goal is to build a relationship or help the speaker solve a problem. Empathic listening is the approach to use when others seek help or consolation for personal dilemmas. Sometimes the problem is a big one "I don't know whether to split up or stay with him." In other cases the dilemma is more modest. A friend may be trying to decide what birthday gift to buy or whether to switch jobs. Empathic listening is also a good approach to take when you simply want to become better acquainted with others, and show them that their opinions and feelings matter to you. Examples of situations of this type of listening are: sympathizing or consoling a friend in need or bereaved, receiving guidance and counseling, etc.

Exercise 7

Now read the following and match the occasion with the kind of listening.

Occasion	Kinds of Listening
Linus has just lost his wristwatch. He spends the whole morning searching for it. Agbo walks in through the door and Linus on sighting him begin to narrate his ordeal.	-----
Okon is the last to enter the already filled lecture hall. He finds a seat and sits down. The teacher walks through the door and the lecture commences.	-----
The barrister turns towards the accused. He asks him a question and he starts to explain what happened.	-----
Kingsley has just returned from lecture, he felt so tired. He turns towards his stereo and presses the play button.	-----

1.9 Factors That Affect Listening

There are four main factors that affect listening in the classroom: the listener, the speaker, the environment, and the topic/message.

1. The Listener

The state of the listener affects listening effectiveness. The listener's state can be sub-divided into: psychological, physiological, and intellectual.

a. Psychological

The first important psychological tool for effective listening is motivation. For listening to come naturally, the listener must be highly motivated. He must have a worthwhile purpose, a need, a noble objective for which he is listening. Passing examination is a general motive but it is often too far from the initial listening situations to provide immediate motivation lecture after lecture. So

other shorter term purposes like listening to get the main points, to gather new information, to get answers to questions raised before listening etc are more effective motivators. Conversely, fear, anger, anxiety, low or no motivation all reduce listening effectiveness.

Attitudes and values are also part of the psychological factors that affect listening effectiveness. A student with a lackadaisical attitude to work will make a poor listener; so will one who has no value for good quality education. If a student's values are not in favour of intellectual excellence he will be a poor listener in class.

Furthermore, social scientists (Shaft 2002:100) observe that people have different listening styles. Some are people oriented listeners and like to hear all the details surrounding a story. Others are action-oriented listeners who want the speaker to get to the point. This is also a psychological factor.

b. Physiological State

The listener's physiological state includes the presence or absence of hearing defects, drowsiness resulting from fatigue, poor weather condition, or heavy feeding just before the session, age, or illness. Students should see that they maintain a high level of physical fitness at least during school sessions by promptly checking any unusual hearing/health problems, maintaining good habits of eating, sleeping, and social life, and engaging in physical/fitness exercises.

c. Intellectual State

The listener's intellectual state is a strong factor determining listening efficiency. This includes age/maturation and readiness. Readiness on the other hand refers to the level of intellectual awareness about the topic with which the listener enters the listening situation. Is he equipped with the necessary background material for processing the information given? Does he have a good command of the language in which the lecture is given? Is he familiar with the basic concepts under-lying the lecture? And finally, is he prepared to release his full mental energy to get involved in the lecture? A negative answer to any of these questions will prove to be an impediment to effective listening. Experience and habit are also part

of a listener's intellectual armor. One who is used to listening in the past will do better than one who is not.

2 The Speaker

In the context of lectures, the speaker is the teacher. Many qualities in the speaker serve to inhibit or enhance listening efficiency. These are delivery, proximity, accessibility of vocabulary, knowledge of the subject matter, perceived motivation and intent, status, and familiarity.

a. Delivery

A speaker's voice may be weak, shrill, raspy, or hoarse. A whining voice, a nasal tone, or a gruff type of voice is not listened to with pleasure or understanding; and a flat, lifeless tone inspires no one. Any of the above weaknesses in a teacher's voice inhibits listening and constitutes a barrier which the speaker and his listeners must try to overcome.

b. Proximity

A speaker's distance from his audience also affects listening effectiveness. A speaker who is far from his audience will create more room for mind wandering than one who is close to them. It is even advisable for a lecturer in a large class to move around in the midst of the class or use a microphone.

c. Accessibility of Vocabulary: This is to say that a speaker who is fond of big words will make listening difficult.

d. Knowledge of Subject Matter: A speaker who is not in control of his subject matter turns off his listeners. He often lacks confidence and poise and resorts to fillers like ehm...ehh, etc.

e. Perceived Motivation and Intent: Motivation is contagious. If a speaker is enthusiastic about his material his audience will feel the same. But if he is apathetic and gives the impression of just fulfilling a role it will be difficult for his audience to have enough motivation to listen effectively. The speaker's

motivation or lack of it is perceived in his manner of delivery. By animated delivery a speaker gives evidence to pay close attention to what he is saying. Facial expression, gestures, and voice quality all reflect the way a speaker feels about his subject and his audience.

f. Status: The status, power, and authority of a speaker directly affect the way his audience listens to him. Students are less likely to divert attention away from the speaker if he is their dean or a professor in their department. Conversely speakers of lower status must work harder to command the same level of attention.

g. Familiarity: Students tend to take some lecturers for granted due to misconceived or real familiarity. If there is a dignified distance between a lecturer and his students it enhances listening. That is why permissiveness and immorality in or out of the classroom must be discouraged. Nonetheless, a visiting lecturer will naturally elicit higher listening efficiency from a class.

3. The Environment: The physical environment includes the sitting arrangement, the accommodation, the number of students, and the presence or absence of noise.

a. Sitting Arrangement: There are different types of sitting arrangements which enhance or impede listening due to their acoustic implications. In auditoriums, sitting arrangements maximize acoustic principles; so no matter how far from the speaker one may sit, one can hear with ease. Regular classrooms are not so designed; and as students, you can hardly have a say in the matter of sitting arrangement. But you can come early and choose a seat close enough to the speaker to permit you to listen effectively. Hanging outside or standing behind are barriers to listening since they cause physical discomfort.

b. The accommodation: This refers, one, to the space available relative to the number of people; and two, to the ventilation, tidiness, and orderliness of the space. Most institutions in Nigeria have accommodation problem and students have had to

resort to all manner of strategies to get fairly suitable accommodation in which to listen to lectures. By and large, when you belong to a class where accommodation is a problem all you can do is to be early to class. This gives you a head start over others.

c. The Number of Students: Large classes are typical in our higher institutions and are difficult to manage. Students in a large class have to adopt survival strategies. One, bend your mental span by priming yourself for the lecture through pre-reading of the topic to be treated. Two, intensify your attentiveness by deliberately ignoring the presence of others. Focus on the teacher imagining that he is speaking directly to you. Three, ask questions if you fail to understand any point, do not be shy. Four, resist the mob spirit which is usually negative.

d. Noise: Noise is a term used by social scientists to describe forces that interfere with effective communication. They use the term to cover external, physiological, and psychological disturbances. But here we are concerned with factors outside the receivers control that make it difficult for the receiver to listen, as well as many other kinds of distractions. There are broadly two categories of noise: psychological noise and physical noise.

- **Psychological Noise:** These are personal concerns that are of more immediate importance to us than the messages others are sending. For example, it is hard to pay attention to a lecture in one course when you are anticipating an upcoming test in another course or thinking about the wonderful time you had last night with friends or wondering how you can make your money last till the end of the week. Yet, we feel we have to listen politely to others or even that we are obligated to listen to our lectures, and so we continue with our charade. It usually takes a conscious effort to set aside your personal concerns if you expect to give other speakers, especially your teachers, the attention they deserve.

- **Physical Noise:** The world often presents distractions that make it hard to pay attention to others. The sound of traffic, music, others' speech interferes with our ability to listen well. Also fatigue or other forms of discomfort distract us from paying attention to a speaker. Consider, for example, how the efficiency of your listening decreases when you are seated in a crowded, hot, stuffy room that is surrounded by traffic and other noises. In such circumstances, even the best intentions are not enough to ensure clear understanding. You can listen better by insulating yourself from outside distractions. This may involve removing the sources of noise: turning off the television, shutting the book you are reading, closing the window, and so on. In some cases you and the speaker may find a more hospitable place to speak in order to make listening work. This may involve changing lecture venues.

4. The Message/Topic

The topic or message of a lecturer or a talk is another major factor influencing the level of attention listeners give to it. The elements under this heading are: channel, organization and grammatical cum linguistic rules.

- a. **Channel:** A lecture can be delivered through several channels. These include tape recorders, video players, in person with or without a microphone. Each channel reduces or increases listening efficiency. Listening to a tape recorded lecture poses a high level of difficulty because the extra visual resources vital for accurate communication are lost. A video tape, though artificial, produces better results because the audience can look at the speaker, taking cues from his non-verbal expressions. Lecture given in person without a microphone harnesses visual resources and may be very effective acoustically if it is an average, or small sized class and if the voice quality of the speaker is high. Speaking in person with a microphone produces the highest level of listening efficiency because it is listener friendly. No matter the class size, the listener does not have to strain to hear the speaker, yet he also sees him. The listener may even interrupt the speaker to ask questions or contribute ideas.

- b. **Organization:** A well organized lecture/talk where main points stand out and illustrations and details are clear and enlightening is listener friendly. Conversely, a disorganized, haphazard lecture will likely leave most listeners confused no matter their level of heed or interest.

- c. **Grammatical cum Linguistic Rules:** A speaker that has a poor command of the grammar of the language in which he is speaking is the worst distraction a listener may contend with. For one thing, breaking rules of grammar often leads to ambiguity or outright contradictions and equivocations. For another, they create automatic laughter which instantly distracts the conscientious listener. It is therefore a virtue in a speaker to take time and confirm his grammar before addressing an audience.

Exercise 8

1. Throughout this week make a note of all the factors for and against listening effectiveness in all the lectures you attend. Compare your notes with those of others in your study group. Do this from time to time. It will create listening consciousness in you.

2. Can you identify whether you are a people – oriented listener or an action – oriented listener? Have a friend tell you how he spent his day. Then judge how bored or interested you were while listening to the details. If you were engrossed with the details then you are a people-oriented listener, but if bored you are an action-oriented listener.

1.10 Reasons for Poor Listening

There are six reasons for poor listening some of which can be avoided and others which are sad but inescapable facts of life.

- 1 **Lack of Effort:** Listening effectively is hard work. The physical changes that take place during listening show the effort it takes. Heart rate quickens, respiration increases, and body temperature rises (Nichols 1987: 40). Notice that these changes are similar to the body's reaction to physical effort. This is no coincidence, for listening carefully to a speaker

can be just as taxing as other physical activities. You can manage the effort that is required to listen well if you prepare yourself for the task.

2. **Rapid Thought:** Listening carefully is also difficult for psychological reasons. Although we are capable of understanding speech at rates of up to 300 words per minute (Orr 1967: 223), the average person speaks between 100 and 140 words per minute. Thus, we have a great deal of mental spare time to spend while someone is talking. And the temptation is to use this time in ways that do not relate to the speaker's idea, such as thinking about personal interests, day dreaming, planning a rebuttal, and so on. The trick is to use this spare time to understand the speaker's ideas better rather than letting your attention wander. Try to rephrase the speaker's ideas in your own words. Ask yourself how the ideas might be useful to you. Consider other angles that the speaker might not have mentioned.

3. **Message Overload:** The amount of speech most of us encounter everyday makes careful listening to everything we hear impossible. As we have already seen, many of us spend as much as one-third of the time we are awake listening to verbal messages – from teachers, co-students, friends, family, sales people, preachers, and total strangers. This means that we often spend five hours or more each day listening to people talk. If you add this to the amount of time we tune in radio and television, you can see that it is impossible for us to keep our attention totally focused for this amount of time. Therefore, we have to let our attention wander at times, but not when we are in class. If you can consciously decide which messages are worth your attention, you can devote the time it takes to understand them.

4. **Hearing Problem:** Sometimes a person's listening ability suffers from a physiological hearing problem. Once a hearing problem has been diagnosed, it is often possible to treat it.

The real tragedy occurs when a hearing problem goes undetected. In such cases, both the people with the defect and others become frustrated and annoyed at the ineffective communications that result. If you suspect that you, or someone you know, suffer from a hearing problem, it is wise to have a physician or audiologist perform an examination.

5. **Faulty Assumptions:** We often make incorrect assumptions that lead us to believe that quite the opposite of what we have been told is true. If the subject is a familiar one, it is easy to think that you have heard it all before when, in fact, the speaker is offering new information. A related problem arises if you assume that the speaker's thoughts are too simple or obvious to deserve careful attention, when the truth is that you ought to be listening carefully. At other times, just the opposite occurs: you think that other's comments are too complex to be possibly understood (as in some lectures) so you give up trying to make sense of them. Another mistake people often make is to assume that a subject is unimportant and to stop paying attention when they ought to be listening carefully.

A final faulty assumption is that talking has more advantages than listening. It often appears that we have more to gain by speaking than by listening. Whatever the goal – to have a prospective boss hire you, to convince others to vote for the candidate of your choice, or to describe the way you want your hair cut – the key to success seems to be ability to speak well. Another apparent advantage of speaking is the chance it gives to gain the admiration or liking of others or so you may think. Tell jokes, and everyone may think you are a real wit. Offer advice, and they may be grateful for your help. Tell them all you know they could be impressed by your wisdom. While speaking at the right time can lead people to appreciate you, talking too much can result in a kind of stage hogging. One study revealed a difference between male and female interrupters. Men typically interrupted conversations far

... than women. Their goals were usually to control the discussion. Women interrupted for very different reasons, to communicate agreement, to elaborate on the speaker's idea, or to participate in the topic of conversation (Mulac et al 1988: 315). The latter sorts of response are more likely to be welcomed as contributions to the discussion, and not as attempts to grab the stage.

6. **Media Influences:** A final challenge to serious listening is the influence of contemporary mass media – television, radio, and cellular phones. A growing amount of programmes consist of short segments: news items, commercials, music videos, and so on. In the same vein, news stories (for example NTA news) consist of brief stories with declining portion of text and a growing amount of graphical information. Cellular phones encourage telegraphic messages to save costs. These trends discourage the kind of focused attention that is necessary for careful listening, especially to complicated ideas and feelings.

1.11 What can you do to promote effective listening?

To be able to listen effectively you should cultivate the following listening culture:

1. Make sure you have a purpose fixed in mind before listening: Anyone who sets out to listen must have a purpose for listening. As you listen remember that there is something you aim to achieve by listening. Keep that firmly in mind and do not allow anything to distract you from achieving your objective.
2. Ensure that you have some background information about the message you are going to listen to: If you had a pre-information about the topic you are going to listen to, ensure that you read up materials on the topic so that when you listen, the language and concepts discussed will not be strange to you. Reading extensively will also help you get familiar with a variety of registers that will help you get

acquainted with many topics that may be rendered in impromptu speeches or discussions.

3. Eliminate every distraction that will prevent you from focusing your mind on the message. Take care of all your physical and emotional problems that might distract you from paying attention. Come to lecture halls early and find a seat in a strategic position where you will see your lecturer well. The paralinguistic features you observe from your lecturers will go a long way in making you understand the lecture. All emotional problems should be settled before you commence listening.
4. Focus all your attention on the message: Channel all your interest on the speech so that you will learn more. Do not let your mind wander about. Find something in the speech to hold your interest, for example the language, the tone, etc. Do not allow others to distract you. If your friends distract you, sit as much distance away from them as possible.
5. Look for meaning in the message: Try to elicit meaning from the speech. Read the line (denotatively) and between the line (connotatively). Concentrate on the message and not on the speaker. Let neither the speaker's mode of dressing nor his mannerism distract you from listening. Overlook his deficiencies. In every speech there is something to learn.
6. Relate what you hear to your background knowledge: Try to find meeting points, i.e. unity between what you hear and what you already know. When you receive fresh information, try to relate it to a similar one you know in the past. Endeavour to find out the areas of differences and similarities and make deductions from there. Learning by association helps people learn faster and helps in the retention of facts.
7. Take- notes: Note-taking is an effective way of remembering what you hear. Jot down important points and a brief explanation of them. Jot down unfamiliar words and be ready

to look them up in the dictionary later. Write down relevant quotations, striking sentences used by the speaker to be used later. If there are things you don't understand, note them down and construct the questions to ask after the speech or lecture. Use abbreviations to make writing faster.

8. Do not draw a cognitive closure immediately after the instructional closure until you have read over and ruminated on the message: Do not be quick to conclude on matters you have heard until you have examined the facts and figures. This is because speeches are not like written texts which you can read over again to understand what you didn't. You cannot invite the speaker to say all over again what he had said because in the course of his speech, he uses different methods to express himself. He may not even remember all the sentences he had used. It therefore becomes important that you think over all that had been said before drawing conclusions.
9. Try to match words with facts and read more about what you have listened to, and then draw conclusion or judgment on the message.
10. Avoid prejudice: Do not be biased against the speaker. Ignore the speaker's mannerism and concentrate on the message. Do not judge the speaker in terms of religion, tribe, educational background, or political inclination. It is bad habit to interrupt people when they are speaking simply because you don't believe what they are saying because of what you know about them. Always see a listening event as an opportunity to grow.

Conclusion

This chapter has emphasized the need to be a good listener. This fact agrees with the idea that God gave us two ears and one mouth so that we can listen twice more than we speak. Application of the principles enunciated above will enhance listening and promote understanding and meaningful socio-cultural relationship as well as enable you to be a good student.

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Chapter Ten

PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

Bessy U. Inoma & Happiness Amadi

Introduction

Human beings communicate through meaningful sounds and graphic symbols. Although they make many other non-meaningful sounds such as hand clapping, crying, coughing, sneezing and throat clearing, they are very different from the sounds that actually make up human language(s).

It then follows that the one subject which we must study if we want to know how language works is sound – the sort of sound used in speech, and how they are patterned and produced within language(s).

When we discuss phonetics and phonology as levels of linguistic analysis we are describing speech sounds in terms of bodily movement or motions called "articulation". On the other hand, we are also studying the sound system of a language.

On the first score, we shall discuss the mechanism of speech production – phonetics – under articulatory and acoustic phonetics. On the second score, we shall discuss the sound system of English phonology. Within this frame we shall discuss and describe English vowels and consonants, allophones, minimal pairs and stress.

1. Phonetics

Phonetics treats the production, transmission and reception of speech by describing the physiological mechanism of the lungs, throat, mouth, nose, tongue, lips, the palate (soft and hard), the velum, the uvular, the velic, the larynx and the vocal cords in the articulation of speech sounds. It gives account of the nerves which control the production of sound, and those which connect the ear to the human brain. Hence, it is the physics of sound production and reception, and of the sound waves that pass from speaker to hearer.

Phonetics hinges on the capacity of the human articulatory and auditory systems with respect to the sounds and prosodic features (stress, pitch, intonation etc.) available in a language, and with the acoustic characteristics of these sounds and their features. By acoustic features, we mean the structural features of sound which determine how well we can hear speeches.

In summary, phonetics is the scientific study of the process of speech production, the quality of these sounds and also the perception of these sounds. Phonology, on the other hand, begins where phonetics stops. It examines the phonemic contrasts of the phonemes of a language. When we describe the phonemes of English language, we are studying the sound system of English or the phonology of English. When we say that in English

- i. the /p/ sound in 'pin' contrasts with the /b/ sound in 'bin' or
- ii. the /f/ sound in 'fan' contrasts with the /v/ sound in 'van', we are studying English phonology.

Thus, phonology is the discipline which studies and determines what phonic feature – “speech sound” function distinctively in a language. Sound is the raw phonetic data of speech. In dealing with the phonemic system of English we focus attention on “contrast”.

In articulatory phonetics, we set aside this concern with contrast in order to describe speech sounds in terms of their mechanism of production. Using the articulatory frame we can now describe the phonemic system of English so as to show.

- i. how the phonemes are patterned in speech production in a given language.
- ii. their distinctive features i.e. how they contrast or differ from one another.

2. Articulatory Phonetics

Articulatory phonetics describes how speech is produced and provides a framework for their classification. This will be discussed in the next section under the heading “Human Speech Organs”.

3. Human Organs of Speech

The vocal organs include the lungs, the trachea, the larynx, the pharynx, and the organs in the mouth cavity. The term “vocal tract” is an umbrella name for throat, nose and the organs in the mouth, and it is also called the speech tract.

The Speech/Vocal Tracts

When we speak, only a restricted region of the body is involved in articulation. Some of the motions of speech are visible from outside – those of the jaw, lips and the tongue. Other important motions occur inside where they cannot be visually observed except with special apparatus (X – ray movies, laryngoscope). With special training, however, we can detect these inner motions as we speak, sensing the position of the tongue and the throat.

As we make utterances, the air stream from the lungs flows into the larynx where the vocal cords are stretched over the air passage, and out through the vocal tract. The air stream is modified by the vocal organs in a variety of ways – such as pressing the lips together or rounding them. Other modifications such as the vibration of the vocal cords or the movement of the back of the tongue are not accessible to conscious observation.

The so-called “Organs of Speech” consist of all the movable parts in the oral cavity (mouth), the nasal cavity, the pharynx (throat), and the lungs together with muscles that move them collectively; this region is the “speech tract”. All the organs of speech have other primary biological functions, such as respiration and mastication. And using them also for communication is a secondary graft on their primary functions.

In articulatory description, we use a conventional sagittal section, through the median plane of the speech tract, with labels customarily indicating the organs of speech. In speaking, the motions of the organs must necessarily produce sounds; the differences between them can be heard by others. The speech tract is roughly bilaterally symmetrical: the left-halve and the right halve are mirror images of each other. This explains why we can rely largely on a sagittal section for articulatory description, for the

motions described on one side subsumes also what is occurring on the other side.

We shall now survey the articulatory functions of the various portions of speech tract, beginning with the lungs and working outwards.

The Lungs

When we speak, a stream of air passes outward from the lungs, for the lungs are neither quiescent nor loosely exhaling. They actively push air outwards. The inhaled air before the production of speech is called "ingressive air stream". The exhaled air which comes out of the lungs as we speak is called the "egressive pulmonary air stream", it is this air stream that we use for the production of speech sounds.

The Larynx

This is a box of cartilage at the top of the windpipe. It is sometimes called the "Adams apple" which contains two ridges or shelves of tissues called the vocal cords.

The Vocal Cords

The space between the vocal cords is called the glottis. Vocal cords, in their quiescent state, are relaxed and relatively far apart, leaving a passage so wide that air can pass through almost noiselessly. Speech sounds produced with the vocal cords in this position are "voiceless". English /h/ at the beginning of words such as "hat" and "heap" are usually produced at a brief moment of voicelessness, with the lips and the tongues in approximately the position for the vowel onset. (i.e. the following vowel).

At the opposite extreme, if the vocal cords are drawn tightly together so that no air can pass, the glottis is closed. Pressure from the lungs compress the air behind the glottis and, then, the vocal cords are suddenly released. The sound so produced is "glottal catch", or "glottal stop" [ʔ], and it is "voiced". This sound serves for a /t/ in certain English words such as mountain /mʌntɪn/ and bottle /bɒtl/.

All vowels are voiced in English.

In the production of voiceless sounds like the English /f/, the glottis is fully open. But in the production of voiced speech sounds such as the /v/, the glottis is tightly closed. In English all vowels, but not all consonant phonemes are voiced. ?

As the air continues its journey from the larynx, it flows into the pharynx.

The Pharynx

This is the chamber between the tongue and the back-wall of the throat. As in the larynx, a complete closure can be made in the lower pharyngeal region by drawing the root of the tongue against the air passage. This produces a pharyngeal catch. If there is no complete closure, and a small passage way is left, for the passing air stream, a pharyngeal spirant is produced.

The Velic And Nasal Chamber

The velic is the entrance from the upper part of the pharynx into the nasal cavity. This is the only structure in the nasal cavity which functions in speech because the velum rises and closes the passage between the mouth and the nose so that air cannot pass between the pharynx and the nasal cavity. The velum is either closed or open. Sounds produced when the velic opens are called "nasal or nasalized" speech sounds. Those produced with the velic closed are called "non-nasal or oral" speech sounds.

The main difference between English [b] and [m] is that for the latter the nasal passage is open. In English, the consonantal phonemes /m, n, ŋ / are nasals. They differ from /b, d, g/, which are oral. English /m, n, ŋ / like /b, d, g/ are voiced.

The Uvula

This is the flexible body that hangs from the back edge of the velum, cradled in a groove at the back surface of the tongue. The stream of air may set it vibrating; the result is the trilled uvular /r/. A closure between the back surface of the tongue and the velum produces English /k/ and voiced /g/. An incomplete closure between the front surface of the tongue and the hard palate (the front part of

The velic is the only structure in nasal cavity that functions in speech. nasal (open velum) 141
non-nasal or oral (closed velum)

the roof of the mouth) produced English /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ as in *sure* and *azure*.

The Alveolar Ridge

This is the region just behind the root of the upper teeth before the hard palate. As the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge, there may be closure or partial closure. The English sounds /t/, /d/, /s/ and /z/ are produced.

The Oral Cavity

The greatest variety of articulatory motion occurs within the oral cavity. For convenience, the articulatory motions which go on in the mouth will be divided into two classes: those which have vowel-like or VOCOID effects, and those which have consonant-type or CONTOID effects.

A vocoid is a sound in which resonances or colouring of some sort seem to be of primary importance. Some phoneticians prefer to call it RESONANTS instead of vocoids (vowels).

A contoid, on the other hand, is a sound involving clearly audible obstruction (in its production) of the air stream at one point, or the other in the vocal tract. The two "vocoid" and "contoid" are used in place of "vowels" and "consonants" respectively.

In the next sections we shall discuss the basic sounds of English (phonemes versus speech sounds).

4. The Basic Sounds: Phonemes And Speech Sounds

Sounds are uttered by the movements of the organs of speech. It is very important to distinguish between phonemes and speech sounds.

Phonemes

If English language has 44 meaningful sounds, it is said to have 44 phonemes. A phoneme, therefore, could be defined as a distinct unit of sound in human language that combines with other distinct units of sound to form words. It enables users of that language to recognize differences of meaning between words. So the phonology of English is a network of differences between sounds

and not a "set of sounds". Look at few examples that illustrate this assumption.

The English word "hat" contains three distinct sounds. The sound represented by 'h', the sound represented by 'a' and that represented by 't'. Each of these sounds is a phoneme in English.

We will also, quickly examine one word taken from three indigenous languages in Nigeria so as to throw more light on the term phoneme. The word in each language means 'water'.

- In Hausa, the word for water is 'ruwa'. It has four distinct sounds represented by 'r', 'u', 'w' and 'a'. Each is a phoneme in Hausa.
- In Igbo, the word 'mmiri', has three distinct sounds because the first two 'm's are same, and the third and last 'i' are also the same sound. So we have three phonemes 'm', 'i' and 'r'. Each is a phoneme in Igbo.
- In Yoruba, the word that stands for water is 'omi'. "Omi" has three distinct sounds 'o', 'm', and 'i'. Each of these, too, is a phoneme in Yoruba.

Furthermore, the description of /p/ as a 'voiceless bilabial stop' is cast in the terminology of what is called articulatory phonetics. Any two sounds in the same language or in different languages which fit the same description in terms of articulatory phonetics are said to be instances or recurrences of "the same" speech sound. This renders the term "speech sound" relative, since our articulatory description may be either loose or precise.

In this functional frame of reference, when we are dealing with the phonological system of a single language such as English, Hausa, Igbo Yoruba or French, we do not ordinarily use the term "speech sound". For example, we do not say English /p/ is a "speech sound" in this context because whether all occurrences of English /p/ are "the same" speech sounds or not depends on who is listening and on how we describe what is heard. Instead; we say that English /p/ is a phoneme.

The phonemes of a language, then, are the elements which stand in contrast with each other in the phonological system of the language. So English /p/, /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/, /g/ are phonemes.

Throughout all our subsequent discussions, it must constantly be remembered that a phoneme in a given language is defined only in terms of its differences from the other phonemes of the same language and the method of representing them by one symbol is called phonemic transcription.

Speech Sounds

Speech sounds can be described in terms of the bodily motions called "articulation". We shall discuss the articulation of the speech sounds of English, familiar to all of us because we speak the language. Within this framework, we shall describe various types of speech sounds - vowels and consonants of English under the term "phonetics" because it is particularly concerned with the articulatory and acoustic characteristics of speech sound which can be directly compared and contrasted in a language.

The consonant and vowel sounds of a language are known collectively as its segmental phonemes. We recognise them as being different sequences with different meaning due to the suprasegmental (prosodic) features called stress and juncture.

In summary, the English language has

- ▷ 1. segmental phonemes → vowel & consonant.
- ▷ 2. suprasegmental features. → stress & juncture

Suprasegmental Features

Stress, rhythm and intonation are the Suprasegmental features of the English language sound system. Although detailed description of each of those features may not be given here, it is important to discuss the basic characteristics of each of them.

Stress and rhythm:

According to Gimson (1980:60), stress can be described "as a measure of intensity, muscular activity or air pressure" on a syllable or a larger structure (word). The combination of stressed and unstressed syllables in speech activity creates rhythm. In other

words, stress and rhythm or accentuation and rhythm are inseparable. The right application of stress and intonation enhances the meaning of utterances. For instance, in the pronunciation of the word remarkable /rɪ'mɑ:kəbəl/, the second syllable is accentuated. The low sound effect in the first syllable and the high sound effect of the second syllable combine with the rest of the subsequent weak sounds to give the word the right pronunciation and rhythm. Attempt placing the primary stress on the third syllable, the result will be something similar in pronunciation to Rima Cable - a cable manufactured by the company Rima. That is the enormity of the error in the misapplication of the prosodic features.

Intonation - The combination of stress and rhythm in a speech activity beyond the word gives rise to the rise and fall rhythmic sound effect observable in utterances. The rise and fall effect is the intonation. Observe the intonation contours of the following sentences in falling tune:

Statements;

- (a) He died this morning.
- (b) I will be there

Commands

- (a) Fight the battle
- (b) Stand up right there

wh-questions

- (a) what brought about this?
- (b) When will it be sold?

Compare the sentences above with the following sentences which are in the rising tune:

Yes or no questions

- (a) Is the governor coming?
- (b) Shall we go?

Requests

- (a) could you pass the cutlery?
- (b) Can I have his statement.

The combination of stress & rhythm gives intonation
STRESS + RHYTHM = intonation
STRESS + COMBINED STRESS → RHYTHM

Phonetic variant is called allophones

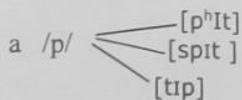
Paralinguistic features, such as voice quality (which can help us identify who is speaking) or a snobbish mimicry of what some other person said, combine with intonation in helping the listener to access the attitude or mood of the speaker. In this vein, Okorafor (2014:81), identifies five functions of intonation but of particular interest are attitudinal and accentual functions. According to him, the attitude of the speaker can be assessed by the speaker's intonation - is the speaker doubtful, certain, bored, frustrated, or angry? On the other hand, contrastive and emphatic stresses are the accentual functions of intonation.

Phonemes have phonetic variants called "allophones". The phoneme /p/ has allophonic variants [p^h, p⁰ and p^l] which could respectively be aspirated, unaspirated and unreleased. Aspiration refers to the small puff of air that accompanies the production of a voiceless plosive and it is predictable in English and not in any other language such as Igbo. In English, any voiceless plosive at the beginning of a word or before a stressed vowel will be aspirated. Now, hold your palm before your mouth and say "pat" or "spat". You will feel the puff of air that is present after the aspirated [p^h] of "pat", but you will feel none after the unaspirated /p/ of "spat".

In English, aspiration never changes the meaning of a word. Whether the aspirated [p^h] in "pat" is interchanged with the non-aspirated /p/ in "spat", there will be no difference in meaning. We will only note that the [p^h], and the /p/ are variants of the phoneme /p/. In this phonetic environment, they are said to be in "COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION" but in "FREE VARIANCE".

To throw more light on complementary distribution, let us consider these pairs of words.

1. pit, spit, tip
2. top, stop, pot
[p^hit]

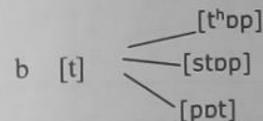


Two functions of intonation

- ① attitude of the speaker
- ② accentual function → contrastive & emphatic stresses

- a. In the articulation of [p] in initial position before voiced or stressed /l/, the /p/ is aspirated.
- b. The /p/ after voiceless fricative /s/ is unaspirated
- c. The /p/ at the final position after voiced /t/ is unreleased so, no matter the phonetic environment of /p/, it cannot alter or change the meaning of the word in which it occurs.

In the second example, the /t/ in top, stop and pot are also in complementary distribution because whether /t/ is aspirated, not aspirated or unreleased, the meaning of the words in which it occurs remains the same as illustrated below



The various [p] in different phonetic positions are allophones of /p/, and those of [t] are allophones of /t/.

In this case, and in others where the phonetically trained investigator can hear two or three clearly distinct types of sound all representing one and the same phoneme in a given language, the different types are often called "ALLOPHONES". Thus, we say that English /p/ and /t/ are represented by, at least, two distinct allophones, aspirated [p^h] and [t^h] under certain phonetic conditions, and unaspirated /p/ and /t/ under others.

Transcription

The term, transcription, means representing each phoneme of an English word with its one-to-one corresponding phonetic symbols. There are two types of transcription,

1. Phonetic or Narrow transcription
2. Phonemic or Broad transcription

Types of Transcription

1. Phonetic Transcription

In phonetic transcription, detailed information about the phoneme is given as in aspirated [p^h]. As earlier discussed during the treatment of allophones, the /p/ in initial position before the stressed vowel /æ/ is aspirated. So, we give a detailed phonetic description of the phoneme /p/ as aspirated. [p^h], and enclose it in brackets [].

2. Phonemic Transcription

In phonemic transcription, no detailed phonetic information of a phoneme is given. For example, when transcribing the English word "boy", we enclose it in slashes or slant line, /b/, pat-/pæt/, tin-/tɪn/, and so on. Throughout our discussion, we shall use phonemic transcription.

Summary

- a. A symbol that represents a phoneme will appear between two slashes or slant line like this; /p/
- b. A symbol that represents a phonetic form will appear in square brackets; [p]
- c. A symbol that represents a letter of the alphabet will appear in italics or set off by quotation marks.

The phonetic alphabet, and not the ordinary alphabet, is used in writing phonetic symbols. We should master the way they are written so as to know the phoneme or the sound they represent.

Table 1: Shows the Phonemic Symbols and the Phonemes they Represent in English

The Phonemes of English (Details and Comment)

PHONETIC SYMBOL	REGULAR SPELLING	SPELLING EXAMPLES	PHONEMIC TRANSCRIPTION
/i:/	1. ee	feed	/fi:d/
	2. ea	bean	/bi:n/
	3. eo	people	/pi:pl/
	4. ey	key	/ki:/
	5. ie	believe	/bi:li:v/
	6. ei	receive	/ri:si:v/
	7. uay	quay	/ki:/
/ɪ/	1. i	sit	/sɪt/
	2. y	lady	/leɪdi/
	3. e	market	/mɑ:kɪt/
	4. ie	babies	/beɪbɪz/
	5. a	village	/vɪlɪdʒ/
/e/	1. e	bed	/bed/
	2. ea	head	/hed/
/æ/	1. a	sat	/sæt/
/ɑ:/	1. ar	hard	/hɑ:d/
	2. as	cast	/kɑ:st/
	3.	palm	/pɑ:m/
/ɒ/	1. o	pot	/pɒt/
	2. ck	rock	/rɒk/
/ɔ:/	1. or	port	/pɔ:t/
	2. ar	war	/wɔ:/
	3. al	call	/kɔ:l/
	4. aw	law	/lɔ:/
	5. our	court	/kɔ:t/
/ʊ/	1. ull	pull	/pʊl/
	2. oo	book	/bʊk/
	3. u	bush	/bʊʃ/
/u:/	1. oo	pool	/pu:l/
	2. ou	coup	/ku:/
	3. o	lose	/lu:z/
/ʌ/	1. u	sun	/sʌn/
	2. o	money love	/mʌni/ /lʌv/
	1. ir	girl	/gɜ:l/
	2. er	term	/tɜ:m/

	/ɜ:/	3. ur 4. or 5. ear	nurse work pearl	/nɜ:s/ /wɜ:k/ /pɜ:l/
12.	/ə/	1. e 2. a 3. u 4. o 5. ou 6. ai 7. ure	over about status pilot labour certain figure	/əʊvə/ /əbaʊt/ /steɪtəs/ /paɪlət/ /leɪbə/ /sɜ:tən/ /fɪgə/
13.	/eɪ/	1. a 2. ai 3. ay	take paint day	/teɪk/ /peɪnt/ /deɪ/
14.	/əʊ/	1. o 2. ai 3. ay	roll soul toad	/rəʊl/ /səʊl/ /təʊd/
15.	/aɪ/	1. i 2. y 3. igh	die dry sight	/daɪ/ /draɪ/ /saɪt/
16.	/aʊ/	1. ou 2. cow	house cow	/haʊs/ /kaʊ/
17.		1. oi 2. oy	point boy	/pɔɪnt/ /bɔɪ/
18.	/ɪə/	1. eer 2. ear 3. ere 4. ier 5. eor	sneer pear here tier theory	/sniə/ /pɪə/ /hɪə/ /tɪə/ /θɪəri/
19.	/eə/	1. are 2. air 3. eir	care hair heir	/keə/ /heə/ /eə/
20.	/ʊə/	1. our 2. ure 3. oor	tour sure poor	/tʊə/ /ʃʊə/ /pʊə/

Source. (Hockett, 1969)

Consonants

	PHONEMIC SYMBOL	REGULAR SPELLING	SPELLING EXAMPLES	
1	/p/	1. p 2. pp	pan happy	/pæn/ /hæpi/
2	/t/	1. t, tt	top hotter	/tɒp/ /hɒtə/

		2. d	passed	/pɑ:st/
3	/k/	1. k, ck 2. x 3. q 4. c	kick box quick car	/kɪk/ /bɒks/ /kwɪk/ /kɑ:/
4	/b/	1. b, bb	book rubber	/bʊk/ /rʌbə/
5	/d/	1. d, dd	die ridden	/daɪ/ /rɪdn/
6	/g/	1. g, gg	go bigger	/gəʊ/ /bɪgə/
7	/f/	1. f, ff 2. ph	fan photo cliff	/fæn/ /fəʊtəʊ/ /klɪf/
8	/v/	1. v	van	/væn/
9	/s/	1. s, ss 2. c, sc	see dress city science	/si:/ /dres/ /sɪti/ /saɪəns/
10	/z/	1. z, zz 2. s	zoo buzz rose	/zu:/ /bʌz/ /rəʊz/
11	/ʃ/	1. sh 2. ti 3. ci	short nation special	/ʃɔ:t/ /neɪʃn/ /speʃl/
12	/ʒ/	1. s	vision measure	/vɪʒn/ /meʒə/
13	/tʃ/	1. ch 2. tch	church pitch	/tʃɜ:tʃ/ /pɪtʃ/
14	/dʒ/	1. j 2. ge 3. g	jam judge gentle	/dʒæm/ /dʒʌdʒ/ /dʒentl/
15	/θ/	1. th	thick	/θɪk/
16	/ð/	1. th	there	/ðeə/
17	/h/	1. h	hat	/hæt/
18	/m/	1. m, mm	man jammed	/mæn/ /dʒæmd/
19	/n/	1. n, nn	name funnel	/neɪm/ /fʌnl/
20	/ŋ/	1. n, ng 2. ing	sing singing	/sɪŋ/ /sɪŋɪŋ/
21	/l/	1. l, ll	will like	/wɪl/ /laɪk/
22	/r/	1. r, rr	rice carry	/raɪs/ /kæri/

23	/w/	1. w 2. u	wreck queen when	/rek/ kwɪ:n/ /wen/
24	/j/	1. y	you	/ju:/

In the next section, we shall discuss

1. Contoids (consonants)
2. Vowels (vocoids)

5. The Vowel System of the English Language (VOCOIDS)

Vowels are the least constricted of all sounds. They are never produced by cutting off air, or by touching the tongue blade or the alveolar ridge. In English, there are no voiceless vowels, nor any friction in their production. Thus, vowels are speech sounds produced without obstruction to the air-stream.

In the description of vowels, three factors are considered:

1. Lip position
2. Tongue height
3. Tongue-movement

Lip position is described along the scale—rounded, unrounded or spread. In English, the lips are spread or not rounded in the production of these vowels. /i, ɪ, e, æ, a, ə, ɔ, ɒ, ɔ:/, but rounded during the production of /ɔ, ɔ:, ɜ, u/

There are 20 phonemes in the vowel system: some are tense and some are lax (see table 2)

Table 2:

	FRONT UNROUNDED	CENTRAL UNROUNDED	BACK ROUNDED
HIGH	Tense i: Lax ɪ		u: ʊ
MID	Tense e Lax ɜ:	ɜ, ə	əʊ
LOW	Tense ɔ: Lax ɒ	ɔ:	ɔ, ɔ:

(From Elgin. What is Linguistics. P. 40)

English vowels must be, further, described as TENSE or LAX (non-tense). Tense vowels are produced with greater muscular tense in the vocal tract, with the tongue in rest position, not in neutral position.

There are two kinds of vowels:

1. Pure/ simple/ monothongs
2. Diphthongs

They are twelve in number, and are made up of seven short vowels and five long ones, viz:

Short: /æ/, /ɪ/, /e/, /ɜ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/ and /ə/

Long: /ɑ:/, /i:/, /ɔ:/, /u:/, /ɜ:/

The symbol /ʌ/ is called TENT, the /ə/ is called SCHWA. TENT occurs when the vowel is stressed as in CUP /kʌp/, SCHWA occurs in unstressed syllables as in sister /sɪstə/.

Pure vowels are numbered according to their position in the vowel chart; viz

1. /i:/	as	in	seat, people, key, quay
2. /ɪ/	as	in	sit, pin, bin, dim
3. /e/	as	in	get, met, set, net
4. /æ/	as	in	sat, pat, cat, hat
5. /ɑ:/	as	in	card, palm, heart, last
6. /ɒ/	as	in	dog, pot, ton, cot
7. /ɔ:/	as	in	door/dawn, court, law
8. /ʊ/	as	in	book, would, pull
9. /u:/	as	in	do, two, pool
10. /ʌ/	as	in	love, Cup, come, judge
11. /ɜ:/	as	in	firm, search, learn
12. /ə/	as	in	sister, vital, doctor

6.2 Diphthongs:

They are eight in number:

13. /eɪ/	as	in	day, cake
14. /əʊ/	as	in	pole, so, sew
15. /aɪ/	as	in	sky, fry, like
16. /aʊ/	as	in	how, low, house
17. /ɔɪ/	as	in	toy, boy, coil
18. /ɪə/	as	in	here, hear, tear
19. /eə/	as	in	care, air, heir
20. /ʊə/	as	in	tour, sure, poor

6.3 Description of Vowels:

a. Vowels	1	and	2
	/i:/		/ɪ/

Vowel numbers 1 and 2 are front vowels, that is, they are pronounced with the tongue nearest to the front part of the mouth. Vowel No 1 is also a close one while No 2 is half – close vowel. The colon following vowel No 1 shows that the tongue stays in one position longer for the pronunciation of /i:/ than it does for vowels No 2. Listen to your teacher say these words:

/i:/ (long)	/ɪ/ (short)
beat	bit
peel	pill
reach	rich
cheek	chick
field	filled

Others include: Chief, people, receive, key, quay.

Students should also practice by reading these sentences because African languages have no long vowel

1. The ceiling is filled with bits of zinc
2. The trees shed their leaves
3. The peak milk is thick.

b. Vowel No 3 /e/

This vowel is short and presents no problem to most Nigerian speakers of English. It is produced while the tongue is about half-way between half – open positions.

Students practice the following words containing vowel No. 3

- | | |
|--------|---------|
| 1. pen | 5. bell |
| 2. ten | 6. help |
| 3. net | 7. yes |
| 4. met | 8. get |

Sentences:

1. Women spend less on dresses
2. Let them set the bed
3. They beg for some bread

c. Vowels No 4 and No 5

Short /æ/ long /ɑ:/

Vowel No. 4 /æ/ is an open front vowel which is short in duration. Say “bed” and “bad” with wide open mouth, then fix “bad” between the two. Repeat bed, bad, bud, five times until you can differentiate them.

d. Vowel No. 5 /ɑ:/

This is an open vowel at the lowest point of the open jaw. It is a front vowel and a back one. The mouth is wide open and the lips not rounded, but at neutral position during articulation.

It is a long vowel – Practice:

/æ/	/ɑ:/
cat	cart
pat	part
stack	start
pack	park
ban	barn
hat	heart

Sentences:

1. Mr. Carr parked his car
2. The guards are there
3. The boy saw the star

e. Vowels No. 6 /ɒ/ and No 7 /ɔ:/

Vowel No. 6 /ɒ/ is said with open mouth and with the lips rounded while vowel No. 7 /ɔ:/ is said with the jaw less open and the lips rounded. Nigerian speakers of English find it difficult to distinguish between short /ɒ/ and long /ɔ:/ sounds. Students should practice the following:

/ɒ/ (short)	/ɔ:/ (long)
god	gored
pot	port

stock	stork
bon	born
cot	court
tot	taught

Sentences:

1. The gods guard the port.
2. Part with the cops at the court
3. The don hid behind the board

f. Vowels No. 8 /ʊ/ short, and 9 /u:/ long:

Vowel No. 8 /ʊ/ is half-close, back vowel and it is pronounced with the lips well rounded. It is lax. Vowel No. 9 is longer than /ʊ/ and it is a close back vowel.

g.

/ʊ/	/u:/
stood /stʊd/	stewed /stju:d/
full /fʊl/	fool /fu:l/
pull /pʊl/	pool /pu:l/
could /kʊd/	cooled /ku:ld/

Sentences:

1. He was sued too.
2. Mr. James has a book
3. Mary is a good girl
4. I shall buy books.
5. The man hid some wood in the bush.

h. Vowel No. 10 /ʌ/ (short)

This phonetic symbol /ʌ/ is called TENT. It is a central vowel. The tongue is unrounded during its articulation. TENT occurs when the vowel is stressed. We have it in words such as:

1. sun/son	/sʌn/
2. cup	/kʌp/
3. love	/lʌv/
4. gun	/gʌn/
5. mother	/mʌðə/

6. money	/mʌni/
7. drug	/drʌg/
8. cut	/kʌt/
9. bug	/bʌg/
10. fun	/fʌn/

Sentences:

1. The sun is too much.
2. You can double your trouble
3. It is just some money.

i. Vowel No. 11 /ɜ:/ (Long):

This vowel is central and half-close too. It is used in words such as her, heard, work, word, fur, girl, see illustrations below:

1. her	/hɜ:/
2. heard	/hɜ:d/
3. work	/wɜ:k/
4. word	/wɜ:d/
5. fur	/fɜ:/
6. girl	/gɜ:l/

Sentences:

1. The bird perched on the tree.
2. He searched for his girl everywhere.
3. We must learn to nurse our baby
4. I wore a red skirt last term.
5. The Earl stirred the firms into action

j. Vowel No. 12 /ə/

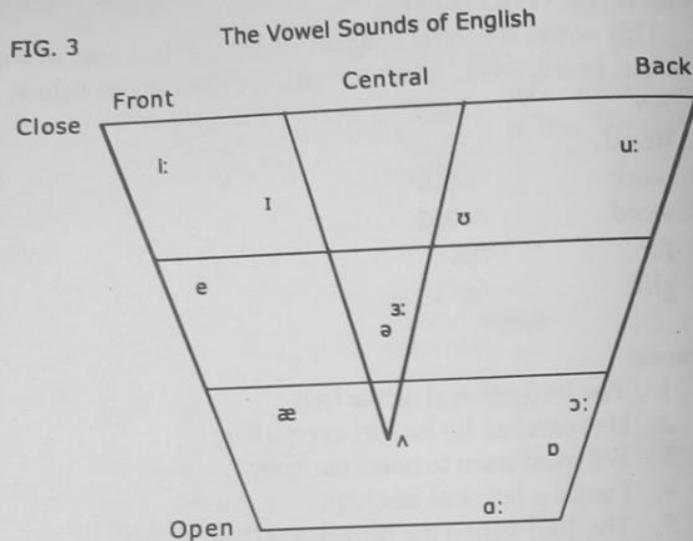
It is a short vowel which represents the weak form of a vowel in unstressed syllables. It is a central neutral vowel said with no tension of the muscles. This symbol is called a schwa. Some words in which it occurs are

1. mother	-	/mʌðə/
2. burner	-	/bɜ:nə/
3. ago	-	/əgəʊ/
4. hunter	-	/hʌntə/
5. sister	-	/sɪstə/

6. above - /əbəʊV/
 7. doctor - /dɒktə/

Sentences:

1. I saw him about ten minutes ago
2. What a blunder!
3. He is a butcher and fighter
4. I need some warm water
5. What God has joined together let no man put asunder



The vowels are numbered according to the position of the tongue and shape of the mouth.

6. The English Diphthongs:

The word 'diphthong' means "double sound". It is a vowel which changes its quality in the course of its production. It begins as one vowel and ends as another. Oconnor sees the diphthong as a vowel whose production involves "a glide from one vowel to another". From the above, it is clear that diphthongs are vowels. According to the movement of the tongue, diphthongs are classified as:

- a. wide
- b. narrow
- c. closing and
- d. centring

All diphthongs are like long vowels, but like pure vowels, they may be influenced by their surroundings. The diphthong is longer in "high" /haɪ/, "hide" /haɪd/ than in "height" /haɪt/. Here, the diphthongs are numbered as the pure vowels.

13. /eɪ/ e.g. late, paper, fail
14. /əʊ/ e.g. go, host, close
15. /aɪ/ e.g. bite, sky, cry
16. /aʊ/ e.g. house, cow, loud
17. /ɪə/ e.g. here, hear, seer
18. /ɔɪ/ e.g. boy, toy, soil
19. /eə/ e.g. air, heir, care
20. /ʊə/ e.g. tour, sure, poor

The two main groups of diphthongs:

1. Closing Diphthongs
2. Centring Diphthongs

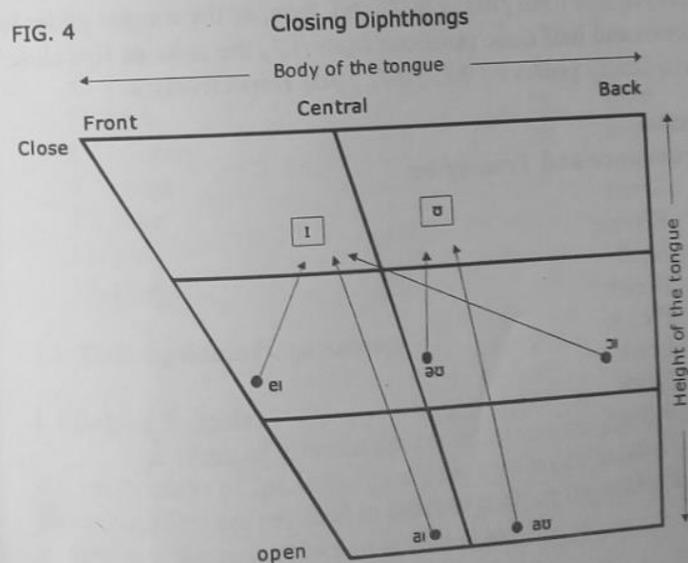
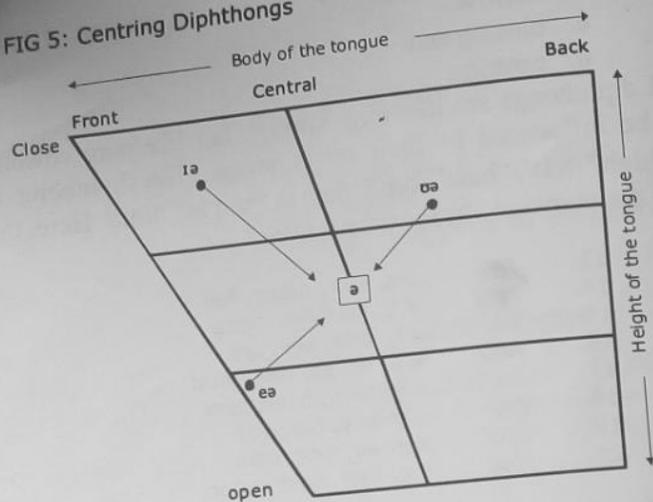


FIG 5: Centring Diphthongs



(Figures 4&5: From Okorafor, D 2014. *Basic Oral English and Common Mispronunciations*. P17. Icecanopy Ltd, Enugu)

The closing diphthongs in fig. 4 are said with the lips open with half open and half close positions from /i:/, the jaws or lips close/open to finally produce /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/ respectively.

Exercises:

4. Pronounce and Transcribe

1. Street
2. Rhyme
3. Spell
4. Breath
5. Pledge
6. Brain
7. Stitch
8. System
9. Long
10. Spray

5. Identify The Vowel Sounds in the Following Words. See the First Example

1. Bean /i:/
2. Sit
3. Girl
4. Bed
5. Hold
6. Like
7. Lake
8. Tour
9. Here
10. Hare

6. Transcribe the Following words, using the appropriate Phonetic Symbols:

- | | |
|------------|------------|
| 1. boy | 13. before |
| 2. girl | 14. church |
| 3. cart | 15. school |
| 4. cat | 16. cry |
| 5. cut | 17. tour |
| 6. put | 18. sure |
| 7. love | 19. short |
| 8. country | 20. court |
| 9. judge | |
| 10. cake | |
| 11. pull | |
| 12. pool | |

7.1 Description of Consonants

i. Bilabial Sounds

The place of articulation for labial consonants is the lips. In the production of /p/ as in "pan", the two articulators are the lips. Since both lips are required in order to produce the sound, it is called a bilabial – the point/place of articulation.

As /p/ is being uttered, the vocal cords are in their quiescent state. The glottis, falling open, allows air to pass, giving a voiceless sound.

Using the three parameters for the classification of consonants, /p/ is voiceless bilabial plosive.

ii. Labio-Dental

Labio-Dental sounds are /f/ and /v/ because the upper teeth press against the lower lip in their articulation. Thus /f/ is voiceless labio-dental fricative while /v/ is voiced.

iii Dental Sounds /θ/ and /ð/

In their articulation, the blade of the tongue touches the upper teeth.

iv. Alveolar Sounds

The alveolar ridge lies behind the upper teeth. Alveolar sounds are produced as the blade of the tongue comes into contact with this gum ridge.

Consonant sounds made further in the mouth involve the body of the tongue, and contact with either the hard palate or the soft palate (velum).

v. Alveo-palatal

The blade and body of the tongue make contact at the region from the alveolar ridge to the hard palate.

vi. Palate Sounds

They involve contact exclusively between the body of the tongue and the hard palate.

vii. Velar Sounds

The body of the tongue is in contact with the soft palate, throat. At the glottis (i.e. the opening between the vocal cords), the glottal sounds are formed. English has only one glottal sound represented as /h/.

Table 3: Shows The Consonant Sounds Of English Classified By Place Of Articulation:
English Consonant Sounds Classified By Place of Articulation
Table 3

	Sound Symbol	As in
BILABIAL	p b m w	pot bin man we
LABIO-DENTAL	f v	face vase
DENTAL	θ ð	thin this
ALVEOLAR	t d s z i r n	tap dog sip zoo lake run name
ALVEO-PALATAL	tʃ dʒ ʃ ʒ	chair jam shoe measure
PALATAL	j	yes
VELAR	k g ŋ	car go sing
GLOTTAL	h	hat

TABLE 4: English Consonant Sounds Classified By Manner of Articulation

	BILABIAL	LABIO-DENTAL	DENTAL	ALVEOLAR	ALVEO-PALATAL	PALATAL	VELAR	GLOTTAL
PLOSIVE VL Vd	p b			t d			k g	
FRICATIVES VL Vd		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
AFFRICATES VI Vd					tʃ			

					dʒ		
NASALS Vd	m			n			ŋ
LIQUIDS Vd				l, r			
GLIDES Vd	w					j	

(ELGIN, 1979: 24)

NB: VL denotes voiceless consonants
Vd denotes voiced consonants

7.2 Table 4: English Consonant Sounds Classified by Manner of Articulation

- a. Plosives /p, t, k, b, d, g/
- b. Fricatives /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, h/
- c. Affricates /tʃ, dʒ/
- d. Nasals /m, n, ŋ/
- e. Liquids /l, r/
- f. Glides /w, j/

a. Stops/Plosives

They are produced by

1. a complete oral closure
2. velic closure

English has 6 stops. They are also called plosives because they are articulated with audible noise. The contrast between voiced and voiceless plosives in English is called a contrast of manner. English /p/ and /b/ differ only as to manner not as to position.

c. Fricatives

They are also called continuants because they are produced by continuous frictional noise as air is allowed to pass at one or both sides, between the edge of the tongue and the upper teeth.

Because fricatives allow air to escape through narrow constriction, but with a turbulence caused by the friction of the vocal tract, they are called fricatives.

d. Affricates

Affricates are stops which are realized with a gradual release of air pressure. Although the affricates are made of a sequence of what appears as two consonants, each is a single consonant. Thus, /tʃ/ is seen in words such as church /tʃɜ:tʃ/ and /dʒ/ in words such as:

1. jam /dʒæm/
2. judge /dʒʌdʒ/

e. Nasals - /m, n, ŋ/

The velum is lowered, in the production of nasals, allowing air to flow out through the nose and blocking air flow through the mouth. There are mainly three nasals in English. The /ŋ/ is the phonetic symbol for words that end in -ng, as in sing /sɪŋ/.

f. The Liquids

They include /l/ and /r/. They are grouped together primarily because they pattern similarly in sound system. The /l/ is a lateral, which means that it requires the lowering of one or both sides (the lateral edge) of the tongue in its articulation and there is no turbulence as air passes the sides of the tongue so that the sound is marked by a certain colouring. The sound is voiced. It is termed a TRILL or a ROLL or a RETROFLEX. On the other hand, /r/ is produced in two ways:

1. By curling the tip of the tongue back and up toward the dome of the mouth or
2. By placing the tip of the tongue behind the lower teeth and bunching the central part up against the dome. The first produces a retroflex.

The phonetic symbols for lateral /reflexive/ trill consonants are

/l/ = lateral

/r/ = trill or reflexive

g. The Glides /w/, /j/

They are sometimes called SEMI-VOWELS because they are produced without an identifiable place of obstruction to the air stream. They are also voiced since there is vibrating of the vocal cords during their production.

Exercises:

1. Describe each of the English phonemes listed below in articulatory terms, following the model given for the first one:

- | | | | | |
|----|-----|-------------------------|----|-----|
| 1. | /p/ | voiceless bilabial stop | 6. | /e/ |
| 2. | /t/ | | 7. | /s/ |
| 3. | /b/ | | | |

- | | | | |
|----|-----|-----|-----|
| 4. | /g/ | 8. | /ʒ/ |
| 5. | /f/ | 9. | /v/ |
| | | 10. | /z/ |

2. Identify the initial consonant sounds in the following words, see example 1:

- | | | | | |
|----|--------|-----|-----|----------|
| 1. | fan | /f/ | 6. | thank |
| 2. | gnash | | 7. | they |
| 3. | school | | 8. | van |
| 4. | chair | | 9. | shoe |
| 5. | tan | | 10. | pleasure |

3. Identify the diphthong sounds in the following words, see example 1:

- | | | | | | | |
|----|------|------|----|------|----|------|
| 1. | boy | /ɔɪ/ | 5. | goat | 8. | tour |
| 2. | gate | | 6. | here | | |
| 3. | sky | | 7. | hair | | |
| 4. | cow | | | | | |

4. Pronounce and Transcribe

- | | | | | |
|----|--------|---------------|-----|--------|
| 1. | street | e.g. /stri:t/ | 6. | brain |
| 2. | rhyme | | 7. | stitch |
| 3. | spell | | 8. | system |
| 4. | breath | | 9. | long |
| 5. | pledge | | 10. | spray |

5. Identify The Vowel Sounds In The Following Words. See the First Example

- | | | | | | | |
|----|------|------|----|------|-----|------|
| 1. | bean | /i:/ | 6. | like | 10. | hare |
| 2. | Sit | | 7. | lake | | |
| 3. | girl | | 8. | tour | | |
| 4. | bed | | 9. | here | | |
| 5. | hold | | | | | |

6. Transcribe The Following Words, Using The Appropriate Phonemic Symbols No. is Done For You

- | | | | | |
|----|------|-------|-----|---------|
| 1. | boy | /bɔɪ/ | 6. | put |
| 2. | girt | | 7. | love |
| 3. | cart | | 8. | country |
| 4. | cat | | 9. | judge |
| 5. | cut | | 10. | cake |

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ORAL COMMUNICATION: PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE DELIVERY

C.J. Dikenwadike

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide sufficient guide in oral communication and effective techniques in speech making. We have used the word "guide" because the oral speech communication and writing processes are all individual affairs. The teacher can only provide the guide or theory of effective speech and writing; the students may put or may choose not to put the theory into practice. The achievements of the goals are dependent on the student. One thing is clear, to convey one's thoughts through a speech, a most common style of communication is preferable. But in speech, gestures, winks, smiles, nods, shrugs, tones, and in fact, the presence of a speaker are more powerful. It is, therefore, necessary for a speaker or a writer to bring to a writing task or speech all the grammatical and rhetorical devices of language. Ogbuehi (2002) captures it well when she says: "Practice is the watchword of all arts, and writing is an art." It follows, therefore, that an enthusiastic learner can develop an admirably high level of competence with constant practice. It is on these facts that oral delivery/oral communication, speech, types of speech, qualities of public speakers and good speech are examined in this chapter.

We, however, realize that speech events, whether oral communication, oral delivery, verbal communication, verbal delivery, speech making, speech delivery, talk workshop, public speaking, spoken communication, whatever it is called within this context, are all related in the exercise of these mental and physical human activities. They are all means of human communication. Communication does not exist in a vacuum. It, naturally, includes all forms of transmission of information from one person to another with a view to eliciting a response. The system of oral

communication is naturally inherent among human beings. The inherent nature makes it a continuous process which takes place whenever people meet and make contact with one another.

Egonu (1988) upholds that "...language serves people as a medium for communication, for transmission of knowledge, culture and values and for the articulation of their world views." In the same vein, Ijoma (1988) postulates that language includes the articulate or inarticulate expression of thought, and therefore any set or system of symbols or gestures used to express meaning. Language and orality are inseparable. Ngonebu (2008) observes that language and speech are means of communication and all normal human beings use language and speech to express themselves. All languages were first and foremost oral.

It is, therefore, clear that verbal and/or oral communication involves the use of speech sounds to which meaning is attached for the purpose of communication. Speech falls into this category because speech is an oral, verbal and spoken medium used to transmit a message to the receiver. Oral communication and/or oral delivery requires the knowledge of phonology, grammar, morphology and semantics to be effective. We shall now proceed to define the terms *oral delivery/oral communication*.

1.1 What is Oral delivery/Oral Communication?

The word "Oral" according to *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English* means: ability to give, to express oneself in speech, the oral ability to speak rather than write, something connected with the mouth. It is on this basis and sense that we are going to use oral delivery/oral communication.

Man is the only animal that has the faculty of speech. People go for speech therapy which is a remedial treatment for defective speech organ. Other animals have a way of communication but certainly not a faculty of speech. Verbal communication, oral communication and oral delivery are all related to speech. Speech therefore, is the central focus of oral delivery and /or oral communication.

1.2 Areas where oral communication is used
There is hardly any sphere of human activities where oral communication is not used. It is used in governance and politics. Oral communication is used in education and scholarship. It is used in trade and commerce and all areas of life are largely dependent, sustained and curiously promoted by oral communication.

1.3 What is speech?

Speech is defined by *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English* (1974) as: Power, act, manner of speaking, to talk to somebody about something, to use your voice to say something, to mention or describe something to somebody, to use a particular language to express yourself, to say or to state something orally, to express what you think or want yourself, to express your opinion not in writing but orally, to state orally your views or wishes of somebody or to act as a representative for somebody, speak of something formal.

2.0 Types of speech making

Speeches could be classified into two main groups: formal speech and informal speech or/impromptu or extemporaneous. We shall discuss formal speech first.

2.1 Formal speech

A formal speech is any oral communication delivered in an official setting. It is clearly a linguistic phenomenon which can be used to express feelings, emotions, ideas and thoughts. Formal speech is often presented from a written or a printed text which can be made available to the audience. Formal speech presentation follows certain standard conventions. Formal speech is usually a product of prior information to enable the speaker prepare his speech and deliver it from a text or manuscript. Formal speeches have some advantages. Formal speech in text or manuscript has a dual nature that confers permanence on it. Again, that the presenter prepares before delivering it ensures a level of accuracy in form, content and adequate use of language. It offers the speech presenter opportunity to include major facts or remarks to elicit desired effects from the

audience. A formal speech in text acquires permanence, and its content cannot be denied by the presenter. Some examples of formal speeches are:

- Valedictory speeches
- Keynote addresses
- Speeches at conventions
- Convocation speech
- Matriculation speech
- Speeches at union or party rallies, panels and conferences
- Speech at initiation ceremonies
- Inaugural lecture
- Farewell addresses
- Welcome addresses
- Opening speeches in official ceremonies
- Ministerial addresses
- Gubernatorial addresses
- Presidential addresses, etc.

These types of speech making are used to send information to a large group of people. Through oral communication, oral delivery, public speaking/speech making, ethical values and good morals for the education of the youths are proffered.

2.2 Informal speech/impromptu or extemporaneous

In an informal speech, a person may be called upon at a very short period or notice to make a speech in a gathering. Informal, impromptu, extemporaneous speech is a speech and/ or communication that does not follow standard conventions. This type of speech may be delivered without a written text. Informal speeches are more for entertainment than for serious business. Whenever a speech is intended to entertain, it should explore the use of jokes, anecdotes, humour and satire for amusement as in impromptu informal speech. "Speakers delivering informal speeches use their speeches to create the desired effects within the audience. Such speeches elicit laughter. It is for humour and celebration," Ogbuehi

(2002). Instances of where informal, impromptu, extemporaneous speeches are delivered are as follows:

- Funeral oration
- Sermons, toast
- Vote of thanks
- Wedding speeches
- Birthday toast
- Memorials
- Anniversary speeches, and so on.

Let us discuss the difference between the two types of speeches.

2.3 The differences between formal and informal speeches

In a formal speech, the speaker is given a notice to prepare and deliver a speech. The speaker is given the opportunity to present his speech in an official setting and from a written or printed text which can be made available to the audience. A formal speech in this form acquires a measure of permanence because it has a careful documentation. Formal speeches are signed. It enables the audience to confirm the authenticity of the source of the given speech. A formal speech follows certain standard conventions. It is officialized, whereas in the informal, impromptu, extemporaneous speech, the speaker is called up at a very short notice to deliver a speech. It is not officialized. It does not follow any known standard conventions. An informal, impromptu, extemporaneous speech lacks all that formal speech delivery has by conventions. Informal speeches are made for entertainment, jokes, humour, and amusement. However, "...whatever functions your speech is directed at, the most important thing is that a speech is a serious composition that requires careful preparation and ardent attention to accuracy and clarity," Ngonebu (2006). At this point, we move on to examine the effective use of speech making.

3.0 Effective uses of speech making

Speeches are used first to give information. They are used to share knowledge. Speech making is used to sensitize and more importantly to raise people's awareness to new developments. It is used to inculcate ethics and moral values and education among the youths. Speeches are used to make people accept an ideology or to take action against somebody or something. This view is shared by Otagburuagu (2009) when he says that propaganda speech can move "a mob to riotous act." The power of speech can move people to do good or bad in society. Ngonebu (2006) agrees that a vicious speech by trade unionists can initiate an unending strike by workers, and a peaceful political speech can lead to victory of one party over the other. This can illustrate how powerful speech making can be in the hands of an orator. A speech is effective if the target audience understands it, accepts and believes it, and implements its ideas or carries out the actions which it recommends, otherwise, the speech is ineffective.

4.0 Characteristics of speech

One of the most important characteristics of speech is its dynamic nature. It drops old expressions and picks up new ones from other languages and cultures. Speech is culture based and contains words, expressions, world views, and new philosophy. Believing that all languages were first and foremost oral, speech is creative and can be used to produce unlimited number of sentences. The last and most important characteristic of speech is voice. It is relevant to speech and effective to speech delivery.

4.1 Functions of speech

Speech functions as a medium of communication. It gives ideas, feelings and emotions; it registers disappointments, regrets and achievements. Speech functions to register messages from speaker to listener. It plays a formidable role in the transmission of knowledge and expression of the culture of the people. Speech functions to respond to the behavioural attitudes, needs and aspirations of a people's worldviews. We shall now turn to the principles of oral delivery.

5.0 Principles of oral delivery

The subject matter: The introductory part of the speech serves as a lead; it establishes contact with the audience or listener through stating sources of information about the topic. The speaker must make good choice of words as his design to meet the audience. He is required to hold the audience together and ensure that they are still with him to the end of his oral delivery. As he journeys into the realms of thought, he should take the audience along with him.

The outlining of points at the beginning of the speech gives the speaker clear direction. It helps his listener/audience to grasp the picture of his speech and prevent undue criticism. The speech presenter may choose to develop the last point first, which is probably the best, so attractively, with glowing phrases and good illustrations that the audience goes home much happier than they came. This becomes the best they could obtain in a good speech.

Timing

A speech presenter must try to time himself strictly, allocating minutes to each section of the speech. Strict timing is necessary in speech delivery if one does not want to be stopped suddenly when delivering the speech. How does time reflect on memory?

Memory

Principles of oral delivery recognize memory as the mental filing system which records impressions transmitted by the senses such as hearing, seeing, tasting, smelling and touching.

The speech presenter's strongest faculty will record the deepest impressions which will be the easiest to remember. Taste, smell and touch do not help the speech presenter to remember notes/cues. So he has to rely on hearing and seeing in order to sense impulses from the audience in order to know when to stop, digress or introduce new points or link up points into a chain of thought. How does this help confidence?

Confidence

Confidence is the first thing to establish. The speech presenter, through confidence, skillfully develops his arguments. It shows the speaker's level and depth of his knowledge in his topic, his expertise, research potentials and organizational ability in speech delivery. The speech presenter succeeds in effective oral delivery by using good planning strategies and appropriate choice of words for the pleasure of the audience. The speech presenter, to succeed, must always be appropriate in terms of diction, style, form and content.

6.0 Qualities of a public speaker

A successful public speaker must have a thorough knowledge of the topic or his subject matter. A public speaker must arm himself with adequate information by carrying out research on the topic, holding discussions with colleagues and professionals in the area or topic in which he is about to speak on. A good public speaker must ensure that his speech is carefully organized, structured and delivered in a logical way so that the ultimate purpose is achieved. A successful public speaker must present ideas in agreement with the context and situation. A public speaker must be able to use speech delivery time correctly.

He must be able to understand his audience in view of some or all the possible variables in the dramatic exercise of speech delivery. A public speaker must be articulate, wise to choose ideas, examples, illustrations, vocabulary and anecdotes that will interest and stimulate his audience. The content of a good speech determines the validity, currency and research potentials of the speaker. It is under these factors that effective public speaker can be viewed to make effective speech delivery. We shall move on to examine the qualities of a good speech.

7.0 Qualities of a good speech

A good speech should be lucid. It should include all the necessary details that will help the audience to establish a rapport with the speaker and his speech, Ogbuehi (2002). Ngonebu (2006) supports this view when she said that: "...a good speech should have a captivating introduction and impressive ending." Otagburuagu

(2009) agrees to this view that "... a good speech should be free from redundancies ... should not be skimpy and vague. It should contain elaborate illustrations in order to give the audience full insight into the topic.

7.1 The content

The content of a speech should be handled through an outline. The outline should first have the introduction, the body of the speech, conclusion and the signature. These are the four major things in the outline. Ideas, facts and opinions should be developed in paragraphs built through examples, anecdotes, quotations and facts supported by statistics and evidence. The contents of a speech determine the validity, currency and research potential of the speaker. It is under these factors that effective speech delivery can be established.

7.2 The audience

The reaction of the audience determines the degree of success or failure a speech may have. A successful speech is noted through the response of the audience. It is, therefore, necessary to evaluate the audience in terms of number, age range, sex, occupation, affiliations such as political, religious, and cultural. The knowledge will help you to select your topic and level of discussion, choice of vocabulary and varieties of English to use. The size of the audience will help you to think about the physical comfort of the listeners, audio-visual, graphics, public address systems, venue, seats, ventilation, hall size etc. The size of the audience will determine how you plan to write the speech, its content, linguistic and structural patterns.

If your speech is not tailored to the audience's interest and affiliations they might simply walk away or stop paying attention to you. Again, how long can an audience in an uncomfortable environment be prepared to listen to a long speech, for instance? The educational background of the audience will help to determine capabilities of listeners to receive the subject of discussion and give appropriate feedback. A good speech must recognize the occasion. There should be no unnecessary digression from the subject matter.

8.0 Process of speech making

1. Pre-speech activities

You must do the following if you are preparing to deliver an effective speech. First, begin, according to Otagburagu (2009), with recognizing and understanding your audience in terms of their

- a. Social and political leaning
- b. Social and educational positions
- c. Interests, hopes and aspirations, loyalties, prejudices,
- d. Religion, psychological, cultural, moral and ethical values of people in society.

2. Post-speech activities

In a post speech activity, the speaker or writer ensures that the draft speech must be ready for a thorough editing work. The speaker or writer must examine his choice of words, the clarity of his sentences, the coherence of his paragraphs and their topic sentences. He also must examine his grammatical structures of mechanics and spelling and note all other flaws before he makes a fair copy to complete the process. In speech, gestures, winks, smiles, nods, shrugs, tone and in fact the presence of the speaker, all help to clarify and repeat points when necessary. The writer may never have the opportunity to explain himself to the reader. Any piece of writing is constantly facing a spying eye of critical readers.

9.0 Factors affecting speech production

Speech writers and presenters have noticed on many occasions that the most confident and experienced speakers often take the edge off an otherwise good speech by phrasing it badly so that the essential rhythm of speech is lost. It is the question and problem of phrasing that we are concerned with here.

- a. We do not say: "I saw ay cat on thee roof; we say: "I saw uh cat on thuh roof". Spoken as in the first instance the phrase sounds absurd. Spoken as in the second example it has the natural flow and rhythm of English speech. Yet, even educated speakers in Europe and even more so in the United States, insist upon pronouncing "a"

as “ay” and “the” as “thee”, thus destroying the rhythmic value of their speech. “The” must, of course, be pronounced as “thee” when the succeeding word begins with a vowel. We should say “Thee end” and not “thuh end”. The word “and”, too, is frequently given a false value. It is really only the sound “nd”; the “a” is superfluous. If you read aloud short passages from the book of Genesis deliberately pronouncing the ‘nds’ and “and” and, the “thuh’s” the moral will be obvious.

b. Code – Mixing

This is an art of combining two codes or two languages to make a statement or the existence of two linguistic mediums in one narrative. According to Essien (1995), code – mixing is a socio-linguistic phenomenon observed between two languages with different levels of development, with one more in status than the other. As a matter of fact one hardly sees someone speak Igbo without mixing the speech with English words and expressions. Examples of local words that are now frequently used with English include “tokumbo”, “umuada”. In *Things Fall Apart* (1958), Achebe tells us: Okonkwo sat in his Obi crunching happily with Ikemefuna and Nwoye ... (p. 40). We have an example of code-mixing here. The Igbo word “Obi” is inserted in an English construction, Ngonebu (2006).

c. Code-Switching

This is also the result of languages in contact. In this process, the speaker changes or switches from one language or code to another in the course of his speech. Akindele and Adegbite (1999) observe that someone who code-switches uses two languages or dialects interchangeably in a single communication. For Example, an Igbo speaker using English suddenly switches over to Igbo when they wish to emphasize a point or draw an instance to a local proverb. C. Ike in *Conspiracy of Silence* (2001) says: “Listen to what a man from nearby Aja town remarked about their people: Akwa nwayi ekweghi ka umunwaguma nwe igwe mmadu (p.83). This is an instance of code-switching (Ngonebu 2006).

d. Choice of words in oral communication

Speakers sometimes choose their vocabulary badly, choosing either word which, by too frequent usage is out of use. One cannot dogmatize about vocabulary; like dressing, it is a matter of choice or taste. The best one can do is to advise the speaker to choose his words on this basis:

1. Are they absolutely relevant to the meaning they are intended to express?
2. Are they the most vital and interesting words that will fulfill this condition?
3. Are they suited to the educational background of the listener/audience?

A brilliant example of a politician with a great skill of speech is Sir Winston Churchill. One example from his speeches and writings will illustrate the importance of good choice more than any words of mine can do.

Churchill on- Trotsky,

“He sits disconsolate – a skin of malice stranded for a time on the shores of the black sea and now washed up in the gulf of Mexico”.

The speaker who cares about vocabulary will read as widely as possible and will listen as often as he can to the words of great orators and great playwrights. He will do more, though, than listen passively; he will note and recall and make use of these colourful words and phrases as the occasion arises. We possess a language of incredible richness, variety, and tonal beauty and it is one of the greatest tragedies of our time that an appreciation of spoken English is now almost a rarity. Our forebears know the value of their heritage and cherished words, using them with taste and discrimination.

e. Nervousness in oral English delivery

Nervousness is energy, a mysterious force generated and propelled by feeling which affects your whole nervous system either shattering it or gearing it up until you are tense and vibrant and capable of reaching heights of oratory (A.G. Mears).

If, however, this energy is misdirected by fear, it can throw your nervous system out of control with disastrous results. It is fear of this misdirection which makes us regard nervous energy as a potential energy forgetting that, it is a vital factor in all creative art, as it makes us sensitive and receptive and without it we should be dead and devoid of feeling.

On the other hand, nervous energy, correctly controlled by knowledge, sincerity, honesty, enthusiasm, or any of the constructive emotions can produce the best that is in us. The only way to ensure perfect nerve control is to remove the cause of misdirection and see that the controlling emotion is the right one; just as a driver must learn to handle his gears skillfully before he is safe on the road. Gradually, he gains the necessary self confidence when he finds his hands making the right movement. So let us consider fear and its causes. As far as speakers are concerned, there are six main reasons for fear.

- a. Fear of the unknown
- b. Fear of being misunderstood
- c. Fear of the audience
- d. Fear of inaudibility
- e. Fear of oneself
- f. Fear of physical reaction of speaking

Let us analyse each of the six causes of fear.

- a. **Fear of the unknown:** This fear spring from two sources, ignorance of the technique of speaking and unfamiliarity with the actual delivery, and its removal depends on a study of the science of the mind and practice in the art of delivery.
- b. **Fear of being misunderstood:** A creative mind intent on conveying a message is afraid that the message will not register as intended, and can only be reassured by a reasoned plan, notes or some effective mind direction. If this is not available, muddled ideas become mental stammering and fear assume control, driving its unhappy victim to repeat the same point (ad nauseam) instead of moving on swiftly and smoothly to the next stage.

- c. **Fear of the Audience:** This fear is destroyed by adjustment to the audience through coverage, cheerfulness, tact, patience, tone, voice, confidence, timing and imagination.
- d. **Fear of being inaudible:** Learn to handle the tools of your trade, especially the use of your lips, tongue, teeth, jaw and the roof of your mouth; the expert has a sure touch and knows he can rely on his skills, so he has no fear of failure.
- e. **Fear of oneself:** Modesty which conjures up imaginary faults, conceit which is concerned with the effect on the audience, or imagination which pictures an all-knowing questioner in the audience can release this fear and create nervousness. Mental concentration is the weapon to slay it, as a mind which is absorbed in developing an interesting argument will not be distracted by these fanciful ideas.
- f. **Fear of physical reaction:** The first plunge into public speaking, often, reveals unexpected physical strain imposed on the nervous system. Relaxation and rest before delivering a speech can restore stability and confidence in the speaker. Having done all these, the six giants of fear which cause nervousness will be conquered.
 - i. Fear of the unknown conquered by knowledge of technique and practice
 - ii. Fear of muddled ideas conquered by clear mind direction and good notes
 - iii. Fear of the audience conquered by study of psychology
 - iv. Fear of inaudibility conquered by good voice production.
 - v. Fear of oneself conquered by concentration and memory training.
 - vi. Fear of physical strain conquered by breathing and physical adjustment.

If you accept the challenges of nervousness gladly and confidently you will banish these fears forever.

Conclusion

In Nigeria, the Igbo, Hausa and Yoruba and other ethnic groups are easily hurt if you denigrate their language or speak in a way that undermines their dignity. Public speakers should bear in mind that distinctive kinds of pronunciation have a partisan significance too. Thus, a man prides himself on speaking like “a good Scot” or a “good Yorkshire man”, and so on. This kind of pride is easily wounded. A Yorkshire man may not mind your telling a funny story about a Yorkshire man; he may even forgive you for what you imagine to be a Yorkshire accent; but he is likely to be angry, furious, if you sneer at his way of speech.

Again, it will be easier to understand the frustration we feel sometimes at other people’s apparent folly, if we remember that the glib use of words does not always mean that we understand the ideas for which the words are merely a symbol. Some cynical fellow once said that if all the people in the world spoke only on the subjects they were qualified to speak on, there would be a great and dignified silence! Certainly, we all speak glibly on occasion about matters either in a formal speech or in an informal speech we are far from being expert on. For this reason, the public speaker should always examine well the content of his speech, to make sure that he does mean just what he says and not something quite or even a little different.

In conclusion, public speakers must remember that tied with the meanings of words is the effect of their appearance, their rhythm and tone – colour or sound. Some words are fascinating in themselves, apart from their meaning. They have an attractive rhythm or they sound particularly musical. This makes them potentially stronger than their fellows because the hearers – listeners or audience may be beguiled by these considerations at the expense of understanding the ideas they express. It is therefore the skills of selecting the most suitable words for public speaking that we have focused on in this topic.

Exercises

1. Prepare skeleton notes for three-minute speeches on:
(a) Travel brochures (b) Faith (c) Freedom
2. Write down the most compelling opening paragraphs for speeches on:
(a) The duties of a citizen (b) Love as a total delusion (c) Modern art (d) The futility of war.
3. Prepare full notes for a five-minute speech on one of the following subjects and then summarize the notes on a plain postcard: (a) My favourite hobby (b) A book that has moved me (c) My favourite fictional character
4. Prepare a speech of not less than three minutes duration for an audience of ten-year-old boys and girls on ‘Hobbies for the Long Vacation’.
5. Can you find apt quotations for: (a) An impulsive person (b) A foolish ruler (c) A fallen dictator (d) The advantages of imagination.
6. You are a guest at the annual dinner of the local Archaeological Association, but are not yourself an expert on the subject. Make a brief speech replying to the toast of ‘The Visitors’.
7. ‘Poetry serves no useful purpose.’ Please discuss this statement objectively.
8. You have been asked to talk to a Youth Club (mixed membership) on ‘Choosing a job’. Prepare a speech on these lines.
9. You are crippled from the waist down, but have surmounted this disability with courage and are a well-known designer (of what you please); give a talk to an audience of blind people on ‘Living with our Lot’.
10. You are to open an end of year church bazaar. Prepare an appropriate speech for the occasion.
11. Make a speech attacking thrift on the grounds that it is ‘a cowardly virtue’.
12. Talk, briefly, to the children of a junior school (in the presence of the headmaster and staff), on the life of some great men.

13. Make a strongly persuasive speech for or against "Total Abstinence".
14. The village shrine used as a hall by villagers has stood in your town for nearly a hundred years. It is now being pulled down to make way for a cinema. At the Local Council meeting make a speech condemning this venture.

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HUMAN COMMUNICATION

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In this chapter, you will learn basic issues and key concepts that will help your understanding of communication as a human phenomenon and as a life skill. The chapter will also teach you different forms of communication, communication models, and barriers to communication. In addition, you will learn about communication principles and models.

Our aim is to help to equip you with basic information that will enable you to develop skills and strategies that will enhance your communication competence as an active member of your society.

Why Is The Study Of Communication Vital?

It is important to know that communication moves the world. There is no single human enterprise or activity that does not require communication in one form or another. Education, professional training and preparation for service in the world of work require communication. Getting employment or the recruitment of personnel in all walks of life demands communication. Maintenance of security and defense are issues which will flounder in frustration without communication. Trade and commerce, whether at local, national or across international boundaries require communication. Religion is also sustained by communication. Think about the work priests and religious leaders do when they give sermons, think about the preachers who go on evangelical campaigns. Without communication the spread of religious morals and doctrines would have been very difficult if not impossible. The advancement of science and technology will be difficult without communication.

There is no doubt that you have witnessed political campaigns by political party candidates. You have also watched people present their manifestos during political rallies. These

instances typify one of the domains of communication. Parliamentary debates and procedures are in place because of communication. The mass media functions because there is something known as communication. Families thrive and friendship exists because there is communication. Communication is the anchor pin on which life revolves and it is something nobody can do without.

Communication and self Image

Many people have false image of themselves. One thing that helps a person to understand and appreciate the person in him is communication. Every person communicates with himself and with others. These processes help to make a person's self concept or image become evident. Communication with oneself, therefore, is a key to self identity. Every person is a public relations officer. Our relationship with other people will be hampered if our ability to communicate is poor. Social interaction that produces the intended result is one that grows from good communication skills. People admire, love and respect you if you have good communication skills. Think about people in your community who have good command of communication skills. Think about how a master of ceremony who communicates effectively thrills the audience, commands attention and admiration, then you will appreciate how useful a course in communication skills is.

Governance is so important in the affairs of every nation today. Effective communication is required for good governance and leadership. A course in communication and communication skills becomes relevant in the preparation of citizens for this role.

One of the inalienable rights of citizens in a free state is freedom of speech. Every citizen has the right to be heard on matters that affect him. This citizenship right can only be enforced when the citizen has the communication ability in a common and acceptable language medium. Again, this underscores the reasons for the study of communication skills.

Modern industrial practice and management require people who are efficient communicators. Entrepreneurs will therefore not accept any employee who lacks the basic skills in communication.

Communication helps an individual to understand other people and to predict their response to issues. Life without communication is void. Communication sustains and mediates life.

Communication Defined

We are sure that you can, with certainty, tell why a course in communication skills is necessary here. But what is communication? Communication is defined differently by different experts. Communication is a life skill and a basic feature of all human communities and organizations. Communication among human beings is a continuous exercise which takes place whenever people make contact with one another. Human communication is quite distinct from the way animals and other lower creatures communicate. Perceptions of the meaning of this vital human activity among scholars continue to change as theoretical orientations continue to widen.

Devito cited in Otagburuagu (2004:1) posits that communication is the act by one or more persons, of sending and receiving messages undistorted by noise within a context with some effect and some opportunity for feedback. This definition reveals the basic nature of communication as an interactive, two-way process. Furthermore, it shows that communication does not take place in a vacuum; it is context and situationally-based with response or feedback as its hallmark.

Communication can also be defined as a way of sending and processing messages usually through a medium which is both acceptable and familiar to the sender and the receiver. Meaning is the synthesis and the quintessence of every communication act. Simply put, communication takes place only when the sender's message is understood by the receiver. In a communication process, the sender and the receiver of a message must operate from the same semantic field or level of meaning. It is on this basis that Wood has defined communication as a systematic process in which individuals interact with one another through symbols to create and interpret meanings (17).

Communication in the human context and the type we give emphasis here is verbal communication which is based on the use of

words and "human language" (this will be elaborated on in the subsection where we discuss communication types).

The Nature of Communication

Communication has many attributes which include the following:

1. communication is dynamic;
2. it is a process which is interaction-based;
3. it is systematic;
4. it involves encoding and decoding processes;
5. it is fed and sustained by feedback;
6. it is culturally recreated and sustained;
7. it utilizes time as a critical element.

Pearson et al. (2005:222) have elaborated on time as an important factor in the communication process. They postulate a bipolar universal time frame for human communication as follows:

- a) "M-Time = the monochromic time schedule which compartmentalizes time to meet personal needs, separates tasks, and social dimensions, and points to the future.
- b) P-Time = "The polychromic time schedule where a culture views time as contextually based and relationally oriented", (Pearson, et al. p. 222).

M-Time culture is associated with the use of time in the western world. But p-time culture characterizes the use of time in the African culture. In p-time culture, natural phenomena such as sun-rise, sun-set, rainfall, cock-crow, the position of the sun etc can shape and determine the use of time in communication. People involved in communication acts are not in a hurry to terminate it to meet appointments or cut it short because it may affect relationships in the long run.

On the other hand, those in M-time culture according to Pearson and his associates "strive mainly to stay on schedule, be efficient, and value tasks over relationships ..." Time-culture can therefore pose limitations to communication if it is not properly managed.

The concept of chronemics or temporal time is also important in the process of message transmission and reception. In the literature, Chronemics is defined as the manner in which individuals

organize and utilize time to develop messages and use them in the communication process, (Pearson, et.al P 115).

In P-time cultures, time is elastic. The language medium with its tonal nuances adds a new dimension to this elasticity. The English language with its prosodic and stress-timing characteristics may impose communication problems for some people in this culture who use it as a second language and only a few of such users may successfully adapt to the English language usage culture. Many other users often impose the P-time communication habits on their use of English as a second language and in their attempt to keep faith with the two contrasting cultures, a mismatch in the linguistic codes which could lead to communication failure often results.

8. Meta-talk is another Attribute of Communication. Meta-talk is defined as the use of language that may not have immediate cues or antecedents or meaning to those outside the communication event. For example, if a speaker says: "give me a call", an outsider may not be able to understand the underlying reasons for the request.

Review Questions

- Why is the study of communication vital?
- What is the relationship between communication and a person's self-image?
- Give a lucid definition of communication.
- Outline the eight major features of the nature of communication.
- What is M-time in communication?
- Define chronemics.
- What is P-time in communication and how does time affect communication in your own culture?
- Explain the concept of meta-talk

Types of Communication

In this sub-section, we shall examine the different types of communication. It is important to state that scholars of communication studies have used different indices to classify

communication. However, we shall adopt a simple modal and interactive approach to identify some of the basic types here. In doing this, we state for the guidance of our readers, and without any iota of doubt, that communication typologies far exceed the number we shall present here. For our purpose, we identify the following types of communication:

- Verbal communication
- Intra- personal communication
- Inter-personal communication
- Small group communication
- Public communication
- Inter-cultural communication
- Media communication
- In-group communication

Let us now learn something about each of these types.

Verbal Communication

Verbal communication is human specific and word-based. Verbal communication is that type of communication which people engage in when they use words. It is contrasted with the non-verbal communication or communication which relies on non-linguistic elements. Verbal communication unlike the non-verbal type is structured and can be learnt formally. Verbal communication thrives on regulative and constitutive rules. Regulative rules in verbal communication are those considerations which help an individual to choose appropriate topics when dealing with different people, in different situations at different levels of human endeavour. Constitutive rules are those principles that help an individual to show respect, disrespect or guide some one's reactions in a communication event to earn approval or disapproval. Verbal communication is largely a linguistic phenomenon which can be used to:

- express feelings, emotions, ideas and thoughts,
- pass information to a wide variety of audience,
- inculcate ethical values and morals to the younger generation,
- sustain education and scholarship,

- e. trade and engage in various commercial activities,
- f. promote governance and politics.

Intrapersonal Communication

This is communication that occurs within an individual. The person communicates with himself. This involves thoughts, feelings and the way the individual looks at himself. The things that make up the self according to Hybels and Weaver, (1998:17) are:

- i) appearance, physical and psychological conditions – health, good frame of mind, neatness, cleanliness, style of speech and dressing;
- ii) social traits – outgoing, assertive, warm, emphatic, firm, humble, mean, etc;
- iii) The talents one possesses or lacks – artistic, musical, athletic, creative, productive, etc.
- iv) Intellectual capacity – logical, reflective, studious, speculative, etc.
- v) beliefs system – religious beliefs, beliefs about families, beliefs about life and success, beliefs about education and patriotism.
- vi) social roles – parent, family, provider, community leader, professional person etc.
- vii) moods and feelings – humours, anger, hate, love, contentment etc.

All these things put together show you who you are: what you say, what you think, what you feel and how you are. Here, you are the sender and receiver of the message which is made up of your thoughts and feelings. Your brain that processes what you are thinking is the channel while the feedback is what you take to yourself and what ideas you discard and the ideas you replace with others.

Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication is usually informal and it takes place in an unstructured setting. It involves one-to-one interaction. It involves mostly two or more people; hence, it is called interpersonal communication. In a conversation between husband and wife for

example, each brings in his/her own ideas and experience and serves as a sender or a receiver. The message will include verbal and non-verbal communication and the channel is sight and sound. Hybels & Weaver (1998) posit that “because interpersonal communication is between two (or a few) people, it offers the greatest opportunity for feedback. Internal noise is likely to be minimal because each person can see whether the other is distracted. The persons involved in the conversation have many chances to check that the message is being perceived correctly” (Hybels and Weaver 1998: 18).

Small-group Communication

Small-group communication occurs when a small number of people come together to solve a problem. This group has to be small to enable every member interact with all the other members. It is more complex than interpersonal communication because with more people talking or sending messages, there is bound to be confusion. But since they are meeting for a specific purpose, the messages are more structured. This kind of communication uses the same channels as interpersonal communication and gets more feedback. They meet in a more formal setting because it is problem-solving in nature.

In-Group Communication

This is communication by members of an in-group. Usually, the communication may be based on the use of secret symbols or codes. This communication type often combines the use of graphic images, materials, and paralingualistic elements. The communication is usually unintelligible to outsiders.

Public Communication

Public communication is where the speaker sends a message to an audience in a formal setting. In public communication, the voice is louder and the gestures are more expansive because the audience is bigger. Here, because of the large number of people receiving the message, the speaker may use additional visual channels such as slides, flip charts, power-point, and television, among others, to reach the audience. In public communication, the opportunity for verbal feedback is limited. The audience may or may not ask

questions at the end or send a non-verbal feedback. The non-verbal feedback may include applause (to show appreciation), fidgeting, shuffling of feet or outright switch-off (to show dislike).

Intercultural Communication

This is the type of communication which varies among people that come from different cultures. By culture we mean, norms, values and symbols of a people. Intercultural in our context then means communication across cultures. For example, in Nigeria, as a multicultural nation, communication must be such that puts into consideration the different norms, values and symbols of the diverse ethnic nationalities. If this is not done, their communication will probably end in misunderstanding and quarrelling. Hence, intercultural communication occurs whenever two or more people from different cultures interact. The main target here is to study how differences between people affect their perceptions of the world around them and communication.

Media and New Technologically-based Communication

Media and new technologically-based communication has to do with communication to an audience through high technology such as Information and Communication Technology (ICT), films, radio, television and telecommunications (land and mobile phones). In this era of technologically-driven fast life, we are provided with very fast means of communication to reach the world at large. These media include: fax machines, computers, mobile machines, video conferencing, and internet facilities. All these media facilitate communication and help to make the world a global village.

Organizational Communication

This is also a growing area of interest in communication. Here aspects of work life such as interviewing, listening, organizational culture, making presentations, leadership and decision making have been looked into. Wood (1997) states: "Organizational culture refers to the understanding about identity and codes of thought and action that are shared by members of an organization. Some organizations think of themselves as families. From this understanding of who they

are, emerges rules for how to interact with each other and how fully to (sic) commit to work" (29).

Scholars also studied another area of organizational communication, which is a personal relationship among co-workers. The relationship among co-workers increases as the hours spent at work increase. Romantic and sexual relationships increase because there are more female workers than males. This is the reason for added interest and complications to life since men and women also try to understand each other's language. Women and men communicate differently in a number of ways and they frequently misunderstand one another. Wood (1997:30) posits that women tend to make more "listening noises", such as "um", "uh", and "go on", than men do. If men do not make these noises when communicating with female colleagues, they may think the men are not listening. On the other hand, men are likely to misinterpret the listening noises women make as signaling agreement, rather than just interest. Such misunderstanding can strain professional relationships and performance.

Ethics and Communication

All forms of communication involve ethical issues. Wood posits that ethical dimensions of intrapersonal communication include the influence of stereo types and judgments we make and the beliefs we hold (1997: 31). In interpersonal communication, scholars focus on ethics which border on issues such as honesty, compassion and fairness in relationships. The conformity pressure is the main concern of ethics and communication in groups. In all communication situations, there are ethical considerations. These include "whether people misrepresent information, or misquote statistics" (1997: 32) for their convenience.

Another ethical issue relevant to a range of communication contexts concerns attitudes and actions that encourage or hinder freedom of speech. Are all members of an organization equally empowered to speak? What does it mean when audiences shout down a speaker with unpopular views? How does the balance of power between relationship or partners affect each person's freedom to express himself or herself (1997: 32).

Elements of Communication

Communication process is made up of various elements such as: sender-receiver, messages, channels, feedback and setting. Let us take a look at each of the elements.

a) Sender-receiver

People get involved in communication because they have information, ideas, and feelings they want to express or share with others. The sharing is two dimensional, one sends ideas, and the other receives and sends feedback. In communication situations, most people are sender-receivers: sending and receiving at the same time. For example, in a discussion class, as each speaker sends messages, he receives the feedback immediately from his colleagues.

b) Message

Message consists of the ideas and feelings that a sender-receiver wants to share. Ideas and feelings can be communicated only if they are represented by symbols. Hybels and Weaver defined symbol as "something that stands for something else" (1998: 8). They identify two types of symbols: verbal and non-verbal. Every word in a language is a 'verbal symbol' that stands for a particular thing or idea. However, verbal symbols are limited and complicated. For example, the word 'table' will mean something to write on. This makes it a concrete symbol which represents an object. When we hear the word 'table', we may have different impressions – it could be an idea, for example, to table your case, it could be a concrete object: dining table, centre table, ironing table etc. We agree with Hybels and Weaver in this view.

The abstract symbols are more complicated because they stand for ideas. How people understand words like 'school, home, hungry or lead will be determined by their experiential map and content. And since people's experience differs to some degree, they will assign different meanings to these words. Words have different layers of meaning in communication depending on usage and content. The first layer is the denotative meaning or the plain sense meaning. The second level is the connotative meaning which is

sometimes referred to as the associative meaning. There is also the third level which is described as the contextual meaning that derives from the relationship a word has with some other words in a sentence. Every layer of meaning counts in communication. Some words are neutral, others are loaded with emotions. Words in the latter class are called emotive words. Those involved in communication acts must therefore understand the different levels of meaning which words have and the nature of words as the building blocks of effective communication. A person should not use emotive words when neutral ones are needed.

By elements of communication we also mean the items or media that are vital for the communication process. Elements of communication include:

- (i) The persons sending and receiving the information
- (ii) The text or message to be sent or received.
- (iii) The process of encoding the text or message in correct codes.
- (iv) The channel or the medium through which the message or text will be conveyed.

Communication Models

A model is a proto type often constructed from a given principle or theory to facilitate understanding. Communication theories are therefore simple structures constructed to help people to understand the dynamics of the communication process. There are many communication models. Some of these are named after those who formulated them. We present here a few of these models.

i. The Linear Model

This model was developed by Claude Shannon, an engineer in the Bell telephone company. The model was first a correction and monitoring mechanism but was later developed to a model level communication of texts. The model has been described by Lasswell (1948) as "a one-way process" in which an individual acts on another.

ii **The Interactive Model**

Willbur Schram (1954) looked at communication as essentially a bi-polar process involving two major processes - message encoding and decoding. The encoding was sender based while the decoding process resided with the receiver. According to him, people create, guess and arrive at meaning whenever they communicate. Ability to create and manipulate information in communication depended on the experiential field of those in the process. The wider the experiential field the better the ability to create and manipulate communication data. Schram, added other elements such as feedback setting or context and culture to stress the interactive nature of the process and the fact that communication culture is specific and people driven. This model accounts for what Wood (1997:19) has described as "bilateral communication between two parties. Its greatest weakness is the failure to account for 'multiple level communication' (Wood 1997:19).

iii **The Transactional Model**

This model was developed by Barnlund (1970). Its major characteristics are that it emphasizes the dynamic nature of communication and underscores the importance of time in the process. The model examines the effect of shared experience and knowledge on communication. The effect of common culture, training and background is also integrated in the model as important antecedents for effective communication. Other models of communication include:

- a. Non-linear model
- b. Helical Communication model
- c. Westley and Macleaus conceptual model
- d. Multi-dimensional model.

There is no limit to the postulation of models. New models can be developed by researchers to draw attention to some elements which the earlier models had failed to treat. Readers may consult literature for the details of the models which we have not discussed in this volume.

Communication Barriers

There are certain barriers that can impede effective communication. A barrier in this context is any obstacle, internal or external, which will not allow effective flow of message from the sender to the receiver and will not enhance effective feedback. Some of these barriers include:

1. **Environmental Barriers**

The environment can impose barriers on communication. Environmental barriers may arise in different ways. For example, the physical landscape or terrain may hinder communication. A swampy terrain, a flooded region, etc may impede certain types of communication which may involve traveling.

Again, areas prone to strong wind storms, heavy rainfall, or thunderstorm may create barriers to media and other forms of communication.

2. **Language Barrier**

Imagine when an illiterate Igbo person who cannot speak any other language meets an illiterate Hausa man who does not know any other language except Hausa. You will immediately appreciate how language could pose a barrier to communication. Both men may not be able to initiate and sustain verbal communication.

Another way in which language may pose a barrier to communication as Otagburuagu (2009) has pointed is "when vocabulary is inappropriate or language structure is wrong." (p.6).

3. **Cultural Barrier**

Cultural barrier may mean the constraints that arise from a people's cultural background which may hinder communication. For example, a young man in Yoruba culture does not give a handshake to an elder when greeting him. If an Igbo young man who shakes hands as a way of greeting according to his culture meets that elderly Yoruba man, who anticipates prostration from him, and offers a handshake, it will be taken as an insult. Whatever he would like to tell that elder will not be taken in good faith. In this way, communication could break down.

Readers are advised to consult other books on communication for other types of barriers and their details.

Exercise

Answer the following questions to help you to remember what you learnt in this unit:

1. Discuss the elements of communication.
2. What is feedback?
3. What is communication model? Discuss any three models you have learnt in this course.
4. What are regulative and constitutive rules in verbal communication?
5. List the types of communication you have studied in this chapter and discuss any **three** of them.
6. Discuss the barriers to effective communication.

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Chapter Thirteen

THE LANGUAGE OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

L. N. Nwodo, Ph. D

Introduction

The primary function of language is to communicate for social purposes. Language is a tool for self-expression and developing various levels of relationships with others. However, just as it is important to know how to use particular tools for their respective purposes, it is equally important to know how to use language for effective communication in all areas, but particularly for purposes of social interaction. The language of social interaction may be investigated from four major perspectives – language as a communication system, interpersonal communication, communication in groups and public communication. These areas would require separate chapters, if they are to be adequately addressed and so it is not possible to discuss all four perspectives in one chapter. Therefore, this chapter intends to look at the language of social interaction as it concerns us particularly when used as a communication system.

1.2 The Nature of Language

In this section, we will discuss the nature of language in terms of its origin and functions as they relate to social interaction. Various theories that attempt to explain how language originated all point to one overriding aspect that permeates all these theories. This one major factor is that language use and development appears to be related to the need for social interaction. Yule (1985:1-5) discusses four major theories about how language started. These theories are the "Divine Source", "Natural Sounds Source", "Oral – Gesture Source" and "Physiological Adaptation". These four theories offer different explanations about how language started. The "Divine Source" theory believes that language originated from God. The "Natural Sounds Source" believes language started from humans

echoing natural sounds around them and using such sounds to label objects. The "Oral-Gesture Source" feels that language is a complex network of lip/mouth/tongue movements that represent movements similar to physical gestures. The fourth theory, that of "Physiological Adaptation", believe that language developed because man is physically built to have the capacity to use language. These theories indicate first of all, the complex nature of language development and secondly, the importance of social interaction in language use and development.

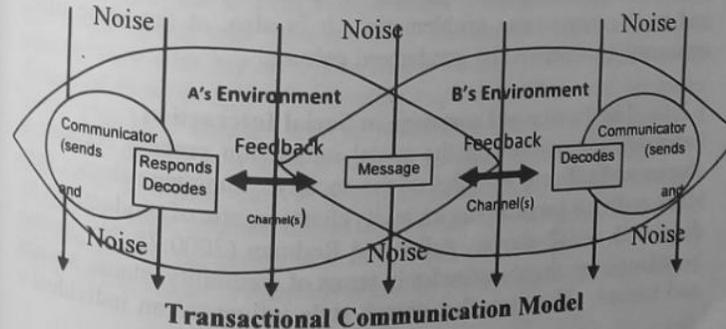
The fact that none of the four theories discussed above explains fully how language originated indicates that language is a highly complex communication system that evolved through the need for social interaction. Yule (1985:17 – 22) identifies six characteristics which distinguish language from other communication systems. These six features are productivity, arbitrariness, displacement, discreteness, duality and cultural transmission. Productivity refers to the element of language which makes it creative in terms of being able to say things in many different ways. Also, it refers to the fact that when new concepts are introduced, new words also evolve to encompass these new ideas. Arbitrariness is related to the symbolic nature of language. Language is arbitrary because there is no evident link between an object, concept etc. and the symbols, both in speech and writing, used to refer to such an object, concept etc. Displacement means that language may be used to refer to past, present or future time. Discreteness refers to the fact that language comprises different distinct sounds, each of which has individual meanings. For example, English language has 44 distinct speech sounds. Duality means that language has two levels. The first level is of sounds and the second of meanings. This feature makes it possible for speech sounds to be produced alone or arranged in various ways to form different words. For example, the speech sounds /p/, /l/, /t/ may be arranged to form /pit/ (pit), /tip/ (tip), /it/ (it). Finally, cultural transmission, which means that language, is passed from one generation to the next. Cultural transmission is a feature of language that shows us that language development and utility may be

attributed to a large extent to the fact that social interaction is an essential element of human life.

1.3 Language as a Communication System for Social Interaction

Language appears to be more complicated than other communication systems and at the same time more all-encompassing. Communication in language involves a triangular process of three major components: the sender of the message, the message itself and the receiver of the message. The sender of a message may also be the receiver of a message and vice versa. Each message uses a particular code and channel to communicate. Code refers to the manner in which the sender or receiver constructs the message. So the sender/receiver may decide to construct a message verbally or construct a message in a non-verbal way or a combination of both. Channel means the medium selected for communication. The medium for communication may be spoken, written, visual and so on. Adler and Rodman (2000:12) use a transactional model to describe the process of communication. This model as reproduced in Figure 1 below shows that communicators send, receive, decode and respond to messages. The responses to the messages provide feedback for further responses. Feedback may be verbal, non-verbal or a combination of both. However, feedback is a very important component in the communication process, particularly in social interaction, because it tells us whether a given interaction is going as it should or otherwise.

Fig. 1



David Crystal (1987:10) says that the primary function of language is for social interaction. Although there are other functions of language, such as for physical health, identity projection and practical problem solving needs; the social function appears to be the most dominant. According to Crystal, the social interaction function of language is to maintain a rapport between people. This function of language is used to maintain social balance by indicating friendliness or comradeship. Example of expressions that are used to maintain a comfortable relationship between people include "Good morning" or "How are you?" Crystal explains that the main purpose of these expressions and others like them is both as a greeting and as a way to maintain cordial relationships with people around you. He also remarks that these types of phrases are often automatic and stereotyped. In addition, particular responses are usually needed for these expressions such as "Good morning" to "Good morning" or "Fine thanks" to "How are you?" Any other response to these expressions or no response at all, would be considered inappropriate, unless the persons involved in the social interaction process of greet and be greeted share a special close relationship or are simply being humorous. The fact of the matter is that these expressions and their responses have become so stereotyped through constant use that they have become almost meaningless, except as a way to express cordiality to another person. Bronishlaw Malinowski (1884 – 1942) coined the phrase "phatic communion" to refer to this social interaction function of language. Adler and Rodman (2000) discuss the fact that language used for communication during the process of social interaction is powerful and at the same time problematic. It is also, at the same time, apparently influenced by gender and culture.

1.3.1 The Power of Language in Social Interaction

Language is powerful in the social interaction process because it shapes and reflects attitudes of the society. Language shapes new ideas and vice versa as shown by its characteristic of productivity as discussed in 1.2 above. Adler and Rodman (2000:75-79) discuss how language shapes attitudes in terms of credibility, status, sexism and racism. They say that speech style influences an individual's

perception of the credibility and status of the person speaking. Thus, a speaker's accent, choice of words and speech-rate influence the listener either positively or negatively. In regard to sexism the use of the generic pronoun "he" often results in misconceptions that whatever is being discussed refers to the male gender, although it may be equally applicable to females. The frequent use of the pronoun "he" in a generic manner gives the impression that the world is created for just men, hence the expression "a man's world". This kind of misconception has led to conscious efforts to devise gender impartial and/or gender sensitive language. Language that is gender sensitive refers to women and feminine ways in a dignified, respectful manner. Such examples of gender correctness in language include, referring to women who use sexual activities to trade as "sex workers" instead of "prostitutes". Thus, language that is gender impartial means the use of terms and expressions that are not gender specific as for example referring to "policemen" or "police women" as "police officers" and referring to "firemen" as "fire fighters" and so on.

In the same way, that language shapes gender attitudes, it also shapes attitudes to race. Language maybe used negatively to label groups using derogatory terms, and by so doing set them apart and place them in an unfavourable light. For example, in Nigeria, one ethnic group may use various derogatory linguistic labels to describe another ethnic group or even to describe a group of people within their own ethnic group. These labels are intended to insult or demean. For example, the label used in the past to describe the indigenous people of the present Enugu North Local Government Area (LGA) in the present Enugu State by others within the same Igbo ethnic group was "Ndi wa wa". The literal translation of this term is "they who say no". The term "wa wa" is derived from the dialect of these people who use the expression "wa wa" to mean "no". This label isolated a word which was specifically associated with these people and used it to refer to them in an insulting way, because at that time they were felt to be inferior in education and exposure to their counterparts in other areas of Igboland. What often happens is that the group who is referred to by a derogatory term decide to use the term themselves and by so doing reverse the effect

of stigmatization to one of pride in their cultural values. Thus today, the term "wa wa" is used by the people who use it in their dialect to refer to themselves and there are also clamouring for the creation of a Wa Wa State!

Adler and Rodman (2000:79-83) discuss also that language not only shapes attitude, but also reflects attitudes. They give examples of this in relation to affiliations, likes/dislikes and responsibility. They say that in regard to affiliations, language is used to build and demonstrate solidarity with others. Thus, close friends and lovers often develop special terms for one another that set them apart from others. In the same way individuals that belong to a particular group use the same vocabulary, which sets them apart from others, reminding themselves and other people about their special affinity to one another. This form of behaviour is referred to as "convergence". On an opposite level, groups who want to highlight their difference within a homogenous group use the opposing linguistic strategy of "divergence". For example, in southeast Nigeria, there is a standard Igbo language spoken which is referred to as central Igbo. However, different regions have their own dialects which they may use on occasions when central Igbo is expected to be used as a way to assert their difference from other Igbo speakers and show solidarity with those who use the same Igbo dialect as they do.

With regard to language used to show affirmation and negation, Adler and Rodman (2000:30-34) draw attention to linguistic clues that reveal attitudes of like and dislike. For example:

- i) Demonstrative pronoun choice.
 - (a) These people want our help (positive)
 - (b) Those people want our help (less positive)
- ii) Negative
 - (a) It's good (positive)
 - (b) It's not bad (less positive)
- iii) Sequential placement
 - (a) Ebele and Musa (Ebele is more important)
 - (b) Musa and Ebele (Musa is more important)

In addition, to language reflecting a positive or negative view, there are also linguistic clues that indicate attitudes to willingness to accept responsibility or otherwise. For example:

- iv) "it" versus "I" statements
 - (a) *It's* not finished (less responsible)
 - (b) *I* didn't finish it (more responsible)
- v) "You" versus "I" statements
 - (a) Sometimes *you* make me annoyed (less responsible)
 - (b) Sometimes *I* get annoyed when you do that (more responsible)
- vi) "But" statements
 - (a) I think it's a good idea, *but* it won't work ("but" cancels out the positive)
 - (b) I don't think it's a good idea but it can be tried out (*but* is positive)
- vii) Questions versus statements
 - (a) Do you think we should do that? (less responsible)
 - (b) I don't think we should do that (more responsible)

1.3.2 The Problems of Language in Social Interaction

The very fact that we use symbols in language that is written or spoken words, to represent objects, concepts etc. means that communication may be imprecise or misunderstood. The problematic nature of language during social interaction is due to this imprecision. If, for example, one goes to the library and requests to borrow a book, without any specification about which book, the library staff may find it difficult to assist. In the same way if words are mispronounced such as "sheep" instead of "ship" or vice versa, one may need to discern the meaning intended through the context, but where this is not possible, communication may break down. Also situations where one may not understand a concept because it is out of one's experience or knowledge may lead to communication breakdown.

Most language problems are associated with semantics in the sense that we do not understand a message completely or accurately. Adler and Rodman (2000:83-93) classify three categories of problematic language –

1. The language of misunderstandings
2. Disruptive language
3. Evasive language

1. The Language of Misunderstandings

Under the language of misunderstandings, they discuss:

- a) Equivocal language, those are words that have more than a dictionary definition, b) relative terms, c) slang, d) jargon and e) overly abstract language.

Equivocal language, because it has more than one meaning, may be ambiguous and therefore lead to misunderstandings. Adler and Rodman use examples that draw attention to language used between men and women when a man is making sexual advances to a woman. Their research showed that women often use ambiguous phrases such as "I'm not sure that we're ready for this" or "let's wait a while" to say "no" to a man's advances. However, the men often do not see these phrases as another way of saying "no" and often persist in their unwelcome advances.

Another cause for misunderstanding in language is the use of relative terms. Relative terms gain meaning through comparisons. Also, one's conception of relative terms is equally dependent on one's experience and personality. Thus a "tough" exam for one person may be "easy" for another. Something that is "unlikely" to happen may mean to one person that it has 0% of happening, while to another it may mean it has up to a 40% probability of happening. Slang and jargon, two birds of the same feather, may also result in misunderstanding "slang is language used by a group of people who belong to a similar co-culture or other group" as defined by Adler and Rodman (2000:84). Slang maybe related to geographical region, dialect, age, and expression of identity. For example, Nigerian young people of today refer to a person who is intelligent in a wily way as "sharp", a pretty girl as being "fine" and a request to someone to move is "shift". Jargon is also used by people who have common backgrounds and experiences. It represents a specialized vocabulary that refers to certain technical terms, processes and ideas within a particular group. For example, AWOL (absent without leave) is a military term used to refer to soldiers who have absconded from their duty post without permission. One interesting feature of jargon is

that it may go beyond the particular group of people using it to become a general term used by others to refer to similar attitudes. This trend is noticed in the case of the term "AWOL" in Nigeria, which is now used generally, and usually humorously, to refer to people who leave their work places for extended periods of time without reference to a higher authority.

The last category listed under language that causes misunderstandings is language that is too abstract. Abstract language may be beneficial if one wants to present a confrontation or avoid hurting someone's feelings. For example vague expressions like "I don't know", "It's really different", "It might work" and so on instead of direct statement that shows one's true feelings about something. However, there are two major problems with language that is too abstract. The first is that it creates stereotypical attitudes, because it is too general. Take for example the statement "Nigeria is a football-crazy country" which gives the impression that all Nigerians love football. The result therefore, is that any Nigerian encountered by a non-Nigerian is perceived as a football fan whether such a person is actually a football fan or not. The second problem about language that is over abstract is that it may lead to confusing others as in for example, when someone who has a wardrobe full of clothes complains: "I have nothing to wear!" A number of meanings may be attributed to this statement including that the clothes the person already owns are unsuitable for the occasion or the clothes are old or the clothes have been worn to the same occasion frequently or within the same circle of friends many times over or perhaps for some other reason that is not identified here. The point is that such an abstract statement is only fully clear to the person expressing it, and anyone else may be confused. Adler and Rodman (2000:87) claim that the best way to avoid overly abstract language is to use behavioural descriptions instead. Behavioural descriptions identify the specific and observable aspects being discussed in a conversation. A clear behavioural description answers three questions:

Who is involved? Are you speaking for just yourself or for others as well? Are you talking about a group of people ("the neighbours",

“women”) or specific individuals (“the people next door who play loud music,” “Nkem and Lizzie”)?

In what circumstances do you or another person behave in a particular way? Where does it occur? Everywhere? Or in specific places (at social functions, at work, in public)? When does it occur? When you’re tired? When a certain subject comes up? The behaviour you are describing probably does not occur all the time. It is important that you identify the circumstances that set this situation apart from other ones.

What types of behaviour are involved? Though terms such as “more cooperative” and “helpful” might sound like concrete descriptions of behaviour they are usually too vague to do a clear job explaining what’s on your mind. Instead define that what you mean by cooperative behaviour might mean allowing others to talk as well as yourself and the word “helpful” should be related to a specific action.

2. Disruptive Language

Disruptive language which leads to unnecessary disputes are again classed in three groups by Adler and Rodman (2000: 89 – 91).

- Fact – Opinion Confusion
- Fact – Inference Confusion
- Emotive Language

The first two groups refer to statements made that are expressed as facts, but which are actually opinions or inferences. Factual statements are claims that may be proved to be either true or false. On the other hand, opinion statement are based on a speaker’s belief and cannot be verified or disproved. Inferential statements are conclusions that are drawn by an individual based on her or his interpretation of the evidence. The problems that can arise by presenting an opinion or inference as a fact are monumental. One only has to think back to Nigeria’s history of inter-religious unrest to realize the grave danger of individuals presenting their opinions or inferences about a particular religion as facts. The same problem applies to sentiments in every area of life particularly emotive issues such as politics, abortion and marriage to name but a view. For example:

Fact

- viii(a) English language is spoken by more than 750 million people in the world.

Fact

- ix(a) You didn’t finish the physics exam because you were distracted by your friends in the exam hall.

Opinion

- viii (b) Everyone in the world speaks English.

Inference

- ix(b) You don’t care whether you pass the physics exam or not.

Adler and Rodman say that the best way to avoid unpleasant confrontations is to make sure those opinions or inferences do not masquerade as facts. This means that qualifiers like “In my opinion” or “It seems to me” should be added before statements that are based on your personal beliefs or ideas not factual.

Emotive language refers to language that sounds like it is describing something when it is actually presenting an opinion. For example, if you like a piece of music you may refer to it as “classic” “harmonious” or use similar complimentary word which evoke positive connotations or positive mental images related to the music. However, if you do not like that particular piece of music you may refer to it as “out dated”, “out of tune” or similar less complimentary words that evoke negative connotations or negative mental images in relation to the music. Connotation refers to personal feelings and mental associations aroused by words, whereas denotation refers to the objective dictionary definition of a word.

3. Evasive Language

Evasive language is the third type of language that may create problems during social interaction. Unlike the language of misunderstanding and disruptive language, which may not be deliberate, evasive language is a strategy used during social interaction to avoid sending clear messages. There are two major types:

- Euphemisms and
- Equivocation.

Euphemisms and equivocation are both classed as evasive language by Adler and Rodman (2000:92 – 3). A euphemism is derived from a word in Greek and means, “to use words of good omen”. This

means that unpleasant things are put in a nice way to avoid embarrassment. For example, calling someone "plump" instead of "fat", because "plump" has more pleasant connotations than "fat". Euphemisms lead us to the term "political correctness" in language. "Political correctness" is a term used to describe an intentional linguistic trend to use words that build esteem, rather than words which debase or humiliate. Thus, words we use should not refer to an individual's sex, race, culture, and form of employment or physical makeup in an offensive manner. For example, referring to "a disabled person" as being "physically or mentally challenged", saying that an individual engages in "sexual networking with multiple partners" instead of saying an individual is "promiscuous" and calling someone a "sanitary disposal attendant" instead of a "dustbin man". Equivocation has already been discussed in this chapter under the language misunderstandings and requires no further discussion here.

1.3.3 Language and Gender in Social Interaction

As stated earlier, language reflects concepts about women and men in a given society. However, in addition, research by Haas and Sherman (1982: 453 – 54) shows that during social interaction men and women vary in the following ways:

- 1) Selection of content for discussion
- 2) Reasons for discussion and
- 3) Conversational style

Their research found that for example, female friends spend more time discussing personal and domestic subjects, relationship problems, family, health and reproductive matters, weight, food, clothing, men and other women. Men, however, spent time discussing music, current events, sports, business and other men. Personal appearance, sex and dating were discussed equally by both sexes, within their own gender group in regard to reasons for communication. This same research showed that one of the major reasons women talk to other women is to fulfill a social need because they enjoy sharing ideas and experiences whereas men's reason for communication is more official and less personal.

In terms of conversation style, research by Giles and Street Jr. (1985:205 – 61) discovered that women and men behave differently in conversations. In mixed sex conversations women ask more questions and talk less in a dyadic situation, but more in group situations. Dyadic communication is a term used to describe communication between two people. Mulac et al (1988: 315-35) found females use more questions, justifiers, intensive adverbs, personal pronouns and adverbs. Males use more directives, interruptions and filler words to begin sentences. However, these differences are not clearly defined and social interaction of both genders, either intra or inter-gender, may show features that research has classed as exclusively male gender or female gender behaviour.

1.3.4 Language and Culture in Social Interaction

Adler and Rodman (2000:98 -101) describe the influence of culture in the language used during social interactions is related to the following elements:

- 1) Language and world view and
- 2) Verbal communication styles.

The Sapir (1884 – 1939) and Whorf (1897 – 1941) Hypothesis combined two ideas to try to establish a link between language and thought. The core of their theory was that the culture in which you grow shapes your perception of the world and at the same time results in the creating and/or use of language to describe your environment in a specific way. However, modern linguists such as Crystal (1987:15) have refuted the assertion of the Sapir – Whorf hypothesis which says that language makes us think in a certain way. However, Crystal does admit that language influences the way we see and remember. Also it appears to be easier to understand concepts in another language, if there is a direct translation for such a concept in one's own language.

Verbal communication styles are dependent on what is referred to as "high-context cultures" or "low-context cultures". Low-context cultures use language primarily to express thoughts, feelings and ideas as clearly and logically as possible. High-context cultures, on the other hand, value language as a means to maintain social harmony. North America would be described as a low-context

culture, whereas Nigeria tends towards the side of high-context culture. The differences in these verbal communication patterns attributed to varying cultures may lead to clashes during social interaction. For example, the low-context culture that believes in straight talk views the high-context culture's attempt to maintain harmony through indirect statements as hedging or evasiveness. On the other hand, the high-context culture, which uses face-saving tactics in language during social interaction, views the directness of the language of the low-context culture as rude and blunt.

1.4 Summary

In this chapter we looked at the language used during social interaction in terms of power, problems, gender and culture.

We began by identifying that the language of social interaction spans four perspectives – Language as a Communication System, Interpersonal Communication, Communication in Groups and Public Communication. However, this chapter examines language from the first perspective. We also said the nature of language in terms of theories about the origin of language seem to show that language is used primarily for and developed through social interaction. Thus, the major function of language appears to be for social interaction purposes.

The focus of this chapter is a practical examination of the language of social interaction as it relates to power, problems, gender issues and cultural dynamics. The power of language in social interaction processes show that language shapes and reflects attitudes in terms of perceptions of credibility, status, sex and race. The problematic nature of language during social interaction is classified into three categories – the language of misunderstandings associated with semantics, disruptive language and evasive language.

The relationship between language and gender during social interaction shows differences between the sexes in content selection for discussion, reasons for communication and conversational styles. Culture and language used during social interaction indicate that world view and verbal communication styles differ between cultures. We found that it might be easier to understand concepts in

another culture if there were direct translations for those concepts in one's own culture. At the same time we discovered that the differences in verbal communication styles between high-context and low-context cultures might lead to communication clashes during social interaction.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. What is the primary function of language?
2. How many perspectives may be used to examine the language of social interaction? What is the perspective discussed in this chapter?
3. In what ways are the theories of the origin of language deficient?
4. Communication in language involves a triangular process in social interaction. State the major factors in the communication system, where communication may break down and why?
5. In what ways does language shape attitudes of the society? Give examples.
6. In what ways does language reflect attitudes of the society? Give examples.
7. Give the reasons for language being problematic during social interaction. Using your own experience, discuss in what ways these problematic elements of language resulted in a communication breakdown during social interaction.
8. State three ways in which women and men may vary during social interaction.
9. Give two examples that show that the verbal communication style used in Nigeria is indicative of a high-context culture.

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Chapter Fourteen

LANGUAGE AND THE PROFESSIONS

M. C. Okoye & C. C. Chibuoke

Introduction

In this Unit, you will learn a few things about language, dialect, and register. The purpose is to help you develop the skill of using language and vocabulary to suit the various contexts and levels of usage and in addition to help you appreciate the value of language variety in communication.

Language

We shall define language through the identification of its various properties or characteristics. So, essentially, human language is innate or specie-specific. Man is born with a linguistic capacity which enables him to acquire language and so, language is peculiar to human beings.

Auditory - Vocal

Language is perceived through the auditory system and is primarily spoken.

Traditional

It is transmittable from one generation to another, unlike the instinctive method of the animals.

Arbitrary

There is no logical connection between a word and its meaning or what it represents

Conventional

There is an agreement among speakers of a language that certain words should refer to certain things and that certain grammatical alterations should be done in particular ways.

Symbolic

This implies that the speech sounds we make refer to some things or calls the conception of objects in our world.

Systematic

This implies that language constitutes of vocal sounds which are systematically linked to form words or sentences. (Ezugu 2) So, language is built in a highly structured system of sound, meaning and of morphology and grammar (syntax).

Creative or Generative

This indicates that language is open ended. There is no limit to the number of words and sentences that could be formed from them. Therefore, every speaker of a language has an infinite generative capacity.

Some Definitions of Language

The *New Webster's Dictionary of English Language* says that language is:

The organized system of speech used by human beings as a means of communication among themselves ... a system used by persons having special knowledge, scientific knowledge... a system adopted to a special purpose, the language of diplomacy; a manner of expressing oneself ... (or) any other organized system of communication, e. g., symbols, mathematical language or gestures ... (554).

Crystal (396) has given a number of definitions by different scholars and some of them are outlined below. According to him, Sapir wrote that, language is purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions by means of a voluntarily produced symbol.

Trager, sees it as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of a society interact in terms of their total culture."

To Chomsky, "language is a set of sentences each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." Hall on the other hand says that language is, the institution whereby human beings communicate and interact by means of habitually used oral auditory symbols.

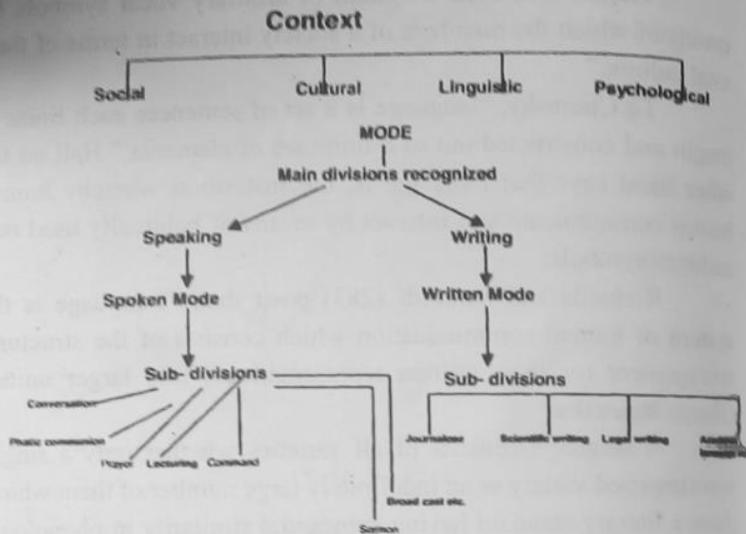
Richards and Schmidt (283) posit that, "Language is the system of human communication which consists of the structural arrangement (or their written representatives) into larger units." Olaoye states that:

A language consists of all varieties whether only a single superimposed variety or an indefinitely large number of them which share a literary standard having substantial similarity in phonology and grammar with the included varieties which are either mutually intelligible or at least connected by a series of intelligible varieties (153).

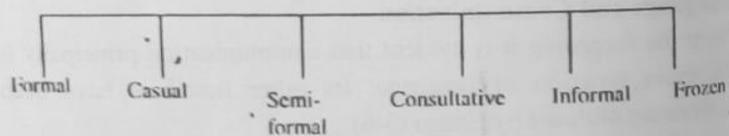
Language and Communication

From the foregoing it is evident that communication principally is the main function of language. Its other functions have been elaborately outlined by Ezugu (3-6).

The two mediums of communicating in any language are through speech (vocal sound) and writing (graphic representation of the variables such as context); tenor (the relationship between the speaker and the participants), the field of discourse, (the topic) mode (spoken or written) and the channel (telephone, letter, face to face). Each of these can be further divided into more variables as diagrammatically represented below.



STYLE OF DISCOURSE



Adapted into diagrammatical form from Olaoye (152-162) and Finch (190,324-235)

Language is therefore used on different occasions for different purposes in various ways in order to communicate. So, a consideration of the features of language used on various occasions for different activities is a consideration, enquiry or description of language usage existing in that language.

1.13 Language Variations

Language varies in a number of ways. Variations within a language are called dialects and dialects also vary. They vary along the lines of differences in education religion, morality, social class, race or region, attitudes, occupations or professions and many other aspects of life. The term dialect could mean "any set of one or more varieties of a language" (Olaoye 153). The many varieties that exist within a language have been elaborately discussed by Fromkin (445-490) and Yule (241-245).

The main factors that cause variation within a language are differences in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary or word choice (Richards et al 577). So, variation in a language may be related to:

Region. Regional dialects vary according to a specific geographical area's use of language.

Social Class: Sociolects or Social Dialects are varieties of language used by groups defined according to class, education gender and a number of other social factors.

Individuals: Individual dialects or idiolects- The speech habits of a single person which varies according to the situation he is in, and the roles he is playing at any point in time. It includes voice quality, physical state and many other social factors.

Situation: Situational Dialects refer to variation in an individual's speech occasioned by the situation, topic, location, degree of formality and informality in which language is used.

Language Style and Register

Style in language is the peculiar manner in which a speaker or writer presents his idea or subject matter so that the speech or writing is different from those of other people" (N.T.I 200). Style varies from casual to formal depending on the type of situation, participants, location, topic discussed and so on (Richards et al (522). Style is organized or patterned language behavior (N.T.I204) and it implies

that the different situations in which language is used calls for different language behaviors in order to fit the circumstance of use. Styles vary and a particular style is referred to as a stylistic variety. Variations can be observed in terms of differences in the use of speech sound, words (lexical items) or expressions, or sentence structures (Richards 522) (Finch 234) and (N.T.I 158 – 159). The following excerpt illustrates this linguistic fact:

- (a) Hi, darling
- (b) Hello, baby
- (c) Hello, dear
- (d) Good morning, Sir
- (e) Dear Subscriber

A man could say "Hi, darling" and "Hello dear" to his wife, son or daughter but not to his boss (superior) in the office. He could say, "Hello baby" to a girlfriend, daughter or even his wife. These are example of very friendly or informal situations of language use. However, the same man in a very formal situation would greet his boss "Good morning Sir", and to his customer "Dear Subscriber" respectively.

This instance of language usage shows that different situations call for different ways of saying the same thing. This accounts for why Turner says that speakers carry with them "not only a knowledge of the vast intricate patterned code, but also an experience of its varying surrounding circumstances"; and that all these, "guide us in making choices from appropriately similar items (of language) in the code (language) to fit particular occasions" (qtd. in N.T.I 200) Nwodo lends credence to that by saying that "the situation determines the type of word used e.g., standard English/Pidgin. One is addressed by people in different ways depending on the context and social relationship" (2) Moody writes that, "our knowledge of a language remains incomplete until we can recognize, interpret and originate all the more subtle and complex signals it permits in relation to the varying needs of personal, social, political and professional involvement" (9). Therefore, the knowledge of a language style involves "knowing what to say, to whom, where and when" (N.T.I 199)

Language Register:

Linguistically, register refers to "a social or situational defined style of language" (Finch 233). Register is also "a variety of language distinguished according to use" (Halliday 87) Gregory says that it is "the linguistic reflection of a user's use of language in situation" (qtd. N.T.I 158). Fromkin et al states that register is "a stylistic variant of a language appropriate to a particular social setting" (593). He also refers to register as "situation dialect." So, to Fromkin et al., style and register are basically the same. Yule sees register as "variation according to use in specific situations" (245) Nnamani (63) and Richards et al (452) respectively share the same view of register as "language peculiar to various profession", and as a speech variety used by a particular group of people usually sharing the same occupation (e.g doctors, lawyers) or the same interest." Register to the last two scholars can therefore be said to mean a stylistic variety of language peculiar to various professions. In all, register refers to a variety of language distinguished according to use. This language use could be peculiar to individual, situation and profession.

Key Features of Register

Though register is often classified into field, mode and tenor of discourse, the key features of a register is language use with regard to the professions, as noted by Yule (245). It is the use of jargons. Jargons are also called "argots" (Fromkin et al 457, 575, 585). They are the technical vocabulary or special words associated with a special activity, profession or group. Socially, jargons help to connect professionals or people within a particular occupation and give them a sense of being "insiders" (Yule 245). It also helps communication within the group (Crystal 378).

In addition to lexical items, the grammatical features in a text can also help in giving clues to what its field of discourse or topic is. Grammatical features can further be used in identifying the intention of the writer or speaker whether he is asking a question, giving an order or an instruction.

Language and the Professions

Language does not exist in a vacuum (Clark 124). It takes place in various ways. It takes place in a context or a situation. The user of a language selects words to adequately suit a particular subject matter or discipline. The disciplines include medicine, agriculture, business studies, journalism, science and technology, religion, politics, and so on.

Each of these professions or subject areas has their special language or words which are related to the subject matter and which will sound odd if wrongly used (Nwodo 1). Such words give the indication that a text belongs to a particular profession. For instance, the words, myopia, arthritis, therapy and symptoms belong to the field of medicine, while the lexical item: credit, sales invoice, way bill, and stock exchange point to commerce. However, sometimes, a word may occur in several fields of activity. The word *court* is used in several registers such as law, kingship, games and favour seeking or love-making (e.g to pay one's court to a lady) (Oladapo et al ix). In addition, the lexical item *head* in biological register means a part of the human body which contains the eyes, ear, nose and brain while in family register it denotes father or mother and in official situation it refers to the officer in charge.

Literary Language

Literary texts are those that have been written with artistic purpose and their main aim is to give pleasure or evoke thought. They tend to deal with emotions as well as characters and events. (Urszula 7). The three major genres of literature are prose, poetry and drama and their forms, characteristics and style vary.

Prose is characterized by the logical grammatical order of ideas that are cohesively stated in sentences and paragraphs. The style varies from one author to another and the stylistic variations are observed through the lexical items and grammatical structure:

The window was wide open, the curtains drawn aside. I caught a slight breeze, warm as a woman's breath. I crept out of the bed and closed the door as much as possible without shutting it. My feet sank into plush carpeting. There was milk and coca cola and grapefruit juice in the fridge.

There were no bottles of beer or wine in any of the cupboards. I longed for a drink. I took a saucepan from the sink and filled it with water and turned the knob to its highest setting. There was a notice board above the kitchen table, with notes and keys and photographs attached to it. (Afolabi, p. 193)

Language Usage in the Text

This is a piece of prose writing which tells a story. The logical grammatical order and cohesive statement of ideas through its use of descriptive words, in the paragraphs; mark out its prosaic style/lexical items: "wide open". *Wide* is an adjective describing the openness of the window.

Structural items that mark out the subject matter:

Descriptive sentence: "The window was wide open"

Narrative sentences: "I caught a slight breeze, warm as a woman's breath.

"There was a notice above the kitchen table, with notes and keys and photographs attached to it"

Figurative Language: This is evident in the first two sentences. The use of simile is seen in the sentence and it gives it a strong sense of imagery too.

Cohesion and Visual layout:

Cohesion is achieved in the text through the logical presentation of ideas and the use of the referential pronoun "I" which links up the narrated ideas, in the paragraphs. The visual layout shows that the text is in two paragraphs with well placed punctuation marks.

Tense Usage: Makes use of the past tense because of its narrative nature. Thus the short passage is a literary prose variety that descriptively tells a story.

Text 2: Scepter and crown

Must tumble down

And in the dust be equal made,

With the poor crooked scythe and spade

-- James Shirley

Analysis

The text is written in a pattern of four lines, which indicates that it is a stanza of a poem. The structure differs from that of prose.

Diction: The language is condensed. It says much in a few words through the emotive use of language. “Scythe” and “crown” refer to a king while “Scythe and “spade” refer to a peasant. The message of the text in essence is that earth and grave reduces both the rich and poor to the same level. The condensed language helps in categorizing the text as a poem.

Sentence Structure: This is another distinguishing feature of this variety of literary register. Lines one to four are phrasal structures and so there is no finite verb in the stanza text.

Rhyme/Rhyming Scheme: “Crown” and “down” are end rhymes just like “equal” and “spade” The rhyming pattern in the text is aabb.

The text is poem because it embodies some of the basic features that give poetry its characteristic style that differentiates its from the other genres of literary register.

The Language of Journalism

More than other fields of human endeavor, the journalistic register has various branches: advertisement, newspaper editorials, broadcasting, magazines, headlines, television programmes to mention but a few. Each of these genres has its own distinctive linguistic style (Crystal 388). However, all journalistic writings are controlled by space, time and focus.

The main goal of the journalistic register is to informatively catch attention (Crystal 390) in a quick and sensational style. This ultimate aim is achieved through the compression of information in a limited space. Powerful use of insight, imagination, graphic features such as photographs, use of colours and different character sizes that are very legible and through the extensive use of linguistic knowledge. Other stylistic devices that are used in giving information and sustaining the interest of the public on the journalistic field is through the dramatic use of headlines, frequent subheadings and paragraphs, the use of information packed columns

and succinct sentence features. Let us now examine the language of advertisement as an example of the journalistic style.

The Language Of Advertisement

Advertisements come in various forms: radio, television, newspapers, and handbills, posters on street and by billboards. (N. T. I. 164). They have linguistic features that are peculiar to them. The aim of an advertisement is to draw attention to a product in order to sell it (Crystal 390).

The language of advertisement is generally laudable, positive, unreserved and emphasizes the uniqueness of a product. The vocabulary is both vivid and concrete. The language of advertisement makes use of a lot of figurative expressions, rhyme and rhythm. The style is generally persuasive and sometimes there is the use of inexplicit grammatical constructions, which may even appear vague. It is important to note that within the genre of advertisement, there is so much variation that a single style cannot be maintained. The following two advertisements illustrate this.

TEXT 1:

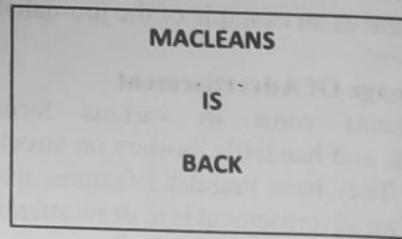
Pension is all about Trust
Pension is about freedom from worry or fear,
it's all about having a future filled with peace
and prosperity.

Pension fund management is about quality
service, safety of funds and commitment of
hearts.

Above all, it's about Trust
At Trust fund our sacred trust is to protect
people from poverty and provide financial
security at retirement
Trustfund Pensions. Pensions is all about
Trust.

Daily Champion, Thursday, February 23,
2006

Text 2:



(A poster placed on a major street in Enugu, Enugu State some years ago)

The Use of Language in Text 1 and 2

These are pieces of advertisement that informatively call attention to Trustfund Pension Management Scheme and to Macleans, popular toothpaste that was out of the Nigerian market for some years. The meaning of the lexical items “Trustfund Pensions” and “Macleans” as trademark may not be understood outside Nigeria.

Grammatically, the second advertisement is a carefully chosen three worded informative simple sentence that vividly and concretely attracts attention and conveys the information that the product, “Macleans” is back in the market after a few years of its absence. The style of text 2 is more informative than persuasive in nature when compared to that of text 1. This is because text 2 is more informative than persuasive in purpose. Text 1, on the other hand is informative and persuasive.

The slanting visual layout form or the arrangement of the words of text 2 is effectively attractive for drawing the attention of a passer-by who may not have the patience for long grammatical structures, as seen in text 1. The blue and white background colour of the advertisement together with the picture of the product is an effective graphological device that helps to bring home the message of the advertisement. Therefore, the text 2 advertisement, though grammatically simple, is packed with information through the peculiar use of stylistic devices.

In text 1, the attention catching devices which include the use of picture colours and different type sizes also help in foregrounding

the main information of the text. The pictographic effect of the open palms and the deliberate act of writing Trustfund on it is a strategic device of portraying that Trustfund pensions is a trustworthy organization.

Lexically, text 1 further achieves its goal through the emphatic effect of the repetition of some words in the passage. “Trustfund” and “trust” occur three times in the short but focused text, while “pension” appears four times. This stylistic device is a powerful sensational manipulation of linguistic knowledge in the presentation of the message of the text. He figuratively plays with the words.

In addition, the repetitive grammatical structures as seen in “Pension is all about Trust” “Pension is about freedom from fear or worry” and such like simple sentential structures also help in the rhythmic effect of the text. The sentences are: “Pension management is about quality services, safety of funds and commitment of hearts.” And “At Trustfund our sacred Trust is to protect people from poverty and provide financial security at retirement.”

They are used stylistically to compare a lot of information. Text I though somehow structured like a poem in arrangement, its language is effective communication.

The difference in the two texts shows that advertisements, and generally the journalistic register, have no uniform style of language.

The Language of Religion

The language of religion shows man’s strong belief in the existence of a supreme being that rules in the affairs of all earthly and heavenly beings. Man’s dependence on a supreme being accounts for why the language of religion is passive and vocative in nature. The different religion of the world include Christianity, Judaism, Buddhism, Hinduism, and African Traditional Religion etc.

Religious language is heterogeneous as a result of its wide range of activities (Crystal 385)

The various forms of religious register include liturgy, preaching, rituals, readings, doctrinal statements and private affirmation. Liturgy includes invocations, petitions, doxologies,

intercessions, thanksgiving, rosaries, litanies, chants, hymns, psalms and canticles. For instance,

In the name of the Father, the Son and the Holy Ghost, Amen. O Lord God Almighty, we thank you for your many blessings. We ask that you forgive our sins and grant us mercy and grace through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen.

The lexical items peculiar to this variety of religious language are *Father, Son, Holy Ghost, Lord God Almighty, blessings forgive, sin, mercy, grace, Jesus Christ* and *amen.*, These words are signals to the identification of the text. The lexical items “father and “son” as used in the passage are semantically different from the meanings they assume in a family register.

Grammatically, phrasal structures are regarded as complete sentences as seen in “In the name of the Father and of the Son and of the Holy Spirit, amen.

Phonologically, the text is vocative and prayerful in tone as in

O Lord... Almighty. The statement of praise. *In the name of the Father.... Holy Ghost, amen, the thanksgiving, intercession, we ask... sins and petitions grant... mercy and grace and the concluding phrase through Jesus Christ our Lord*

help to situate the text as a Christian religious prayer and also show its liturgical form: The liturgical form of religion is meant to be spoken.

Religious language is characterized by capitalization of references to the Supreme Being, archaic words and non- English words such as “Rabbi”... as found in the Christian religious language.

The Language of Science

Science, as Crystal has noted, is “the main birthplace for new words in language” (380). The main distinctive features of this broad field of activities is lexical items and compound expressions that require abbreviations such as “CD” for “Compact Disc”, TNT for “Trinitrotoluene”, TV for “Television “ and so on. Science not only makes use of jargons but also everyday words that acquire new meaning potentials in their various contexts such as “step up” which means “increase” in electrical register. The innovative nature of

science makes the continual updating or naming of new discoveries a necessary task.

Grammatically, scientific sentences are known for complex internal structure. The complexity is mainly due to the frequent use of noun phrases rather than verb phrases. It also makes a lot of use of passive constructions such as: The water was boiled (passive) instead of, we boiled the water. (Active) because of its non-impersonal verifiable approach to issues. Also, the field of science thrives in the use of non- verbal charts: Picture, maps, graphs, and diagrams. This stylistic feature of science accounts for its non – ambiguous and economic presentation of ideas.

Some example of scientific styles:

Text 1

It is very important that the theatre, the surgeon, the surgical instrument, the nurses attending the doctor and so on, should be absolutely free from germs. The wound created by the operation should not be exposed to germs and viruses. Therefore all things connected with the operation should be sterilized to avoid any infection of the wound. It is dangerous for the wound to become septic.

The most distinguishing feature of the passage above is the lexical items which are peculiar to the medical field. The lexical item are medical jargon like “surgeon” “viruses” “nurses” and everyday words such as “theatre” ‘operation” and which may acquire another meaning outside of the passage. However, the jargons set it apart from other field of science.

Text 2

Udeh: Can you perform a simple experiment to demonstrate to us the concept of one scientific law?

Nwosu: Yes, let’s show that sodium chloride dissolves in water. The short passage is identified as belonging to the field of chemical science mainly through its use the jargon “sodium chloride” which is a chemical substance. Whatever aspect of science a text may be, the main distinguishing feature is the specialized lexical items associated to that field.

The Language of Law

The domain of law is a specialized field with a very wide area: Constitutional Law, Company Law, Government legislation, Insurance Law and so on. The profession thrives on words, the majority of which are classical – Anglo – Saxon, old French, Latin and Greek – origin. This accounts for their unfamiliar and complex forms. The language is unnecessarily complex especially in its written form, mainly because of its strong concern for preciseness in its interpretation. The features of the legal language include the archaic use of words, use of common words with uncommon meaning such as *action-suit said-mentioned* use of Latin words and phrases like *alibi, quasi, affidavit* and the use of French words – *plaintiff, verdict, lien*, etc and jargons such as *appeal, -felony, libel, bail, lien, defendant* and so on. For example:

The counsel for the *defence* has earlier made his own submissions to the effect that his client is not *liable* and should therefore not be called upon to pay *damages* after hearing the counsel for both sides the magistrate decided to reserve judgment till the next sitting of the court. Another case is called. It is a case of child stealing which is a *criminal* offence. The *accused* has earlier been arrested and remanded in prison *custody*. A preliminary investigation has been conducted into the case. It has previously come before the *magistrate* who, considering the seriousness of the charge has refused *bail* for the accused. It would be taking too great risk to allow the accused *bail* because he might jump bail ... thereby impede the normal course of justice. The counsel for the defence unsuccessfully pleaded that his client be granted bail. The stage which Wande and Seyi are now watching is a resumption of the case, which had been *adjourned* earlier on. (Oladapo et al 42).

Conclusion

There are many professions or fields of activity, which are not represented in the work, and which use language in different ways for communication. The examples show how a field of discourse can be analyzed and categorized in terms of its lexical items and style. They also show that texts from the same field of

activity are capable of having distinctive language features that differentiate them into varieties of the same area of specialty.

The knowledge of the language of various professions which comes through wide reading, helps a user to streamline his language to suit the audience and the situation? In addition, the ability to use specialized variety of language is a necessary part of professional competence. (Crystal 393). In other words, this linguistic ability is one of the hallmarks of an educated man.

Exercises

1. What do you understand by the term *professional language*?
2. In what way can communication be hampered as a result of language user's ignorance of language and register?
3. List five words that belong to the register of these professions: architecture, medicine, law, journalism and politics?
4. If you have a piece of writing in front of you, how can you identify the kind of writing it is?

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Chapter Fifteen

READING

C. I. Njoku Ph.D

Introduction

In this chapter, you will learn the fundamental concept of reading and the basic issues related to reading. The learning outcome will enable you to understand reading as a phenomenon of human communication. The chapter is designed to teach you such rudimentary aspects of reading as: types and levels of reading, reading problems, causes and remedies. In addition you will learn and practice different types and levels of reading that are helpful to the enhancement of your cognitive and communication competence. The aim is to equip you with the relevant reading strategies and approach that will develop your skills as learners and resourceful members of the human society.

Concept of Reading

Some beginners in the tertiary institution faced with numerous tasks, may often approach reading with divergent attitudes ranging from enthusiasm, zeal, anxiety, surprises, enigma or stereotyped concepts that associate reading to professionalism rather than integrative learning. For such fresh undergraduates, reading may mean developing one's skill as a prospective Mathematician, Engineer or Chemist (perhaps focusing only on reading and solving calculus and practical) with little or nothing to do with reading volumes of books. Such unorthodox approach affects the student's input both in the general and core courses. Reading, therefore, enhances and develops the whole mind and cognitive ability to acquire knowledge in every field of human endeavor.

Sir Richard Steele defines reading as a healthy means of exercising the human mind. He thus identified reading with the cognitive process in which written (graphical words) are encoded to inform the human mind, acquire knowledge and develop the human

person. By this means, written symbols put down in the form of words and sentence, paintings, pictures and constructions are interpreted. Reading as a means of communication involves perusal of a written work, the reader's attention is engaged, and completely absorbed. It involves a complex cognitive process of acquiring and sharing of information and ideas from a book or non-book material. The communication is between the book (its unseen author) and the reader who contextualizes the information in the book with his or her already informed knowledge and perception. The communicative aspect of reading is further strengthened by T.Y. Oba who defines reading as part of a complex information system whereby information is passed from the writer to the reader (Oluikpe 145).

Reading takes the form of a complex interaction between a text and the reader which is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experience, attitude, and language community. Reading in this sense is culturally and socially situated. The reading process requires continuous practice, development, and refinement. In addition, reading requires creativity and critical analysis, which thus links reading with comprehension (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reading> (process)). Braam and Sheldon illustrate this vital connection by defining reading as the interpretation of a reading material which is based on the ability to understand the author's purpose (Unoh 2). Because reading is such a complex process, it cannot be controlled or restricted to one or two interpretations. There are no concrete laws about reading; however, there are guidelines to effective reading, and corrective measures to defective reading. And as M. Certeau observed, readers may produce meaning introspectively and promote deep exploration of texts during interpretation (165 – 76).

Types of Reading

Reading according to Bloom's taxonomy, can be broadly categorized into two oral and silent reading. The following are categories of materials to be read under each taxonomy:

A. Oral

Things read include:
Public Speeches
News broadcast

B. Silent (Intensive and Extensive Reading)

Things read include:
Novels
Journals

Public announcements
Conference Papers
Minutes of Meeting

Books
Assignments
Road signs

Oral Reading

The first categorization on reading is oral. Oral form of reading involves tripartite communication mode – the writer of the document, the reader and the audience. Reading here is vocalized for specific purposes such as informing, educating or entertaining an audience like reading of a welcome address or valedictory speech or reading of a passage for pedagogical purposes. Another emphasis is focused on the reader's communicative competence.

Exercise on Oral Reading

Sample of a Valedictory Speech

Being your class Valedictorian is a great honor and achievement. Giving a speech that lives up to your achievement is a challenge. Important things to remember about giving a graduation speech are that

- it doesn't have to be long to be memorable
- it should honor the school and its officials
- it should connect with your fellow students in an inspiring way.

Principal Stevens, Trustees, Faculty members, family, friends and fellow graduates, today is a day to be thankful and to be inspired.

First, we have much to be thankful for. Here at Peterson School we have received a great education; thanks to our fine administrators and teachers. We are prepared to move on and to take on whatever challenges come next in our lives.

Fellow graduates, I want you to know what a great gift it is to be as prepared as we are, because not all schools offer such an advantage. Here we have had a high degree of academic excellence and whether you intend to continue your education or not, you will benefit from what you learned here.

We can also be thankful for our families. These past four years have presented us with a lot of ups and downs and it is good to

know that we had our families in our corner, supporting us along the way. Thanks Mom and Dad. I would not be here today without you. Finally, we can be thankful for each other. The friendships that we have made here will last a lifetime. In the same way we have supported each other and helped each other succeed in these years at Peterson, I hope we will continue to provide support and encouragement for each other in future endeavors.

Now, what can we be inspired by today? Personally, I am inspired by our classmate Alan Rockford who has overcome so much adversity to be here graduating today. Alan, you have been tenacious and have had such a great attitude in the face of so many setbacks. Whenever I get a little down about something that didn't turn out just the way I wanted it to, I remember some of the talks we have had and it gives me the perspective I need. Thank you for that, congratulations, and all the best!

I'm also inspired by Bill Thomas and Tony Marcos who are leaving later this week for Marine boot camp. Billy and Tony, I honor you for making the choice to serve our country and I feel proud to know you. Please take care of yourselves and keep in touch.

Often on graduation day we look outside for heroes but I see them right here among us. I have seen in my years at Peterson that we don't have to look far for inspiration and that we each have the potential to make an inspiring contribution to others, by being true to our values and committing ourselves to lofty goals.

When you leave here today, celebrate what you have accomplished, but look forward with an eye toward how you, too, can be the inspiration for others.

Congratulations Class of 2011!

(<http://www.best-speech-topics.com/example-of-a-vaedictorian-speech.html#sthash.YxYkE6d3.dpuf>)

Evaluation

- What are the salient features of oral reading?
- How many persons are involved in the communication exercise?
- What are the distinctive features of oral reading?

Silent Reading

Silent reading can be classified into intensive and extensive reading. And the extensive reading is sub-classified into: skimming, scanning and the SQ3R.

- Intensive
- Extensive

Skimming

Scanning

The SQ3R

The intensive and extensive are forms of formal and silent reading. The methods can be used concurrently or exclusively depending on the context and reading purpose. However, the extensive reading demands more voluminous reading and as such requires devices for faster reading like skimming and scanning.

Intensive Reading

Intensive Reading involves reading with special focus on grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details implications, rhetorical relationships for the purpose of understanding literal meaning. Reading in this regard works like "zoom lens" strategy (Brown, 1989). The reader reads in between lines and with an eagle eye in order to grasp meaning, draw inference and make analogy. For example, reading in class or examination, reading of a text for the purposes of analyses. The analyses may be a "detailed in-class" analysis (Long and Richards, 1987). This type of reading brings the reader into closer familiarity with the text and the author's perspective and habit of thought.

The following are the basic characteristics of intensive reading:

Characteristics:

- usually classroom based
- reader is *intensely* involved in looking *inside* the text
- students focus on linguistic or semantic details of a reading

- students focus on surface structure details such as grammar and discourse markers
 - students identify key vocabulary
 - students may draw pictures to aid them (such as in problem solving)
 - texts are read carefully and thoroughly, again and again
 - aim is to build more language knowledge rather than simply practice the skill of reading
 - seen more commonly than extensive reading in classrooms
- (Maija MacLeod <http://fis.ucalgary.ca/Brian/611/readingtype.html>)

Activities:

Intensive reading exercises may include:

- looking at main ideas versus details
- understanding what is implied versus stated
- making inferences
- looking at the order of information and how it affects the message
- identifying words that connect one idea to another
- identifying words that indicate change from one section to another

Munby (1979) suggests four categories of illustrations that may be used in intensive reading. These include:

1. Plain Sense - to understand the factual, exact surface meanings in the text
2. Implications - to make inferences and become sensitive to emotional tone and figurative language
3. Relationships of thought - between sentences or paragraphs
4. Projective - requiring the integration of information from the text to one's own background information

Exercises on Intensive Reading

CHANGES

Before Okpokuya moved into Accra recently, she and Esi had only once lived in the same town since they were in secondary school. It was when Esi and Oko were first married and Esi returned with Oko to Kumasi, where he had been teaching. Kubi was then an assistant

surveyor and Okpokuya was still a midwife at Central Hospital. At the time neither of them had any marital problem to share. Of course, Okpokuya as usual has sounded as if she had plenty. But then as some of her colleagues always said unkindly, Okpokuya searched for problem to talk about, so that she too would sound like any other wife. As for Esi, she was then expecting her baby and was too recently married to be aware of problems even if there have been any.

After her baby was born, Esi had wanted to return to work. But that had not been easy. She had had to face the difficulty of having to choose between two not so attractive options. She could stay on at Kumasi, but that meant that she would not be working at all, or not meaningfully. It was not every government department that had regional branches. The Department of Urban Statistics was one of those that didn't. Or she could return to Accra for her regular job as long as she first convinced Oko that they could still see one another, as often as possible at weekends, either she going or he coming. But at the merest hint of that Oko had made it clear that the subject wasn't even up for discussion. He made it clear that as far as he was concerned they had done a lot of that travelling when they were 'just friends.' In fact he had thought one reason they got married was to give themselves the chance to be together properly, no?

In the end the only option left her, which she had had to take, was to ask to be seconded to the regional census co-ordinating office. She had ended up keeping the Birth and Death register.

'Surely, one doesn't need a Master's degree in statistics to do that?' she would fume and rage daily. Oko ignored her complaints. The truth was that he didn't feel that sympathetic. And neither did the men in the office. In fact, they let her know that she was unwelcomed, and a burden they did not know what to do with.

Having to deal with a man who is over-qualified for a job is bad enough.

To have to cope with an over-qualified woman in any situation is a complete misfortune.

Now six years later, both she and Opokuya were here in Accra, working. And she had a marital problem. A big problem. She

should just gather herself together, and Opokuya how she felt. If Opokuya too could not understand her, that was that. She would then accept that she was a fool, like her mother and her grandmother had said.

After all, people change. Look at her. Esi had changed. If she now found Oko's attentions so suffocating that she wanted so badly to split, then people change. There was a time when she had been made to fear that in fact she would never marry.

'You have waited too long,' Esi's mother had complained. 'Given your structure, you shouldn't have.' (The poor woman shared the popularly held belief that a young woman who is too tall, too thin, and has a flat belly and a flat behind has slim chance of bearing children. The longer she waits after puberty, the slimmer those chances get!)

Esi's main problem was that she was easily bored. And no woman ever caught a man or held him by showing lack of interest. Esi knew that she would have to work up some enthusiasm in her relationship with men. 'But how?' She kept asking herself. Now looking back she didn't dare to admit, even to herself, that perhaps what she felt for Oko in the first years of their married life was gratitude more than anything else. Gratitude that in spite of herself he had persisted in courting her and marrying her.

'Not many women are this lucky ...' Esi could hear her grandmother's voice. 'And who told you that feeling grateful to a man is not enough reason to marry him? My lady, the world would die of surprise if every woman openly confessed the true reasons why they married a certain man. These days, young people don't seem to know why they marry or should marry.'

(Ama Ata Aidoo 40-41)

Questions

- What central theme can you give to the above story?
- Give reason for the theme selected.
- What was the cause of Esi's relocation to Kumasi?
- How did the author describe Okpokuya's character?
- What message does the passage give about marriage?
- Identify three problems of Esi as provided in the story.

- What do you think was Esi's reason for marrying Oko?
- Do you find her reason justified?
- Give reason for your answer.

Extensive Reading

Extensive reading involves reading of large quantities of material, directly and fluently. It is treated as a *means* to an end. It may include reading simply for pleasure or reading technical, scientific or professional material. The extensive reader (student) here reads large amounts of high interest material, usually out of class, concentrating on meaning, "reading for gist" and skipping unknown words" (Long and Richards 216). It is carried out mostly to achieve general understanding of a text (Brown, 1989). The aim is to develop reading discipline, comprehension of main ideas not specific details. The detailed nature of the reading material(s) demands the reader's application of such techniques of faster readings as scanning, skimming, the SQ3R.

Types of programs:

Extensive reading may appear as any of the following:

- a complement to an intensive reading program;
- an extra-curricular activity where students read out of class; and
- the main focus of a reading course (termed an Extensive Reading Program) where students work with a class set of books, individual reading of material, of their own choice, with follow-up activities such as reading logs, reading journals, book reports or projects. Although it is less common for extensive reading to form an *entire* reading course, there are well-established Extensive Reading Programs operating around the world. They have been carried on in many countries, at varying levels of education from Elementary School to College, and in different languages.

Characteristics:

Day and Bamford (1980) put forward ten characteristics identified in successful Extensive Reading Programs. They are duplicated (in abbreviated form) below:

1. Students read as much as possible.
2. A variety of materials on a range of topics is available.
3. Students select what they want to read.
4. The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding.
5. Reading is its own reward.
6. Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar.
7. Reading is individual and silent.
8. Reading speed is usually faster than slower.
9. Teachers orient students to the goals of the program.
10. The teacher is a role model of a reader for the students.

Skimming

Skimming is an aspect of silent reading employed mainly to enhance extensive and faster reading. It is a type of quick reading to grasp the structure of a text, to discover the general meaning of a passage and the writer's intention by skimming the blurb, table of contents, topics of different chapters, headings and sub-headings, important diagrams, highlights and other related data.

Skimming is a more complex task than scanning because it requires the reader to organize and remember some of the information given by the author, not just to locate it. Skimming is a tool in which the author's sequence can be observed, unlike scanning in which some predetermined information is sought after.

When it is mainly used

- Skimming is used when bearing some general question in mind.
- Skimming is used in making decisions on how to approach a text such as when determining if a careful reading is deserved.

- Skimming is used to build students confidence and an understanding that it is possible to gain meaning without reading every word in a text.
- Skimming is used as part of the SQ3R method of reading, often for speed reading. This method involves the student in surveying, questioning, reading, reviewing and reciting. Skimming is used for the *initial survey* and for *review*.
- Skimming is a skill that a student may want to develop if they are planning to continue with academic studies. It is often used in reviewing for a test.

(Maija MacLeod <http://fis.ucalgary.ca/Brian/611/readingtype.html>)

Scanning

Scanning is a very conscious reading exercise in which a reader sets out to locate a particular piece of information in a text or some details which he or she is aware that are to be found in the text. It is a quick reading method that focuses on *specific information* like name(s), date, quotation, phrase, formula, or symbol. The reader is aware of what he or she is looking for and recognizes it when it is found.

When it is mainly used

- Scanning is used often with technical, scientific or professional materials to locate specific information.
- Scanning is a valuable skill for second language learners to develop because often they do not require a detailed reading of a text. There are many everyday uses for scanning, relevant to a purpose, such as reading a schedule.

Note: Skimming and scanning can be mutually used together in the reading of a text depending on the purpose and drive. For example, a reader may first skim through a passage to see if it is worth reading, then read it more carefully and scan for a specific piece of information to note.

For an organized reading of a long passage, a reader adopts a formula to achieve efficiency and comprehension. The SQ3R formula has been found to be very useful in this regard. It is treated in detail in this text. You may wish to read it up in the chapter!

Passage for Practice
The Audacity of Hope

Prologue

It's been almost ten years since I first ran for political office. I was thirty-five at the time, four years out of law school, recently married, and generally impatient with life. A seat in the Illinois legislature had opened up, and several friends suggested that I run, thinking that my work as a civil rights lawyer, and contacts from my days as a community organizer, would make me a viable candidate. After discussing it with my wife, I entered the race and proceeded to do what every first-time candidate does: I talked to anyone who would listen. I went to block club meetings and church socials, beauty shops and barber shops. If two guys were standing on a corner, I would cross the street to hand them campaign literature. And everywhere I went, I'd get some version of the same two questions. "Where'd you get that funny name?" And then: "You seem like a nice enough guy. Why do you want to go into something dirty and nasty like politics?" I was familiar with the question; a variant on the questions asked of me years earlier, when I'd first arrived in Chicago to work in low-income neighborhoods. It signaled a cynicism not simply with politics but with the very notion of a public life, a cynicism that—at least in the South Side neighborhoods I sought to represent—had been nourished by a generation of broken promises. In response, I would usually smile and nod and say that I understood the skepticism, but that there was—and always had been—another tradition to politics, a tradition that stretched from the days of the country's founding to the glory of the civil rights movement, a tradition based on the simple idea that we have a stake in one another, and that what binds us together is greater than what drives us apart, and that if enough people believe in the truth of that proposition and act on it, then we might not solve every problem, but we can get something meaningful done. It was a pretty convincing speech, I thought. And although I'm not sure that the people who heard me deliver it were similarly impressed, enough of them appreciated my earnestness and youthful swagger that I made it to the Illinois legislature.

Six years later, when I decided to run for the United States Senate, I wasn't so sure of myself. By all appearances, my choice of careers seemed to have worked out. After two terms during which I labored in the minority, Democrats had gained control of the state senate, and I had subsequently passed a slew of bills, from reforms of the Illinois death penalty system to an expansion of the state's health program for kids. I had continued to teach at the University of Chicago Law School, a job I enjoyed, and was frequently invited to speak around town. I had preserved my independence, my good name, and my marriage, all of which, statistically speaking, had been placed at risk the moment I set foot in the state capital.

But the years had also taken their toll. Some of it was just a function of my getting older, I suppose, for if you are paying attention, each successive year will make you more intimately acquainted with all of your flaws—the blind spots, the recurring habits of thought that may be genetic or may be environmental, but that will almost certainly worsen with time, as surely as the hitch in your walk turns to pain in your hip. In me, one of those flaws had proven to be a chronic restlessness; an inability to appreciate, no matter how well things were going, those blessings that were right there in front of me. It's a flaw that is endemic to modern life, I think—endemic, too, in the American character—and one that is nowhere more evident than in the field of politics. Whether politics actually encourages the trait or simply attracts those who possess it is unclear. Someone once said that everyman is trying to either live up to his father's expectations or make up for his father's mistakes, and I suppose that may explain my particular malady as well as anything else.

In any event, it was as a consequence of that restlessness that I decided to challenge a sitting Democratic incumbent for his congressional seat in the 2000 election cycle. It was an ill-considered race, and I lost badly—the sort of drubbing that awakens you to the fact that life is not obliged to work out as you'd planned. A year and a half later, the scars of that loss sufficiently healed, I had lunch with a media consultant who had been encouraging me for some time to run for statewide office. As it happened, the lunch was scheduled for late September 2001.

"You realize, don't you, that the political dynamics have changed," he said as he picked at his salad. "What do you mean?" I asked, knowing full well what he meant. We both looked down at the newspaper beside him. There, on the front page, was Osama bin Laden.

"Hell of a thing, isn't it?" he said, shaking his head. "Really bad luck. You can't change your name, of course. Voters are suspicious of that kind of thing. Maybe if you were at the start of your career, you know, you could use a nickname or something. But now..." His voice trailed off and he shrugged apologetically before signaling the waiter to bring us the check.

I suspected he was right, and that realization ate away at me. For the first time in my career, I began to experience the envy of seeing younger politicians succeed where I had failed, moving into higher offices, getting more things done. The pleasures of politics—the adrenaline of debate, the animal warmth of shaking hands and plunging into a crowd—began to pale against the meaner tasks of the job: the begging for money, the long drives home after the banquet had run two hours longer than scheduled, the bad food and stale air and clipped phone conversations with a wife who had stuck by me so far but was pretty fed up with raising our children alone and was beginning to question my priorities. Even the legislative work, the policy making that had gotten me to run in the first place, began to feel too incremental, too removed from the larger battles—over taxes, security, health care, and jobs—that were being waged on a national stage. I began to harbor doubts about the path I had chosen; I began feeling the way I imagine an actor or athlete must feel when, after years of commitment to a particular dream, after years of waiting tables between auditions or scratching out hits in the minor leagues, he realizes that he's gone just about as far as talent or fortune will take him. The dream will not happen, and he now faces the choice of accepting this fact like a grown-up and moving on to more sensible pursuits, or refusing the truth and ending up bitter, quarrelsome, and slightly pathetic.

DENIAL, ANGER, bargaining, despair—I'm not sure I went through all the stages prescribed by the experts. At some point, though, I arrived at acceptance—of my limits, and, in a

way, my mortality. I refocused on my work in the state senate and took satisfaction from the reforms and initiatives that my position afforded. I spent more time at home, and watched my daughters grow, and properly cherished my wife, and thought about my long-term financial obligations. I exercised, and read novels, and came to appreciate how the earth rotated around the sun and the seasons came and went without any particular exertions on my part.

And it was this acceptance, I think, that allowed me to come up with the thoroughly cockeyed idea of running for the United States Senate. An up-or-out strategy was how I described it to my wife, one last shot to test out my ideas before I settled into a calmer, more stable, and better-paying existence. And she—perhaps more out of pity than conviction—agreed to this one last race, though she also suggested that given the orderly lives he preferred for our family, I shouldn't necessarily count on her vote.

I let her take comfort in the long odds against me... Even the standard high school history textbook notes the degree to which, from its very inception, the reality of American life has strayed from its myths. In such a climate, any assertion of shared ideals or common values might seem hopelessly naïve, if not downright dangerous—an attempt to gloss over serious differences in policy and performance or, worse, a means of muffling the complaints of those who feel ill served by our current institutional arrangements.

My argument, however, is that we have no choice. You don't need a poll to know that the vast majority of Americans—Republican, Democrat, and independent—are weary of the dead zone that politics has become, in which narrow interests vie for advantage and ideological minorities seek to impose their own versions of absolute truth. Whether we're from red states or blue states, we feel in our gut the lack of honesty, rigor, and commonsense in our policy debates, and dislike what appears to be a continuous menu of false or cramped choices. Religious or secular, black, white, or brown, we sense—correctly—that the nation's most significant challenges are being ignored, and that if we don't change course soon, we may be the first generation in a very long time that leaves behind a weaker and more fractured America than the one we inherited. Perhaps more than any other time in our recent history, we

need a new kind of politics, one that can excavate and build upon those shared understandings that pull us together as Americans.

That's the topic of this book: how we might begin the process of changing our politics and our civic life. This isn't to say that I know exactly how to do it. I don't. Although I discuss in each chapter a number of our most pressing policy challenges, and suggest in broad strokes the path I believe we should follow, my treatment of the issues is often partial and incomplete. I offer no unifying theory of American government, nor do these pages provide a manifesto for action, complete with charts and graphs, timetables and ten-point plans.

Instead what I offer is something more modest: personal reflections on those values and ideals that have led me to public life, some thoughts on the ways that our current political discourse unnecessarily divides us, and my own best assessment—based on my experience as a senator and lawyer, husband and father, Christian and skeptic—of the ways we can ground our politics in the notion of a common good... But that is not all that I am. I also think my party can be smug, detached, and dogmatic at times. I believe in the free market, competition, and entrepreneurship, and think no small number of government programs don't work as advertised. I wish the country had fewer lawyers and more engineers. I think America has more often been a force for good than for ill in the world; I carry few illusions about our enemies, and revere the courage and competence of our military. I reject a politics that is based solely on racial identity, gender identity, sexual orientation, or victimhood generally. I think much of what ails the inner city involves a breakdown in culture that will not be cured by money alone, and that our values and spiritual life matter at least as much as our GDP.

Undoubtedly, some of these views will get me in trouble. I am new enough on the national political scene that I serve as a blank screen on which people of vastly different political stripes project their own views. As such, I am bound to disappoint some, if not all, of them. Which perhaps indicates a second, more intimate theme to this book—namely, how I, or anybody in public office, can avoid the pitfalls of fame, the hunger to please, the fear of loss, and thereby

retain that kernel of truth, that singular voice within each of us that reminds us of our deepest commitments.

Recently, one of the reporters covering Capitol Hill stopped me on the way to my office and mentioned that she had enjoyed reading my first book. "I wonder," she said, "if you can be that interesting in the next one you write." By which she meant, I wonder if you can be honest now that you are a U.S. senator.

I wonder, too, sometimes. I hope writing this book helps me answer the question.

(Barack Obama, 2006)

Test Questions (Skimming)

- What was the writer's major political drive?
- What antecedent of the writer do you think qualified him for the desired position?
- What was the public perception of politics in the passage?, and how did the writer tackle the view(s)?
- How can you describe the writer's attitude to his marriage and personal integrity?

Test Questions (Scanning)

- How many years ago was the writer's last political run?
- How old was he then?
- Where was he then?
- What was his career before he joined politics?
- To what political office did he first run for?

Levels of Reading

Reading can take different levels depending on the purpose attached to it. Such purpose largely determines the reader's target and the level to adopt. The levels of reading include:

The Literal Level

The reader at this level finds meaning **directly** in the text. Meaning at this level is attached to words and group of words denotatively. The reader reads on line (not in between lines). You can literally put

your finger in a passage and point out the answer which often answers: Who, What, Where, and When.

Sample Question: Where did Francis spend his honey moon?

Answer: It was in Marriott Lodge, Charleston, South Carolina

The Inferential Level

The reader here reads in between lines to make connotative inferences with words and expressions in the text. He or she goes beyond surface meaning to include implied meaning. Since the exact answer cannot be found directly, reading can take the following questions: 'How, What happened and Why' to go beyond 'Who, Where and When.'

Sample Question: What happened to Francis's wife at the end of the honey moon?

Answer: She lost her excitement for Francis.

Analytical/ Evaluative Level

In evaluative reading, a reader reads beyond the line to develop and incorporate his or her critical thoughts, universal meaning and abstract thoughts. A reader goes beyond answering the question 'What' to 'So what? Illustrate and discuss.'

Under Bloom's taxonomy of reading levels, before evaluative must take place, there must be comprehension and understanding of the text, a reader must have passed through the literal and inferential level. This is followed by the application and internalization of the ideas derived from the text to a level of analysis when the information is broken into components. Activities at this level take the dimension of: compare and contrast, analyze and classify, illustrate and comment. The reader at this level becomes a critic and an evaluator of the author and textual material.

Sample Question: Evaluate the statement by Francis's wife: "My discovery did not march my expectations." Do you agree? Explain.

Synthetical Level

In this level there is fusion of the reader's thoughts, ideas, and residual knowledge with textual information. Through this amalgamation of thoughts and ideas, the reader evolves from a critic to a theorist. He or she creates a hypothesis, makes a thought design and forms an ideology that can create change. A reader at this level evolves from being a reader or critic to a writer or prospective theorists.

Sample Question: Analyze critically the factors that can lead to a failed marriage.

Reading Exercise

Saint Anthony of Padua

Saint Anthony was born in Portugal in 1195; on 15th August according to Baroque tradition. He was the son of the nobleman Martino de Bugliioni and Donna Maria Tveira. He was christened with the name Fernando.

He spent his formative years under the cultured guidance of the canons of the cathedral. Many of his school companions were boys who were considering the priesthood as a career. Fernando was influenced by this career. He was ordained a priest in the monastery of Santa Cruz in Coimbra in 1220.

Towards the summer of 1220, he obtained permission to leave the canon to embrace the Franciscan way of life. He abandoned his baptismal name for that of Anthony after the Egyptian hermit, Anthony.

He set off for Morocco to preach the Faith, fully expecting to suffer a martyr's death. Becoming severely ill, he tried to return to Portugal, but his ship was stranded on the coast of Sicily. When he recovered, he travelled to Assisi for a general meeting of the Franciscan order.

In Italy, his preaching came to the attention of Saint Francis, the founder of the Franciscans, who directed him to teach theology to the Franciscan brothers. He preached so strongly that he earned the title "Hammer of Heretics."

Anthony performed many miracles during his life, including rendering poisoned food innocuous by making the sign of the cross over it; appearing in two places at once so that he could celebrate Mass and sing the Divine Office; and reattaching an amputated foot. His miracles both during life and after his death, earned him the title "wonder-worker."

Saint Anthony is often portrayed with the infant Jesus in his arms, in honour of an apparition of the infant Jesus, in which He kissed Saint Anthony and told him He loved him for his zealous preaching.

Saint Anthony died on June 13, 1231, his feast is celebrated on that day. His canonization took less than a year. In 1263, Saint Anthony's tomb was opened to transfer his relics and his tongue was discovered to be incorrupt. On January 16, 1946, in recognition of that preaching, Pope Pius XI declared Saint Anthony a Doctor of the Church.

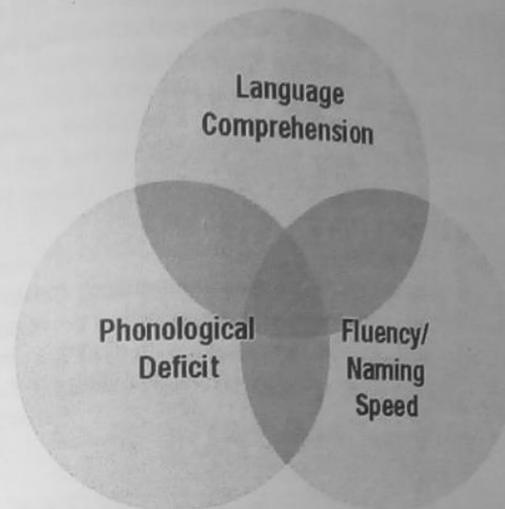
Questions

1. What year was Saint Anthony born?
2. What was his original name?
3. Where and when was he ordained priest?
4. What religious Order did he later joined?
5. Mention three important miracles performed by Saint Anthony.
6. What year did he die?

Types of Reading Problems

Under this section attention is focused on the factors that affect successful reading. These may be linguistic, clinical (Dyslexia), emotional, psychological and environmental.

Linguistic Problem: This is connected with language comprehension and articulation. The defect may be phonological, orthographic or semantic. Louisa Moats and Carol Tolman articulated this problem in the diagram:



From the above classification, these researchers proposed three kinds of developmental reading disabilities that often overlap but that can be separate and distinct:

1. *Phonological deficit:* This problem affects the articulation of speech sounds that implicate a core problem in the phonological processing system of oral language. It affects both comprehension and rendition.
 2. *Processing speed/orthographic processing deficit.* The problem affects speed and accuracy of printed word recognition (also called *naming speed problem* or *fluency problem*).
 3. *Comprehension deficit:* This often coincide with the first two types of problems, but specifically found in children with social-linguistic disabilities (e.g., autism spectrum), vocabulary weaknesses, generalized language learning disorders, and learning difficulties that affect abstract reasoning and logical thinking.
- If a student has a prominent and specific weakness in *either* phonological or rapid print (naming-speed) processing, they are said to have a *single deficit* in word recognition. If they have a combination of phonological and naming-speed deficits, they are said to have a *double deficit* (Wolf & Bowers, 1999). Double-deficit

children/students are more common than single-deficit and are also the most challenging to remediate. Related and coexisting problems in children with reading disabilities often include:

- faulty pencil/pen grip and letter formation;
- attention problems;
- anxiety;
- task avoidance;
- weak impulse control;
- distractibility;
- problems with comprehension of spoken language; and
- confusion of mathematical signs and computation processes.

About 30 percent of all children or students with dyslexia also have attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Moats & Tolman, 2009).

Type of word reading difficulty	Possible cause of difficulty
read words using letter by letter recording, difficulty recognizing letter clusters in words	RAN (Rapid Automatized Naming) difficulty
read words by using distinctive visual features	phonological segmenting and blending difficulties
read words by using the first few letters of a word, perhaps again with context to read it.	RAN (Rapid Automatized Naming) and short term phonological memory difficulty
difficulty using orthographic similarity between words (or to 'use analogies') to read the unfamiliar ones.	difficulty using phonological segmenting and blending automatically
difficulty modifying the sound pattern by altering stress patterns, to match known spoken words.	difficulty holding ideas in short term working memory, phonological difficulties

difficulty reading words rapidly, particularly multi syllabic words and low frequency words, or to remember how to say written words rapidly

difficulty recalling rapidly how to say the written word. Word reading takes more attention and leaves less for comprehension.

Solutions
Step One

- Tutor directed solution
- Teaching and learning of phonemes
- Questioning
- Feedback

Step Two

- Self-direct -- Self-check -- Self-correct
- Phonemic sequencing
- Learning of phonemes
- Discovering and labeling of sounds
- Studying of suffixes, prefixes, and word endings and their meanings
- Developing word boxes and word note books
- Adopting word games and spelling exercise for leisure learning

Dyslexia: This is another form of reading disability that is often characterized by difficulties with accurate word recognition, decoding and spelling. It may cause problem with reading comprehension and slow down vocabulary growth. It equally results into poor reading fluency and reading aloud. Research has shown that dyslexia is neurological and often genetic. Thus, it is not caused by poor instruction. However, with the proper support, almost all people with dyslexia can become good readers and writers.

Dyslexia: Warning Signs By Age

Young Children Trouble With:	School-Age Children Trouble With:	Teenagers and Adults Trouble With:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizing letters, 		

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • matching letters to sounds and blending sounds into speech • Pronouncing words, for example saying "mawn lower" instead of "lawn mower" • Learning and correctly using new vocabulary words • Learning the alphabet, numbers, and days of the week or similar common word sequences • Rhyming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mastering the rules of spelling • Remembering facts and numbers • Handwriting or with gripping a pencil • Learning and understanding new skills; instead, relying heavily on memorization • Reading and spelling, such as reversing letters (d, b) or moving letters around (left, felt) • Following a sequence of directions • Trouble with word problems in math 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading at the expected level • Understanding non-literal language, such as idioms, jokes, or proverbs; and inferential or analytical reading • Reading aloud • Organizing and managing time • Trouble summarizing a story • Learning a foreign language • Memorizing
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Solution to Dyslexia

- Practice early oral reading, writing, drawing, and practice to encourage development of print knowledge, basic letter formation, recognition skills and linguistic awareness (the relationship between sound and meaning).
- Practice reading different kinds of texts. This includes books, magazines, ads and comics.

- Include multi-sensory, structured language instruction. Practice using sight, sound and touch when introducing new ideas.
 - Seek modifications in the classroom. This might include extra time to complete assignments, help with note taking, oral testing and other means of assessment.
 - Use books on tape and assistive technology. Examples are screen readers and voice recognition computer software.
- Get help with the emotional issues that arise from struggling to overcome academic difficulties.
<http://www.ncl.org/students-disabilities/accommodation-education/understanding-accommodation>

Emotional and Psychological Problems: These cover a wide range of a reader's feelings, frame of mind, fears, anxiety and stress which precedes the reading exercise and often affect his or her reading pace, thought process and comprehension. Reading while sleepy or tensed up dissipates a reader and affects reading speed and outcome. A reader's emotional or psychological state may be caused by his or her past experiences, antecedent, fears, anxieties, stress or unrealized dreams.

Solution

- Coming to terms with the realities of one's emotional and psychological state
- Setting new reading goals and targets
- Moving resolutely daily to actualizing the targets
- Evaluating one's reading pace (intensive and extensive reading) frequently

Experts to reading and learning disabilities also suggest other approaches to emotional problems

- Knowing one's emotions (how do I feel about this?)
- Managing one's emotions (given how I feel, how should I react?)
- Motivating one's self (regardless of how I feel, I need to...)
- Recognizing others' emotions (I know how you are feeling)
- Making effective use of social skills (the best thing for me to do now is...)

Environmental Problem

For reading to be meritorious, it deserves conducive time and environment that will enhance concentration and understanding. Reading in a noisy atmosphere affects the reading speed and equally impedes comprehension.

Solution

The use of libraries is, therefore, encouraged. Students as researchers and prospective scholars also ought to create their own small libraries and study sections at home and within their dormitories to facilitate concentration and comprehension.

Visual, Vision and Visualization

Visual, vision and visualization problem may also affect reading performance and impair the reader's ability to process information quickly. Serious vision and visual problems will impair a reader's ability to remember numbers and letters quickly and slows down reading pace.

Solution: Jotting and note-taking while reading and the use of mnemonics that will aid memory. The application of the SQ3R in case of extensive reading will also aid comprehension and recall, and promotes reading competence.

Note: The above reading problems often lead to defective reading like vocalization, head movement, pointing to words and regression

Vocalization

Whispering or muttering of words or movement of one's lips while reading is a defective practice that affects reading speed and slows down understanding. It equally constitutes a nuisance to other readers in case of reading in a public library. Since comprehension takes place without vocalization, readers are advised to consciously avoid such poor reading habit that impedes reading efficiency.

Pointing to Words and Single Word Reading

This is another poor reading habit that sometime goes with vocalization. A reader here points to words with finger or such objects as pen, pencil or ruler while reading. It does not only retard reading and comprehension but causes distraction to the reader. The reader is compelled to read word by word and reading speed is adversely affected. Where this is not affected by visual problem, readers are advised to consciously avoid it and rather adopt such techniques of faster reading as skimming, scanning, and the SQ3R methods.

Head Movement

It is a defective reading habit when a reader moves his or her head along each line of a passage read. It makes reading laborious and slows down a reader's pace. Students and beginners are, therefore, encouraged to be conscious of such abnormal reading habit which impairs efficiency.

Regression

The practice of moving forward and backward during reading with such obsession to grasp every bit of meaning in a book by reading may weary a reader, cause distraction, dissipation of energy, anxiety, lack of concentration and even loss of interest. These are all dangerous outcomes that impair reading comprehension. Since reading and comprehension involve integration and synthesis, a reader must approach a text as a system – a complex whole in which one passage interconnects with the other. Thus, in order to appreciate reading the whole aspect of the materials must be synthesized and evaluated. The important techniques of skimming, scanning and the SQ3Rs are therefore, encouraged to enhance reading efficiency and comprehension.

Reading Exercise
SHACKLES OF THE ORACLE

Chapter One

The bush lamps dimming at each other were still visible in a misty haze. The only noise heard almost at each stead was that of a cockcrow. The vale of the morn was beginning to unfold the dark blanket of the night. Ngozi got up silent and still. Her mind was sundered with the thoughts of going to the stream or going to respond to the dawning rendezvous. She looked through the window as the dew of the morn began to fall. Across the road she could see the shadow of cassava leaves with dropping dews resting on their opened palms. Stretching above the hill was the big *udara* tree; around the tree was full of strange noises, creaking trees and rustling bushes, and the stillness of the morning.

She was lost in the desire for another "great expedition." It was barely three days since they met at a moonlight dance, yet the desire to see each other has been so strong and compelling. Any day that passed without such lovely meeting appeared to be a winter day. Remembering Afamefuna's appointment, Ngozi hurried to the *udara* tree as they scheduled to meet at sunset.

"I can see the silhouette of a huge figure pacing round the windy tree," she murmured to herself. "Perhaps, Afam has waited so long." She looked both sides, and convinced that the *udara* tree spreads some shades of liberty, she ran up and greeted Afamefuna with a hug.

"I missed you, Afam," she said passionately. As he was about to reciprocate, a metallic laughter behind jolted them to consciousness. They both bent down pretending to be picking *udara*. It was Ada and Orjiugo racing to *Onye-agu* River. They had a bet who would reach the stream first.

"Are they laughing at us?" Ngozi enquired, raising her head slightly. "How long must I tell you to ignore these discourteous village scums who are crudely obsessed with what they call tradition? And they strongly believed that it was what preserved their dead ancestors. Anyway, let us face our own problem. I hope you succeeded in your ruse to sneak in through your grandma's apartment last night?"

"Afam, it was not as easy as that. Grandma is the tortoise of our time. She pretends that she doesn't see or hear due to old age, yet, nothing eludes her. As soon as I tiptoed into the house, grandma shouted at me. I told her that I went to send in the sheep. I am sure she knew I was lying because after muttering a few words to herself, she called me names – 'a night bird,' *ochongonoko*, like mother like daughter." Afam smiled and whispered, "I think her problem is old age syndrome which usually manifests in garrulity." He drew her back to himself this time rubbing his fist gently on her engagement ring. Overwhelmed with deep thought and confusion, Ngozi replied in a whisper:

"But Afam, how is our marriage plan going to materialize? Your father will be the last Umueze man to give his consent to such marriage as he claims to be the custodian of Amaasa cultural heritage."

Afamefuna was the son of the Igwe of Amaasaa. Umueze was the royal village. It was a taboo in the entire Amaasaa for any freeborn to marry an *Osu*. This has raised much dust for the younger generation who saw such a belief as retrogressive and unnatural.

Ngozi was still leaning on his broad chest like a newly weaned baby. Afam reiterated his assurance to her:

"Nngoo I assured you that I am prepared to shed the last drop of my blood for you." They held each other so closely that each could feel the breathing movement of the other's chest. It was such a grave silence that their hearts overflowed with affection could speak without echo.

A voice was heard above the hill rocking the silence. It was Ngozi's mother calling and screaming. Like one suddenly woken from a slumber, she shuddered and said: "Afam, I think I must hurry home. I think my mother is back from the stream. I can hear her calling Nnngggooozzziii as if I was lost."

As she sets out to go, the town crier was heard above the hill beating the gong. *Ti Gom! Ti Gom! Ti Gom!* The town crier sounded the gong with greater dexterity, inviting the entire people of Amaasa to a wrestling contest at the great Nkwo market day. The Amaasa wrestling contest usually ushers in the farming season. It was at mid March. The dryness of the harmattan was giving way to the first

rainfall. The trees that have shed harmattan tears were ready to capture the freshness of the first rain. It was a period of rebirth. Ngozi was still shivering in fear behind the kitchen wondering what excuse she would give her mother for leaving the house so early without words to anybody and to make matter worse leaving her usual morning chores unattended. Still gripped by these thoughts and stirring the way out of the web, Udezue, her elder brother who has been foaming up with rage suddenly grabbed her and gave her a thorough beating for leaving the house. That same day too she was denied of food.

"This shall be a deterrent to you and other girls of this household," Udezue said, almost with a choked breath of unleashed emotion. Her mother quickly added in affirmation, "You can never succeed in bringing shame to our family. Tomorrow people will say, it is because your father is dead."

At this point Ngozi's mother was struck with guilt on remembering that Ngozi was born after her husband's death. In fact, she was an illegitimate child of popular Chief Nwapa Odumodu, Igwekala's brother who started dating Enyidiya at her husband's death. But everybody in Amaasa thought Ngozi was fathered by her uncle, Ochiulo who was the right person, according to tradition and custom, to inherit his deceased brother's wife, Enyidiya. Only a mother can firmly attest to her child's paternity, as Enyidiya has done to herself.

(Carol Ijeoma Njoku, 2005)

Questions

- What second title can you give to the story?
- Give reason for your suggestion?
- How can you describe the culture of Amasaa in the story?
- Do you think the marriage proposal between Ngozi and Afam is justified
- Why?

- f. "The trees that have shed harmattan tears were ready to capture the freshness of the first rain."
Explain the figure of expression used and its meaning at the context.
- g. What is your evaluation of the concept of widow inheritance as used in the passage?
- h. What type of reading did you apply?

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Chapter Sixteen

READING TECHNIQUES AND STRATEGIES

W. O. Ugwuagbo & U. N. Okebalama

The major objective of reading is comprehension. Comprehension is defined as the act of understanding or grasping to the fullest, information contained in material read. It also involves inference, and the process of using the graphic symbols (words) to create mental images from the writer's ideas. Comprehension operates on three levels of mental perception. These levels are elaborately discussed in chapter fifteen.

Techniques of Reading

Reading for comprehension is not a perusal. A bird's eye view of a given passage cannot guarantee understanding. A good scholar should intentionally make the physical environment where he reads conducive by:

- a) Turning off the radio (CD/DVD player or any electronic device which communicates, or supplies music from the background. This habit formed by some persons is bad.
- b) Turning your back to every sort of distraction like the picture of someone of the opposite sex/spouse.
- c. Sitting somewhere you may see nothing else but the book (s) you read. The wooden demarcations in modern libraries remind us that 99.9% of our attention should be on the written materials.

The reader's state of mind should not be taken for granted. The moment one picks a book/journal to read, he needs to clear his mind of vexations and obsessions, so that a calm and peaceful spirit can pervade the exercise.

Reading with a Purpose

A reader sets his goal from the beginning by telling himself the reason why he must comprehend the passage. One reads not just to understand, but to make the understanding a basis for answering

questions, gaining wisdom and academic excellence which in turn open vistas that cannot be readily counted. Bearing a purpose in mind helps the reader read with determination.

Flexibility

One should not read any material with a pre-conceived notion or the thought that a familiar title is akin to a familiar passage. One's mind should be open and receptive. Otherwise a fixed notion about a passage could mislead a reader. When he has actually finished reading, it may take some time for him to adjust and come to terms with the direction the passage points.

Detecting Topic Sentences

The topic sentence is the meaning carrying sentence in every paragraph. It is usually the first or last sentence of every paragraph. It gives a summary of the idea contained in a paragraph. A reader who detects and isolates the topic sentence, pays attention to it, has understood the paragraph where it is found. Every other sentence in the paragraph, merely explains, exemplifies or adds information/data to the facts stated in the topic sentence. One's ability to discover the topic sentences of different paragraphs is indispensable to his understanding of the entire passage.

Perception of Verbal/Sense Links

This involves grasping the writer's denotative and connotative expressions, repetitions, analogies contrasts and illustrations and how these relate to the entire passage. The reader need not ignore italicized, underlined or capitalized words which the writer draws attention to for emphasis.

Questions

The reader should, while still going through the passage, frame questions regarding the information he is getting. Questions like- How appropriate is the title of the passage? What is its theme? What is the writer's view of the issue? What is the writer's attitude towards his topic? How do some words in the passage relate to others?

Discovering Meaning Not Stated in a Passage

How does a reader discover meaning not stated in a passage? This is done by reading in-between the lines or by use of discernment. An idea may not be stated, but by implication becomes obvious. The reader uses his own faculty of thought to "see" (discern) where it lies.

Reading Strategies

A poor reader tends to read everything at the same pace. Reading for leisure or enjoyment and for information should be a bit faster than reading to solve a problem, to follow direction, or comprehend new and difficult concepts. This does not suggest that a reader who intends to comprehend should read at snail's pace.

To illustrate: a motor vehicle driver should not unnecessarily increase his mental alertness just because he is on the highway and the vehicle's speed is increased. He may become frantic and make more mistakes. Even when driving on a local route, he should not relax his alertness because there are fewer vehicles on the road and he drives at a lesser speed. That, too, would be a mistake.

To make study-type reading more meaningful, we need fast reading in a calculated and masterful pace. This requires practice and regulation. Some of the strategies are:

Preview

Preview or the examination of a material to be read is an important step towards a faster meaningful reading. The review will help determine the time and mental attitude required for such reading.

Preview involves locating:

- The date of publication
- Table of contents
- Length of material (number of pages)
- Styles of the writer (simple/ difficult)

Preview lends credence to purpose. In turn purpose determines pace. The three P's (preview, purpose and pace) are important factors for faster and effective reading.

Skimming

Skimming involves going through the written material in search of main ideas only. Thus the reader flips through in search of headings, sub-headings, highlights, pictorial/diagrammatic features, tables, data and related information. He quickly notes a few points.

Scanning

In scanning, the reader flips through the pages of a book/written material looking for specific information. Once it is found, he reads for comprehension and quickly jots down the main points. Scanning is a very conscious exercise, which the reader embarks on if he is already sure of what he is looking for.

Memory

A reader who has developed the skill of faster reading finds it easier to store up knowledge in his memory. To have knowledge or information stored up in this way involves:- learning, retention and recalling. This is different from memorization. Memorization is an inefficient attempt at learning, often devoid of understanding.

Poor readers would close their eyes or look up towards the ceiling of a building, trying hard to memorize lines/sentences just read. This may be accompanied by some mutterings and several trials to recall those sentences. But, if someone recalls what is not understood, of what use is it? Such a time-consuming exercise slows down reading speed and is harmful to learning. Effective readers should avoid memorization.

Note-Taking

Note-taking is an aid to recall and it is a very important reading and study skill. Rules for note-taking are not fixed since the activity is personal and styles may vary.

However, note-taking should be based on understanding. A good reader should not put down every word read, such that the writer's volume is bigger than the material read. Only major ideas are put down concisely. Immediately after lectures, notes should be revised and necessary correction made to avoid a mix-up.

They should also be grouped according to subjects/ disciplines, and be dated. If notes are from books, put down the bibliographical data clearly.

Notes should be written in the reader's own words using as many abbreviations as are meaningful to the reader. Use of abbreviation saves time and enhances one's reading and note-taking speed.

The SQ3R

This is a formula that outlines a strategy for reading. It is a technique which is used for reading so as to achieve maximum retention and recall.

The SQ3R stands for the following:

"S" stands for Survey. When one is surveying, he looks through the material to be read. Surveying the text to be read helps the reader to understand the passage better. This method helps the reader to establish his purpose clearly. As he does this, he will be able to assess if the passage will be difficult or not.

If the material to be surveyed is in a book, the student or reader should take note of the following:

- The title of the book,
- the subject discussed in the book, and
- other publication details of the book.

Other areas to be looked at are:

- the introduction and
- table of contents.

These are necessary because they are pointers to relevant information in the book.

On the other hand, if it is a chapter of a book that is to be read, the reader surveys headings, sub-headings and bullet points carefully and conscientiously as this would help the reader to be sure of what he chooses to read. The first and the last paragraph should be considered because authors usually summarize their main ideas there.

"Q" stands for question – After a survey of the material to be read, he asks himself questions that are very relevant to the information he seeks:

- 1) How authentic is the information in this book?
- 2) Can it be of help as is indicated in the introduction?
- 3) Was the author able to give a solution to the problems?

These questions that have been formulated would help the reader. "R1" stands for read. This means reading the text carefully so as to comprehend effectively what is in print. The reading should be done several times so as to master the subject matter.

This is so because some text materials are difficult to comprehend, which makes a re-reading mandatory.

Re-reading involves taking extra care to involve co-textual and contextual clues. It may also involve:

- 1) Reading in order to clarify confusing ideas.
- 2) Making notes
- 3) Taking care of new words.

When reading the text for the first time, one should not take down notes or underline words or points as this will slow down the rate of reading.

The fundamental thing to do is to have a general understanding of the material. If one underlines indiscriminately, one might get confused, and will not know which is major, minor or subordinating ideas.

"R2" stands for recall: This involves reading carefully with concentration and at the same time testing and reviewing what has been read. This skill enables the reader to recite from memory to others, or to himself the information of knowledge he has gathered from his reading. The reader can as well take down main ideas of the text from what he has in his memory. Recalling is a good method for the student to test himself and discover what he understands and what he does not.

"R3" stands for review: This means going through the whole passage over and over again. It involves sorting out the major ideas and relevant details. This method is the final scrutiny of the overall text; that is reviewing underlined points and notes that were taken. This is the last step in the SQ3R strategy.

Methods for Understanding Difficult Words in a Passage:

a) Context Clues

Context refers to words that come before and after a word, phrase or statement which helps the reader to understand its meaning. Put differently, the context of a word or expression is its *graphic environment*; what was said or written before and after the one in focus. The meaning of a word listed and subjectively explained for the purpose of teaching is different from its meaning when used in the context of a sentence or passage. For instance, the word *man* ordinarily suggests the following:

- a male homo sapiens. Consider the meaning of the same word in the following sentences:

(a) Nkechi, please man the door!

(b) Chinedu, be a man !

The lexicographer envisages this behaviour of words by explaining meaning of words through various entries. That is man₁, man₂, man₃ etc.

So, a reader should watch out for varying meanings of words, in relation to various contexts in which they appear. Meaning is context based.

There are other indicators of contextual inferences that are often used in passages.

b) Italics -A word/expression, when italicized, draws the attention of a reader to distinguish between the grammatical terms- *use* and *mention*

For instance – Epilogue is a literary term (mention)

The epilogue is rather lengthy (use)

- An italicized word is marked out as a key word to a definition.
- It may also indicate the use of a language other than the one employed for the present discourse.
- Title of books and essays are italicized to differentiate them from actual statements.
- For instance, (a) I read Ngugi's *I Will Marry When I Want*.

(b) It is now obvious that I will marry when I want.

c) Capitalization

A word that is capitalized catches the attention of a reader as important; an acronym or an exact reproduction from a quoted text.

d) Repetition

A word or expression which is repeated easily gives itself out as a clue to the understanding of a text. It is meant to emphasize a point that should not be overlooked by the reader.

e) Words Bearing Quotation Marks.

Words that have quotation marks, usually the inverted commas enclosing them signal meaning. The marks presuppose that the words should be read and understood connotatively, not on the surface level. For example: President Clinton's policies show that he is a "Blackman".

Ordinarily, inverted commas indicate that words are quoted from another speaker/ writer.

f) Use of the Dictionary

The question often asked is: Can the dictionary be read like any other book or do we consult it only when we have difficulty with word meaning? The answer is simple: The dictionary can be read before we run into trouble with word meaning. We can even have a note book for the new words learnt. It makes reading and understanding passages easier.

However, we cannot avoid running into entirely new/ strange words when we read other materials. At such times, the dictionary becomes handy. It must be an up-to-date dictionary not an abridged one. There, we will not just find the meaning of a difficult word but the one that fits into the context of our material and its usage.

g) Collocations

Collocation is a syntagmatic or horizontal relationship that exists between words, which is a tendency to co-occurrence. When words co-occur, they are said to *collocate*. There is a strong tendency for the words *beautiful* and *ladies* to co-occur. The same applies to *school* and *learn*; *pen* and *paper*. By anticipating the collocative

possibilities of a word, a reader's understanding of its meaning is enhanced.

Other collocation occurrences are phrasal verbs whose meanings are mostly idiomatic, and fixed. Their grammatical forms are:

- (a) Verb + Prep – Come across (meet suddenly)
Taken in (deceived)
Count down (think about a future event with pleasure)
- (b) Verb+ Prep + adverb - Put up with (tolerate) cash in on (take advantage of a situation)
Keep up with (rub shoulders/compete)
A few other examples are: round off- conclude, round up -arrest
Compare with – assumes that the two are at par.
Agree to – an idea/ a plan
Agree with – someone
I am *mad about* you- I am in love with you.
I am *mad at* you- I am very angry with you.

The varying collocative possibilities of the initial verbs affect the idiomatic meaning of the phrase. A good reader had better learn these and more meaning –carrying expressions.

h) Word Grouping

Word meaning is not as simple as the lexicographer would have us believe. Word meaning is a complex of components, a distinction made in principle, while actually the interrelationships in the analysis of meaning are multi-dimensional. This has forced linguists to adopt the componential approach; that is *word grouping*.

The relationship between words can arise by reason of different words sharing nearly the same meaning (synonyms) or by differing in a set of meaning (antonyms); identical words can be used in various ways (homophones, polysemy and homonyms).

Hence words are grouped and re-grouped in search of meaning. Sometimes, the grouping is loose, and at other times, they become polarities.

Reading for comprehension must involve a knowledge of these groups, their subtle inter-connectedness or a lack of it.

i) Use of Connectives

- Listing conjuncts such as *first, furthermore, finally* and *most importantly* indicate the order in which a point is developed.
- Result connectives such as *so, consequently, as a result,* indicate that a sentence express the consequences or result of what was said before.
- Inferential connectives- in *other words, in that case, if so, if not, which implies that,* indicate an inference of what is implicit in preceding sentences.
- Contrast is indicated by words such as: *On the one hand, on the other hand, instead, on the contrary, however, besides, although* etc.
- Concession is indicated by such connectives as: *actually certainly, of course, really, admittedly, infact* etc
- Certainly, a good reader can rely on these and more contextual inferences

j) Word /Text Attack Skill

Reading for comprehension is enhanced if the reader is acquainted with processes of word formation. In all, there are nine ways in which new words are formed or can gain entry into the English language lexicon. They are: Affixation, Coinage, Clipping, Compounding, Acronym, Borrowing, Conversion and Back Formation

k) **Affixation** is the addition of affixes (prefixes, infixes and suffixes, to an already existing root. Knowledge of this kind of composition helps a reader to decipher the meaning of words. For example, international/alienation:

inter	nation	al	alien	a	tion
Prefix	root	suffix	root	infix	suffix

Coinage is the invention of totally new words especially cat chy song titles and names of company products.

Example: Dorobuchi, Toyota, Arabellion, etc.

Clipping is the reduction of a poly-syllabic word to a shorter but acceptable form.

Examples:
Brassiere – Bra
Professor – Prof.
Fanatic- Fan etc

Compounds are new words formed from two or more bases

Example: Play + boy = Playboy
Cup + board = Cupboard etc

Acronyms are new words got from the initial letters from words in an expression. Example: ILO International Labour Organization
UNO United Nation Organization

Borrowing is a common way of forming new words in English language, since it is eclectic. Many English words today were not originally English. They were taken over from other languages.

Example: Impasse- French
Boss- Dutch

Blending – refers to a combination of two separate forms to get a new word.

Example: Telecast- Television broadcast
Arabellion- Arab Rebellion
Infoweb- Information Website

Conversion – The grammatical term conversion refers to a functional shift in a word which has not undergone an inflection.

Example: - **Noun** - **Verb**
 Doctor Doctor (to alter)
 House house
 Record record etc

Back formation – This refers to a unique kind of reduction in an already existing word in order to form a new word. This is common between nouns and verbs.

Example: Noun Verb
 Congregation- Congregate
 Enthusiasm - enthuse
 Amusement - amuse etc

Poor Reading Habits

Lack of Concentration

Without concentration, little comprehension can be achieved. Comprehension depends largely on the premium placed on what is read and the desire to read. There must be interest on the part of the reader; the curiosity to find out or learn more and the alertness to keep up reading speed and sustain initial interest.

Reading Single Words at a Time (Phrase Reading)

As one reads, his eyes stop intermittently to take meaning. One's reading speed is in direct proportion to the number of stops per page line. Therefore, to increase one's speed, one must try to take two, three or four words at a time. The eye movement is thus in a continuum. The more materials are read, the more an increase in eye span is ensured and this does not limit attention paid to meaning.

Regression

Regression involves glancing backwards to re-read individual words, phrases and sentences that are already read while searching for meaning, especially when the entire piece has not been read. This will slow, further, down the reader's poor speed. Ordinarily, it is not entirely wrong to go back and read a difficult line or passage but it is a mark of a poor reader. It can also mix up ideas that could have been comprehended simply.

Sub-Vocalization

To a large extent, most of us sub-vocalize. That is- we tend to say words silently as we read. Complete sub-vocalization is a poor reading habit because it is the equivalent of reading at the pace of speech. A good reader should try to grasp ideas without vocalizing

the words. If one can avoid vocalization, one's reading speed and comprehension will improve.

Closely aligned to vocalization are other poor reading habits like

a) Pointing to words.

The finger actually slows down the eyes. Naturally, eyes are faster than the finger. As reading speed slows down, comprehension becomes difficult.

(c) Head/Lip movement:

Moving one's head to follow the eyes is time wasting and unnecessary. Some readers do this unconsciously. This too affects comprehension.

Lack of comprehension

A poor reader may really lack basic comprehension skills like quick identification of main ideas and supporting details, contextual clues, rhetorical devices, relationships between questions and their answers, literal and connotative meaning and the ability to evaluate the materials read. If that be the case, the reader would have "put the cart before the horse."

Passages for Practice

Passage A

To be called upon to do the impossible is a very high compliment, for is it not a tribute to great feats already done, apparent impossibilities faced and overcome in the past? *That compensating thought*, however, is not always available as reward and stimulus to those who feel that they are confronted with something beyond the limits of the possible. We all know *what it is to have that feeling*. Even before we begin to feel it for ourselves, our parents have felt it for us. The fondest father, looking upon his new-born babe, must, at first blush, feel that it is beyond the bounds of possibility that this *unreasonably vocal* and not very beautiful stranger will in a few years be a bright and beloved child whose companionship and interest will mean all the world to him. And so it goes on. The small schoolboy sees a great gulf fixed between his unheeded self and the

demi-gods of the First Eleven. Later he gazes blankly at a *mountain-wall of examinations* and feels that he can never climb it. When he gets out into the world, it seems impossible that one so ill-equipped and inexperienced can ever be one of those who direct the affairs of men. But the dawn of "*golden vista's children*" brightens into brilliant day, and the small boy becomes the *many coloured hero*, saviour of many matches, to fresh generations of small boys. *The despair of teachers and examiners* blossoms out into the leader of a business, at the Bar, of an army, of a nation. Looking back to his *blind beginnings* and forward to untold ages, what limits shall man himself lay down to what he may become?

Some element of impossible, or at least some convincing appearance of it, is an essential of all advances. For progress, something is needed that is not yet. That may possibly never be, but that still does not cease to call for an attempt at its fulfillment. A man or a world that had no wants, or could get all that was wanted for the asking would be a man or a world doomed to satiety, stagnation and decay. What is impossible here and now is the goal, the lodestar, *the beckoning ideal of the future*. It makes irresistible appeal to the bold, the sanguine, and the forward-ranging spirit, however much it may daunt faint hearts and feeble knees. Without it, seas would never have been crossed, poles discovered, heaven- high peaks ascended; instead of braving the upper air on the wings of the wind, man would still be creeping among the brutes that perish. All very well, you may say, for youth with its tireless zest and its unbound ambitions and aspirations. It is different for the older man, who has learned by hard experience what his limitations are: He, if not "*too old at forty*", knows quite well at fifty, and even better at sixty, that he has reached the circumference of his possibilities and that his field of activity must henceforth be a steadily shrinking circle. That is true enough of material, and even mental possibilities. But it is not true, of the spirit. In that realm, age has no power to stale and wither. There is still room for the high adventure of attempting the impossibility. The ideal can still scale heights that look unscalable, and can still find a response in upward effort. For the greyest of spirits, to the very end, "all experience is an arch where thro"
Gleams that untraveled world whose margin fades.

For ever and for ever as I move"
(Adapted from Pink and Thomas, 1974:271)

Questions

- a. What title would you assign to this passage?
- b. What does the author refer to as the despair of teachers and examiners?
- c. Give simply, in your own words, the meaning of the passage which begins "but it is not true and ends with, "a response in upward effort"
- d. Name two feelings that, according to the passage, a small school boy has.
- e. "That compensating thought, however, is not always available..." What is that compensating thought?
- f. What does the old man know at 40, 50, 60?
- g. What is a father's feeling about a new born child?
- h. Why are wants essential to all progress as given in the passage?
- i. Explain simply and briefly the meaning of the following expression as used in the passage.
 - a. beyond the limits of the possible
 - b. a great gulf fixed between his unheeded self and the demi-gods of the First Eleven.
 - c. The small boy becomes the many- coloured hero
 - d. his field of activity must henceforth be a steadily shrinking circle
- j. Why, in the author's opinion, is it a very high compliment to be called upon to the impossible?
- k. What people have doubts about the capabilities of a child and what are the doubts?
- l. In the author's opinion, the child is capable for becoming successful in future. Show the area of the passage that this refers.
- m. What figures of speech are contained in the following?
 - i. "the beckoning ideal of the future:
 - ii. all experience is an arch"
 - iii. Blind beginnings
- n. Explain simply and briefly the meaning of each of the following expression used in the passage

- i. "compensating thought
 - ii. unreasonably vocal
 - iii. many- coloured hero
 - iv. blind beginnings
- o. Describe fully the grammatical functions of each of the following words and expressions as used in the passage.
- i. to be called
 - ii. very
 - iii. already
 - iv. before
 - v. whose
 - vi. what it is to have feeling
 - vii. even

Passage B

One of the most exciting races ever run is now in progress between doctors fighting malaria, and mosquito: According to the most recent counts, 225 million people a year suffer attacks of malaria and more than two million die. Public health workers around the world are doing all they can to destroy malaria before the mosquitoes that pass on the disease become resistant to the poisons now used against them. It is a race against time and against difficulties, with millions of lives in danger and the chances of winning not in man's favour. Malaria, it is true, has been practically wiped out in thirteen countries, including the United States, and is under attack in many others. But it is equally true that in some parts of the world certain types of malaria- carrying mosquitoes have already learned to resist some of the sprays that formerly killed them. Other types of mosquitoes are not killed as quickly by present sprays as they once were.

The World Health Organization is helping national governments to get rid of malaria before resistance among the mosquito population becomes so great that new poisons will have to be found to replace those in use at present. Most of the countries in the world have started, or are planning campaigns against mosquitoes. If the race against resistance is won by man, it is possible that ten years from now, this old evil will have disappeared completely from the Americas, perhaps from the world.

Malaria is the world's oldest recorded disease. It is referred to in old Chinese and India writings. It was one of the causes leading to the downfall of both the Greek and Roman empires. People recognized that there must be some connection between malaria and

the swamps, and some believed that insects living near swamps might be the carriers of the disease. The Romans dried the swamps and reduced the mosquito population. This was the best method used for the next fifteen centuries.

Not until 1632 did Europeans find a successful treatment for the disease. The Spanish discoverers of the New World learned from the Indians of Peru that the bark of one of the trees growing there often ended a patient's attack of malaria. In the nineteenth century, French scientists found that quinine was the substance in the East Indies and in time established an almost complete control of the medicine made from it. When the East Indies supply was cut off during the two world wars, two other drugs were developed which proved even more successful than quinine in curing attacks. Today most of the world uses these newer drugs.

The cure for malaria was found long before science learned the cause. During the last few years of the nineteenth century, however the combined efforts of the scientists of several nations led to the discovery of the connection between swamps, mosquitoes and malaria. The first great step forward was made in 1879, when a young Scottish doctor, working in China, proved that another disease was spread by mosquitoes. This led to the discovery that mosquitoes were the carriers of malaria.

Question

1. About how many people in the world die every year from malaria:
 - (a) one million
 - (b) two million
 - (c) one hundred thousand
 - (d) two hundred thousand
2. Malaria has been successfully wiped off:
 - (a) all countries
 - (b) some countries
 - (c) no countries
 - (d) some countries
3. The race that is being run between doctors and malaria is
 - (a) to save all children under ten years old.

- (b) to kill all malaria bearing mosquitoes before they becomes resistant.
 - (c) to clean malaria out of the United States
 - (d) to get the World Health Organization working.
4. The connection between malaria and swamps:
 - (a) is just an old story
 - (b) was known a very long time ago
 - (c) has been proved not to be true
 - (d) Was discovered by the Chinese.
 5. We now know that the drug cure for malaria was found:
 - (a) before the cause
 - (b) as a result of discovering the cause
 - (c) after the cause
 - (d) to be directly related to the cause.
 6. From reading this article would you say that in the fight against malaria, health officers
 - (a) have given up
 - (b) don't feel that they have any chance of winning
 - (c) are waiting for newer discoveries
 - (d) are working hard to win.
 7. When poison sprays are used
 - (a) they always kill mosquitoes
 - (b) some mosquitoes become resistant
 - (c) very few are killed
 - (d) Some escaped by hiding under public health worker.
 8. The World Health Organization's part in the fight against malaria is that it
 - (a) runs all the campaigns
 - (b) helps national governments
 - (c) gives education only
 - (d) Works mostly at developing new drugs.
 9. The cure for malaria was originally discovered
 - (a) by a French scientist
 - (b) in European laboratories
 - (c) by Peruvian Indians
 - (d) by Spanish explorers

10. The fight against malaria
- (a) has really just started in the last few years
 - (b) has been going on for centuries
 - (c) began in the 1800's
 - (d) Has been planned for the next Olympic games.

Passage C

Reversing the Brain Drain

An essay written by Philip Emeagwali

For 10 million African – born emigrants, the word “home” is synonymous with the United States, Britain or other country outside Africa. Personally, I have lived continuously in the United States for the past 30 years.

On the day I left Nigeria, I felt sad because I was leaving my family behind. I believed I would return eight years later, probably marry an Igbo girl, and then spend the rest of my life in Nigeria. But 25 years ago, I fell in love with an American girl, married her three years later, and became eligible to sponsor a Green Card visa for my 35 closest relatives including my parents and all my sibling, nieces and nephews.

The story of how I brought 35 people to the United States exemplifies how 10 million skilled people have emigrated out of Africa during the past 30 years. We came to the United States on student visas and then naturalized citizen. Our new citizenship status helped us sponsor relatives, and also inspired our friends to immigrate here.

Ten million Africans now constitute an invisible nation that resides outside Africa. Although invisible, it is a nation as populous as Angola, Malawi, Zambia or Zimbabwe. If it were to be a nation with distinct borders, it would have an income roughly equivalent to Africa's gross domestic product.

Although the African union does not recognize the African Diaspora as a nation, the IMF, acknowledges its economic importance. The IMF estimate the African Diaspora now constitutes the biggest group of foreign investors in Africa.

Take, for example, western union. It estimates that it is not atypical for an immigrant to wire \$300 per month to relatives in Africa. If

you assume that most Africans living outside Africa send money each month and you do the math, you will agree with the IMF that the African Diaspora is indeed the largest foreign investor in Africa. What few realize is that Africans who immigrate to the United States contribute 40 times more wealth to the American than to the African economy. According to the United Nations, professional working in the United States contribute about \$150,000 per year to the U.S economy. Again, if you do the math, you will realize that the African professional remitting \$ 300 per month to Africa is contributing 40 times more to the United States economy than to the African one. On a relative scale, that means for every \$300 per month professional African sends home, that person contributes \$ 12,000 per month to the U.S economy.

Of course, the issue more important than facts and figures is eliminating poverty in Africa, not merely reducing it by sending money to relatives. Money alone cannot eliminate poverty in Africa, because even one million dollars is a number with no intrinsic value. Real wealth cannot be measured in money, yet we often confuse money with wealth. Under the status quo, Africa would still remain poor even if we were to send all the money in the world there.

Ask someone who is ill what “wealth” means, and you will get a very different answer than from most other people. If you were HIV – positive, you would gladly exchange one million dollars to become HIV – negative. When you give your money to your doctor, that physician helps you convert your money into health- or rather, wealth. Money cannot teach your children. Teachers can. Money cannot bring electricity to your home. Engineers can. Money cannot cure sick people. Doctors can. Because it is only a nation's human capital that can be converted into real wealth, that human capital is much more valuable than its financial capital.

I also speak from my family experience. After contributing 25 years to Nigerian society as a nurse, my father retired on a \$25 – per month pension. By comparison, my four sisters each earn \$25 – per hour as nurse in the United States. If my father had had opportunity my sisters did, he certainly would have immigrated to the United States as a young nurse. The “brain drain” explains, in part, why affluent Africans fly to London for their medical

treatments. Furthermore, because a significant percentage of African doctors and nurses practice in U.S. hospitals, we can reasonably conclude that African medical schools are de facto serving the American people, not Africa.

A recent World Bank survey shows that African universities are exporting a large percentage of their graduating manpower to the United States. In a given year, the World Bank estimates that 70,000 skilled Africans immigrate to Europe and United States. While these 70,000 skilled Africans are fleeing the continent in search of employment and decent wages, 100,000 skilled expatriates who are paid wages higher than the prevailing rate in Europe are hired to replace them.

In Nigeria, the petroleum industry hires about 1,000 skilled expatriates, even though we can find similar skills within the African Diaspora. Instead of developing its own manpower resources, Nigeria prefers to contract out its oil exploration despite the staggeringly high price of having to concede 40 percent of its profits to foreign oil companies.

In a pre-independence day editorial, the *Vanguard* (Nigeria) queried, "Why would the optimism of 1960 give way to the despair of 2000?"

My answer is this: Nigeria achieved political independence in 1960, but by the year 2000 had not yet achieved technological independence.

During colonial rule, Nigeria retained only 50 percent of the profit from oil derived from its own territory. Four decades after this colonial rule ended, the *New York Times* (December 22, 2002) wrote that "40 percent of the oil revenue goes to Chevron, (and) 60 percent to the (Nigerian) government."

As a point comparison, the United States would never permit a Nigerian oil company; to retain 40 percent of the profits from a Texas oilfield. Our African homelands have paid an extraordinary price for their lack of knowledge, since it gained independence in 1960; Nigeria has relinquished 40 percent of its oilfield and \$200 billion to American and European stockholders.

Knowledge is the engine that drives economic growth, and Africa cannot eliminate poverty without first increasing and nurturing its

intellectual capital, while also increasing its wealth in many, many different ways.

Can the "brain drain" be reversed? My answer is "yes. But in order for it to happen, we must try something different. At this point, I want to inject a new idea into this dialogue. For my idea to work, it requires that we tap the talents and skills of the African. It requires that we create one million high-tech jobs in Africa. It requires that we move one million high-tech jobs from the United States to Africa. I know you are wondering: How can we move one million jobs from the United States to Africa? It can be done. In fact, by the year 2015 the U.S Department of labour expects to lose an estimated 3.3 million call centre jobs to developing nations.

In this area, what we as Africans need to do is develop a strategic plan- one that will persuade multinational companies that it will be more profitable to move their call centers to nations in Africa instead of India. These high-tech jobs include those in call centres, customer service and help desks- all of which are suitable for unemployed university graduates.

The reason these jobs could now emerge in Africa is that recent technological advances such as the internet and mobile telephones now make it practical, cheaper and otherwise advantageous to move these services to developing nations, where lower wages prevail.

Questions

1. In what way(s) can Africans residing outside Africa be considered a nation?
2. Why can it be said these Africans who send money to their relatives from around the U.S still contribute 40 times that amount to the host country.
3. Why are Africans still poor despite huge investments made in the continent?
4. How can it be argued that African institutions end up serving American interests?
5. How can brain drain be reversed?

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Chapter Seventeen

BASIC RESEARCH METHODS I

P. I. Mba

Introduction

The research paper comes under various names. It is called research paper, documented paper, a library paper, an investigative paper, a term paper or a reading report. Whatever it is called, it is based on a student's reading on a selected subject. The student chooses a topic, reads about it in the Internet, books or periodicals to collect evidence, takes notes and writes a long paper on his findings. Research involves collecting evidence to develop, support or refute ideas. This evidence includes the opinions of other people recorded in both published and unpublished materials. Evidence could equally be drawn from oral sources, such as interviews and conversations.

The term paper which our students write in partial fulfillment of the courses which they study such as GSP 101(The Use of English) is an example of a research paper.

The research paper may be one of three types, namely a report or term paper, thesis or a solution to a problem.

2.1 Report: The writer of a report finds out the facts of the subject and presents them in a clear, orderly and detailed account. There is no requirement to make a judgment from the facts. For example, a student reporting the opinions of critics about one of Achebe's novels must show what the criticism is and need not evaluate it.

2.2 Thesis: The writer of a thesis paper studies the facts of the subject and draws a conclusion from them. This conclusion is the result of the writer's study and becomes the thesis of the paper. The whole paper is an explanation or justification of that thesis. For example, a student who has studied the text and criticism of *Things Fall Apart*, and has decided that the final chapter weakens the whole novel begins with the thesis and develops it throughout the paper.

2.3 Solution to a Problem: A student attempting to solve a problem in a research paper first states and explains the problem, then identifies and evaluates suggested solutions, and finally shows a preferred solution. That solution is a judgment but the judgment needs not be stated as an introductory thesis.

2.4 Preview Research Procedure:

Writing the term paper is one of the first experiences that a first year university student has in doing research. As a result of this it is very challenging to the student. The following procedure will help students to produce a good research paper.

2.5 Steps to Follow in Term Paper Production

1. Select the term paper topic bearing the following in mind.

- (a) Familiarity with the topic
- (b) Interest in the topic
- (c) Availability of material
- (d) Cost in terms of reaching the material

II. Search for material

- (A) From the Library
- (B) From the Internet
- (C) From private sources or oral interviews.

III. Organize your material by using the outline method

IV. Make a final outline and write the first draft of your paper.

V. Review the draft and get the paper typed

VI. Submit your paper in good time.

3.0.1 Selecting the Term Paper Topic:

In most cases the department gives you a list of term paper topics to choose from. If this is the case with your department, you must consider the following before making a choice.

(a) Are You Familiar With The Topic? A topic that is familiar to you is an excellent topic to choose. The familiar topic will arouse your interest. Term paper writing is very demanding. You have to spend a lot of time and energy searching for material. If your topic is familiar you will have interest in it.

(b) Are You Interested in the Topic?

If you have no interest in the topic, you may abandon it half-way through.

(c) Are Materials Available?

Based on interest and familiarity, you have now made a tentative choice. Make a survey of the materials available on your general subject. You must make sure that your topic is researchable, that is, that your library has both primary and secondary materials on your topic. The primary materials are "the real subject of study" and the secondary materials "are the critical and historical accounts written on these primary materials".

If you have any doubt on your title, use the dictionary to clear the doubts. You must have had your lecture on the use of the library, so, your first step will be to turn to the subject catalogue to discover what sources are available to you. You could also get information in the Author/title catalogue. Go to the reference section of the library, browse through the general Encyclopedia such as the Encyclopedia Britannica for a general view of the title. Also look for materials in the internet. If materials are available you can then consider your choice of topic as right.

(d) What is the Time and Space Limit?

You are usually told the number of pages you are required to write and when to hand in the finished paper. You have to consider whether the topic you have chosen is such that can be written within the time and space available. If your topic is vast and cannot be delimited consider another topic.

(e) Is the Research Expensive?

Do not choose a topic that will involve expensive gadgets. Avoid topics that will make you do long and expensive journeys. These may affect your research.

3.0.2 Search for Material

You need a lot of facts, statistics and opinions from the Internet, books, journals, reference materials, lecture notes, letters,

questionnaires, articles, radio programmes, and television, personal and private interviews. The library and internet are the most valuable source of information.

To get the general and over all view of your topic you need to start your research with the Encyclopaedia. Background information will be found in any of the general Encyclopaedias, such as Encyclopaedia Britannica, Encyclopaedia Americana and others. The encyclopaedia is very useful for the bibliographic information it carries. The information will suggest to you books for further reading. With the background information you get from the encyclopaedia and the Internet you can decide on what further search you need.

The card catalogue is a good source of information to know what books are available on your topic. The card catalogue lists alphabetically all that the library stocks. The cards which measure 12.5cm by 7.5cm are used to list publications and each card lists one publication. The cards are arranged under "subject" catalogue and "Author/Title" catalogue. If you know the author of a book you can look it up under the author/Title catalogue. The subject catalogue is the best for writing your term paper because it will list all that the library has under the subject you are working on. Take down enough information that will help you locate the book on the library shelf. Look for materials in the serials section. This section stocks periodicals in which you may find the most current information on your topic.

Materials could also be found in reference section. There are encyclopaedias, bibliographical dictionaries, abstracts, indexes and specialized dictionaries in the reference section.

You can look for newspaper articles on your topic in the newspaper room.

The Africana section is another source of information on Africa.

The Internet is also a good source of information.

4. The Reading Stages for Research

For most research studies the reading may be divided into three stages – Introductory, Intensive and Supplementary.

4.1 Introductory Reading:

This gives the background needed in order to begin the investigation intelligently. Note-taking at this stage is not profitable. Best sources for introductory reading are articles, chapters in textbooks, histories and biographical references.

4.2 Intensive Reading:

This provides the bulk of the information from which the paper will be written. This is where you actually do thorough work for your research paper.

4.3 Supplementary Reading:

At this stage you fill in gaps and provide added information needed to make the paper complete.

5. The Parts of the Research Paper

A research paper is normally made up of three main parts; the front matter or preliminaries, the text and the reference matter or subsidiary pages. In a long paper each of these main parts may consist of several sections. But in a short paper there may be nothing more than the title page, table of contents, the body of the text and bibliography.

5.1 The Front Matter or Preliminaries

The preliminaries include the front cover, the title page, dedication, the preface and acknowledgement, list of illustrations, list of tables, and table of contents.

(a) The Front Cover:

Most universities have their own style of front covers for term papers, thesis and dissertation. For term papers and reports, if a sample is not provided a front cover must contain the name of the institution, the department of the student or writer, the title of the paper, the reason for writing the paper, the name of the student, the student's registration number, the lecturer's name and the date.

Example:

UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA
ENUGU CAMPUS

DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE

WAGE REVIEWS AND FUTURE OF THE
NIGERIAN ECONOMY.

A TERM PAPER

Prepared in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Course GSP 101
(The Use of English)

Dike, M. A.
2001/104054

LECTURER: Dr. M.U. Mbonu
April, 2001

(b) **The Title Page**

The title page contains the title only.

(c) **Dedication:** The student makes a statement of appreciation or pays tribute to individual(s) or organization(s) that must have made significant contributions in his career or influenced his life. Statements of dedication are usually concise and are preceded by the preposition "To".

For example

To:

My parents for their love and care

(d) **Preface:**

This includes such matters as the writer's reason for making the study, its background, scope and purpose for writing the paper. The

next paragraph should be devoted to a summary of the chapters, and the last paragraph should acknowledge help given to you in writing the paper by institutions or persons.

(e) **Acknowledgements**

Here the researcher thanks all the people – publishers, authors, organizations etc – who have helped him or her in the course of the research either by permitting part of their publications to be reproduced or by sponsoring the researcher financially.

(f) **List of Illustration:**

A list of illustrations sometimes headed simply "Illustration" consists of the figure numbers (indented with Arabic numerals), the titles of the figures and the page numbers. The titles should agree with those given under the illustrations. Capitalize the initial letters of all words except prepositions and coordinating conjunctions. In addition maps, charts or graphs should be included in the list of illustrations, in separate section under their designated labels.

(g) **List of Tables:**

A list of tables gives the table numbers with their respective titles and page numbers. The title as shown in the list should agree exactly with their wording above the tables themselves. The titles are typed in capital and small letters.

(h) **Table of Contents:**

The table of contents should contain a list of the major divisions in the paper: the preliminary pages, the Chapter or their equivalent and the subsidiary pages. The preliminary pages should be paged with lower case Roman numerals while the chapters and subsidiary pages should be in the Arabic numerals.

For a topic such as; "Students Involvement in Secret Societies and the Implication for Educational Development in Nigeria" a sample Table of Contents is given below:

<u>Table of Contents</u>			<u>Page</u>
Title Page	i
Dedication	ii
Preface and Acknowledgement			iii
List of Illustrations	iv
List of Tables	v
Table of Contents	vi
CHAPTER 1:			
Introduction	1
1.1 Meaning and Origin of Secret Cults			2
1.2 Names of Secret Cults			4
CHAPTER 2: Reasons Why People Join Secret Cults			
2.1 Protection Purpose	5
2.2 Financial Support and Respect			7
2.3 Group Influence	8
2.4 Parental Background	9
CHAPTER 3: The Impacts			
3.1 Social Impact	10
3.2 Political/Economic Impact			11
3.3 Religious Impact	11
3.4 Psychological Impact	12
CHAPTER 4: The Remedies			
4.1 Methods of Curbing Secret Cults			12
4.2 Recommendations			13
4.3 CONCLUSION	14
NOTES	14
BIBLIOGRAPHY	15
			16

6. The Text:

The text is the main body of the paper. It is divided into chapters and introduction is the first part of the text.

6.1 Introduction:

The text usually begins with an introduction, which may be chapter 1. If it is short, the writer may prefer to head it simply "Introduction". The introduction, whether it is called chapter 1 or not, is the first major division of the text. Thus, the first page of the

introduction is page 1 (Arabic numeral) of the paper but it is not usually labeled or stated as 1. The subsequent page is clearly stated as 2. This is supposed to introduce your work to the reader.

6.2 Chapters:

The main body of the paper is usually divided into chapters, each chapter having a title and each beginning on a new page.

6.3 Footnote: *

Footnotes are also considered as part of the text. It is possible to have verbatim quotations inside your work, when this happens, enclose the verbatim quotation in inverted commas. All information taken from a source must be identified in the footnote. That is the evidence that must be documented. The purpose of doing this is to avoid the appearance of representing somebody else's work as yours and to let the interested reader consult your sources and so check the accuracy of your investigation or carry on his own. This convention is so important in research writing that inaccurate documentation, or none at all is regarded as a serious offence. For the research writer it is both good manners and good morals to acknowledge sources fairly and accurately.

The place in the text at which a footnote is introduced should be marked with an Arabic numeral. Place the numeral slightly above the line. The footnote number should follow the passage to which it refers. If the passage is an exact quotation, the footnote number comes at the end of the quotation. The footnote numbers must follow one another in numerical orders beginning with figure 1. Numbering may start over on each page or at the end of each chapter. If you decide to list the notes at the end of the entire paper it becomes "Endnote". If it was found that a note had been omitted or that one should be deleted or dropped, it would be necessary to renumber the notes from the point of the desired change to the end of the chapter or of the paper. The insertion of a note numbered, for example, "1a" is not permitted and the omission of a number likewise is not permitted. Footnotes should be arranged in numerical order at the foot (lower part) of the page and all those to which references are made in the text must appear on the same page as the reference to them. Fewer

numbers of references in the text improves the appearance of the page and saves space in the footnote area as well as in typing time. In a single paragraph containing more than one quotation from one work of the same author, a reference number following the last quotation would permit all the quotations to be cited in one footnote. For example, if we have about three reference numbers all three citations would be made in one footnote.

In typing the footnotes you indent the first line of each footnote the same number of spaces as the paragraph indentation (five spaces) in the text. Type the footnotes single space, but use double space between individual footnotes.

* Although footnotes and endnotes are no longer in vogue, it is important to let potential researchers know what they are and how they function.

Examples:

¹Chinua Achebe, *No Longer at Ease*, (Heinemann Educational Educational Books Ltd., 1960), p. 25.

Subsequent Reference

²Ibid., p. 64

First Reference to a Book with more than one Author:

¹Ike Nwosu and Madu Okeke, *The Rise of the Student Estate in Nigeria* (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press 1970), p. 28.

Subsequent Reference

Nwosu and Okeke, p. 10.

Reference to a Magazine Article

¹Okafor Nwankwo, "Prospects for a Global Language", *Saturday Review*, May 7, 1984, p. 34.

Subsequent Reference

Nwankwo, p. 12.

Reference to a Newspaper Article:

³John Field, "Automated Medicine", *The New York Times*, January 30, 1991, Sec. 3, p. 8.

Subsequent Reference

Field, p. 10.

6.4 Summary on Footnotes

- (a) In a footnote the author's name is written in its normal order – John Okeke – not inverted as in a bibliography.
- (b) When more than one author is to be named, the form should be the same as that used in bibliography except that the first author's name is not inverted. However, when a work has three or more author's or editors, it is conventional to name the first author and substitute others or use the Latin word *et al* which means and others for the remaining names, for example, John Okeke and others instead of John Okeke, Nkem Nwankwo and Tom Okoro. This shortened form is used only in footnotes, not in a bibliography.
- (c) When a book has an editor instead of an author, the editor's name in normal order is used in place of the author's name.
- (d) After the first reference to a work in a footnote, the author's or editor's name is usually shortened to surname only or *Ibid* (in the same place) in subsequent footnotes.
- (e) If there is no author's or editor's name, the footnote should begin with the title.

7. The Reference Matter or Subsidiary Pages

The reference matter which is the last part of a paper includes the appendix, glossary, list of abbreviations and the bibliography.

7.1 Appendix:

Usually, an appendix is not an essential part of every paper but it is a useful device or way to make available to the reader material related to the text which is not suitable for inclusion in it. Such materials may be tables too detailed for text presentation, copies of documents not generally available to readers, and figures or other illustrative materials.

If materials included in the appendix are numerous and fall into several categories, each category should form a separate appendix.

and each should be given a number or a letter. For example, Appendix 1, Appendix 2, Appendix 3 etc. or Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix C etc. Each appendix should carry a descriptive title.

7.2 Glossary:

If a paper contains many foreign words or technical words or phrases that are not likely to be familiar to the reader, a list of these words, with their translations or definitions will be helpful. The words should be arranged in alphabetical order, like a dictionary. The typing should be double spaced.

7.3 List of Abbreviations:

If the author has used some abbreviations in his work, a list of abbreviations should be put at the end of the paper. It is not necessary to list commonly accepted abbreviations. The list should be arranged in alphabetical order by the abbreviation itself and not its spelled-out form. The typing should also be double spaced.

7.4 Bibliography

A bibliography is a list of books, articles, and other publications used for research work. These are the working bibliography and a final bibliography.

7.4.1 Working Bibliography: This is a set of cards or sheets identifying works you consult during your study. It is a tentative bibliography, from which you weed out cards for titles that prove on examination to have no value for your purpose, and to which you add cards for other titles that come to your attention as you read intensively in your subject.

Before you begin your actual search for titles, ask yourself two questions:

1. What kind of materials do I want?
2. What are the most likely places to find it?

Once you have started to prepare your bibliography try to make your bibliography selective as you prepare it. Do not list three titles that contain the same information, that do not deal much on your subject.

Usually, the best way to guess at the usefulness of a book is to look through it quickly, Read the preface or part of it, and check the table of contents. You can usually tell within three minutes whether the book will be of use to you.

7.4.2 The Form of the Working Bibliography:

The working bibliography is made on 3 by 5 inch cards, with each title on a separate card. Each card should contain the name of the author, the title of the work and the facts of publication. In addition the card may contain for the convenience of the student, the library call number and a note concerning the contents of the work.

7.4.3 The Final Bibliography:

It is a type-written list placed at the end of your finished paper. It is the record of the items you found valuable during your research. It will naturally contain fewer titles than your working bibliography. The final bibliography will be typed from the bibliography cards and should follow a particular form. It should contain a citation for each work mentioned in the footnotes. It may also contain a few works which you found to be useful background references which was not cited or quoted in your paper.

In typing or writing your bibliography observe the following conventions unless your lecturer recommends modifications.

1. If the bibliography is long, group the publications according to type – books, magazines, articles, newspaper articles etc. When the bibliography is short the grouping is less necessary.
2. List items alphabetically by authors or if the author is not given, by the first letter of the title (not counting “A”, “AN” or “The”). List items in groups if bibliography is long.
3. Single – space each item and double space between items.
4. In each item indent two spaces for all lines after the first.

Note that current documentation style should always be used.

7.4.4 Sample Bibliography Entries

- (a) The author's surname comes before his given name for ease in alphabetizing.

- (b) If the book is the work of an agency, Committee, organization or department, rather than an individual, the name of the agency takes the place of the author's name.
- (c) If no author is given, the citation begins with the title.
- (d) The title of the book is italicised.
- (e) The facts of publication are the place of publication, the publisher, and the date of publication, in that order.
- (f) If no date of publication is given, use the latest copyright date.
- (g) If more than one place is given, on the title page, use only the first.
- (h) Give the publisher's name as it appears on the title page.
- (i) Do not number the items.

8. Revision Questions

- (i) What is a research paper?
- (ii) What are the different names of a research paper?
- (iii) How do footnotes differ from bibliography?
- (iv) Why do you have to make references to other sources when writing a paper?
- (v) What are the major parts of a research paper?
- (vi) What points must you consider before choosing a term paper topic?
- (vii) How does "Endnotes" differ from "Bibliography"?

Bibliography

- Corbett, E. P. J. *The little English handbook*. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, 1977.
- Ifionu, C. N. "The Term Paper as a Research Work." In *Language skills for tertiary institutions* Ed. E.A. Ohuche. Enugu: New Concept Publishers, 1996.
- Oluikpe, B. O. A. *The use of English for higher education*, Africana -Feb. Publishers Ltd., 1984.
- Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term papers, Thesis, and Dissertation*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973.
- Willis, H., and Charles, M. Cobb. *Basic usage, vocabulary and composition*. New York: Holt, Rinelant and Wintston Press, 1979.

BASIC RESEARCH TECHNIQUES II: THE TERM PAPER

C. U. Ogbuehi

One of the objectives of a university is to encourage and promote the conduct of research. The term paper is a research paper. Let us then begin by giving a definition of the term paper:

a term paper is a well-researched long essay on a given subject submitted by students in tertiary institutions in fulfilment of the requirement of a course.

The term paper is the beginning point of scholarly research for first year students. *The World Book Encyclopedia* defines the word 'research' as

The use of systematic methods to evaluate ideas and discover something

and the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* defines research as

serious study of a subject, that is intended to discover new facts or test new ideas

Your aim as a researcher is to search for sources of information other than your personal knowledge on a given topic. The aim is to get new information, sharpen perception of a problem, or boost the authority of an already existing fact.

Procedure For Writing A Term Paper

Choosing the topic

(1) Students are given opportunity for independent work through assigning the term paper in various courses as soon as they settle for studies in tertiary institutions. Some criteria will determine your choice of a term paper topic. They are:

- (a) **interest in the topic and rudimentary knowledge-** You don't choose a topic because it sounds exotic but because you are interested in it and have a smattering knowledge of it. For example, if you are to choose between writing on kangaroos and goats, it will be better for you as a Nigerian student to choose goats than kangaroos of Australia.
- (b) **availability of material-** You should be sure that the materials on a topic are available and accessible.
- (c) **time-** the time required for submission should determine your choice of a topic that will require less movement with regard to search for data.
- (d) **scope** – Your choice should put into consideration the scope of the work. Scope can be narrowed down to specific issues in order to complete the work on time.
- (e) **cost-** You should consider your resources when choosing a topic. Avoid a topic that will be expensive in collecting data and producing the final report.

Gathering the Data

After picking a topic, the next thing you should do is literature search. This will involve an exhaustive search for relevant material in books, journals, newspapers etc, which will be used to develop the topic. The first port of call will be the library. The library catalogue, bibliographies, reviews, abstracts, periodical indexes, will help you to compile a preliminary bibliography. Your knowledge of how to use different types of libraries and how they are organized will be useful in your search for materials. You will look into popular magazines, reviews of books and journals, reference materials, several scholarly books related to the topic, several journals and newspapers. To avoid pedestrian sources, evaluate the scholarly value of books, and other sources with the following criteria:

- Check the year of publication of the material in order to determine how current it is. It will not be proper to consult books on a subject written twenty years ago, or later when there are ones written five years ago, check also edition/impression of the book.
- Check the qualifications of the authors/contributors of the books you consult to make sure they are authorities in the area of the subject. This will help you to rely on information gathered from them.
- Check the organization of the book, especially reference material, for easy retrieval of information.
- Check the treatment of subject matter to suit audience/purpose. Scholarly books should treat subject at the level of scholars.
- Check for inclusion of bibliography for further reading and referencing.

After gathering material from books, journals, news papers etc you can take your research on-line. The ICT has made it possible for people to gather information fast. The internet—a worldwide network of computers—offers a lot of information on many subjects. You can surf the website, if the terminologies are known to you, for information at the shortest time.

As you read through the material you have collected, it is pertinent that you make notes. Ideally you require for your note 3"x5" or 4"x6" note cards, which have the advantage of being easily arranged in a definite sequence. You may, however, choose to make your notes on ordinary note-books. Before making notes from a book, you require a preview of the book in order to determine the relevance of its content to your topic. You should not read every page in every book you come across, this is sheer waste of time. Examine the table of contents and the index; they will give you an idea of the different parts of the book and the words and terms used in it. Quickly go through the preface and find out the organization of the content, skim or scan on the background and content of the book. At the end of these exercises, you should be able to extract your material within a minimum time. The next step will be taking notes from selected texts.

Guidelines towards Effective Note-Taking during Research

- Use uniform note-cards either 3" x 5" or 4" x 6", if available. They are easily arranged into any order. Use separate note-card for each note.
- Write on each card the following bibliographic information required for acknowledgement and documentation:
 - Name of author(s) editor/translator/compiler.
 - Title of the book
 - Imprint- place of publication, publisher(s), date of publication; volume/frequency of journals.
 - Exact pagination, if you have taken a quotation from it.
- Put down the call number of the book, if it is a library book. This will help you locate it when next you require it.
- Use note-taking method that serves your purpose best-
 - Exact quotation enclosed in quotation marks.
 - A paraphrase
 - A summary
 - An outline.
- Make remarks about your own ideas, especially when they are at variance with the author's
- Read extensively from several sources on one subject-compare your sources and evaluate...
- Use the ellipses period to indicate omission within and at the end of quotations; use the square bracket to enclose interpolations.
- Use abbreviations and terms used in bibliographical citations and manuscript preparation.

Abbreviations In Research Writing(English)

f, ff	-	and the following
I, II	-	line, lines
n, d	-	no date of publication
n, p	-	no place of publication
no, nos.	-	number, numbers
p, pp	-	page, pages
trans.	-	translator
ed, eds.	-	editor, editors

edn.	-	edition
comp.	-	compiler
vol. vols.	-	volume, volumes
supra	-	above
infra	-	below
bk, bks	-	book, books
rev.	-	revision or revised
anon.	-	anonymous
ca(circa)	-	used before dates which are determined only approximately.
passim	-	here and there. Used to indicate citations that are scattered in the text
pseud.	-	pseudonym (used when an author uses another name in writing)
sic.	-	literally means 'thus' and used to indicate error in a quoted material or that the spelling, grammatical, or logical error in quotation is not from the person quoting.
ill.	-	illustrated; illustrations.

Abbreviations in Research Writing (Latin)

Terms	Abbreviation	Meaning
ibidem	ibid.	in the same place.
et alli	et al	and others.
idem	Id	the same as before.
opere citato	op.cit.	in the work already cited.
loco citato	loc.cit	in the place/passage cited.
sine loco	Sl	no place of publication
sine anno	Sa	no year of publication
editio citata	ed. cit.	edition cited.
conferre	cf.	Compare
Stet	—	let it stand

id est	i.e.	that is
exempli gratia	e.g.	for example
videlicet	Viz	Namely
quod vide	Qv	which see
sub voce	Sv	under the word
manuscript	ms, mss	hand written copy
et cetera	etc.	and so on
nota bene	Nb	note well
vice versa	Viz	the other way round
viva voce	Viva	oral examination
versus	vs	against
C	C	copyright
et sequens	et seq.	and the following
Sub finem	sf.	towards the end
scilicet	sc.	namely.

Task I

Choose any book you like, make notes from it using one sample each of the following kinds of notes:

- (1) Outline of any passage in the book.
- (2) Exact quotation from any page.
- (3) Summary of any chapter.
- (4) A paraphrase of the introduction
- (5) An interpolated quotation from any page.

Writing the Research Report

You have chosen a topic, gathered enough material and ready to write your report. The first task is to brainstorm and generate ideas that will form the major blocks of discussion. You do an outline which will be an analytical table of contents for the work.

The term paper has the features of a typical book. It has three parts.

- A. The preliminary pages
 - i. Table of contents,

- ii. Dedication
- iii. Acknowledgement
- iv. Preface

B. The main Text – Chapters that treat the major content issue. It usually begins with the ‘introduction’ and may sometimes include textual notes, maps, graphs etc.

C. The subsidiary pages

Notes	}	Mandatory
Bibliography		
Glossary	}	Optional
Appendix		

Parts of the Term Paper

The cover is designed to carry the following pieces of information

- The name of the Institution
- The candidate’s department
- The topic/title of term paper
- The registration No of student
- Lecture group (optional)
- Date of publication

Sample cover

University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Department of Linguistics

Global Warming and Climate Change: Problems and Prospects

(A term paper submitted in partial fulfillment of the course GSP 101. The Use of English I)

By

Okoro, C.O.

08/12345

2009

A. The Preliminary pages

The preliminary pages should include the following features.

- (i) **The table of contents** – This shows the list of chapter headings and sub-headings and the pages where they are located in the term paper. The table of contents may be analytical or non-analytical. It is analytical when it gives details of headings and sub-headings of the work.
- (ii) **Dedication**- This is an emotional part of the work. In it the writer dedicates the work to some person(s) dear to him/her. For example,

To

My Dad and Mum

(iii) Acknowledgement

This is the page where the writer lists names of persons who have helped in his development physically, emotionally and intellectually, including those who typed the manuscript. Sometimes, the acknowledgement is part of the preface.

(iv) **The Preface** - This is a very important part of the report. In the preface the writer sets out how the work is organized chapter by chapter, how he collected data, difficulties encountered in the process, the scope of the work and the aim. The pages of the preliminary part of the text are marked with the small letters of the roman figure (i, ii, iii, iv etc).

II. The main text

The main text of a term paper begins with the introductory chapter. This is the chapter that gives background information to the work. It may give definitions of terms in the topic, historical background that will help the researcher/ reader to understand the issues discussed in the text. The other chapters discuss the major issues and their

supporting details. The main text may have graphs, tables, diagrams charts etc or they may be added as appendices. The pages of the main text are marked with Arabic figures (1, 2, 3,4 etc).

III. The subsidiary pages

The subsidiary pages include:

- notes- which is a list of direct quotations
- bibliography – an alphabetized list of books consulted
- glossary- an alphabetized list of strange words and technical terms which the writer explains.
- appendix- Supplementary materials such as charts, maps, graphs, interviews, questionnaires etc.

Documentation

As a researcher, your aim is to seek out sources of information/ideas other than your own. In doing this, you will use ideas and facts from other scholars, you may make direct quotations to support points made. This is necessary in order to make your conclusions credible. In terms of research, documentation is the acknowledgement of sources of ideas/information in the report. It is important to document for the following reasons:

- It helps the researcher to avoid plagiarism. Plagiarism is false assumption of authorship which is a serious intellectual dishonesty.
- It gives credibility/reliability to the researcher's conclusions since they are derived from various authorities.
- It shows the extent of the researcher's citations
- It brings together the ideas of many scholars and thus helps in cross-referencing
- It directs other researchers to sources when they compile preliminary bibliographies.

We have two forms of documentation:

- (a) bibliographical documentation which shows sources of quotations
- (b) Textual documentation which shows additional facts, comments, explanations relevant to the work.

Bibliographical documentation is the most important documentation for researchers. It is the form of documentation where you list sources of quotations used in your work. It is important to use quotations in your work because they show other scholars ideas, they lend authority to important facts which you have raised, they help to clarify divergent views. This form of documentation is the goal of every researcher. There are various styles of documentation. If you have made proper notes during data collection, they will be useful at this stage in compiling your 'notes' and 'bibliography'. There are various styles of documentation such as Harvard style, Chicago Manual of Style (CMS), Council of Biology Editors (CBE), Columbia On-line style (COS), American Psychological Association. (APA), Modern language Association (MLA) and the classic style. The classic style, which relies heavily on the use of Latin expression, is now obsolete. The list is not exhaustive, some subject areas have their styles of documentation. The differences in format are sometimes minor and are regarded as variants of the other. The Harvard style, for instance, is a variant of the APA. We shall examine two of the major styles of documentation which are popular.

(1) MLA style (Modern language Association)

The MLA is commonly used in the Humanities. It has the format of the classic style but does not rely on the Latin expressions used by the classic style.

The following are entries for 'notes' and 'bibliography' in MLA style.

MLA STYLE:

Notes

- ¹Chinua Achebe, *Arrow of God* (London: Heinemann, 1964) 8. (single author)
- ²John Hodges and Mary Whitten, *Harbrace College Handbook*, 9th ed. (NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1982) 10. (two Authors).
- ³Anyanwu, C. Esiobu C. and E.A. Osioma, *Studies in EAP Curriculum* (Nsukka: Das Press, 1990) 5. (three Authors).
- ⁴C. U. Ubadire et al, *Writers Block: A Panacea* (Nsukka: Univ. Press, 1959) 16. (more than three authors).

- ⁵B.O. Oluikpe, ed. *The Use of English for Higher Education* (Onitsha: Africana-FEP, 1980) 30 (book with editor).
- ⁶Christopher Fry, "Laughter," *The Norton Reader: An Anthology of Expository prose*, 3rd ed. Ed. Arthur M Edstman et al, (NY: www. Norton and Co Inc., 1965) 573. (entry from an anthology).
- ⁷John Fitzgerald, "The Misconceived Revolution: State and Society in China's Nationalist Revolution, 1923-26," *Journal of Asian Studies* 49 (1990): 323. (journal Article)
- ⁸Nnadozie Nkemakolam, "The Didacticism of Igbo Folklore," Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, (University of Nigeria, Nsukka, 1988) 8.

MLA ENTRY FROM ELECTRONIC SOURCE

Buchi Emecheta. "Biographical Information."
Contemporary literary Criticism. 6 Jan. 2009
 <<http://www.enotes. Com/>>.

Electronic
 address

Examine the entries for 'notes' and you will notice the following features

- Entries are numbered (called superscripts)
- First name of author comes first and surname last
- First line is indented subsequent lines begin flush with the margin
- Parentheses encloses the imprint of books
- There is exact pagination
- Frequency of journal article is indicated

MLA STYLE BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Achebe, C. *Arrow of God*. London: Heinemann, 1964.
- Anyanwu, C.U, Esiobu, C.& Osisioma, EA *Studies in EAP Curriculum*. Nsukka: DGS Press, 1990.
- Fitzgerald, John "The Misconceived Revolution: State and Society in China's Nationalist Revolution, 1923-26." *Journal of Asian Studies* 49 (1990): 323
- Fry, Christopher. "Laughter." *The Norton Reader: An Anthology of Expository Prose*. Ed. Arthur Eastman et al. Ny: w.w. Norton & Co Inc, 1965.

Examine the Entries for Bibliography and take note of the following features.

- Entries are arranged in alphabetical sequence, they are not numbered
- Surname of author comes first
- First line of entry begins from margin subsequent lines are indented.
- Imprint is not enclosed with parentheses
- No exact pagination indicated
- All inclusive pages of journal article indicated

THE APA STYLE

The APA (American Psychological Association) is a style of documentation common in the sciences. It is sometimes called the Harvard style, and also a variant of the triple entry style. The APA style is used in-text, where entries are made before or after the quotation. For example, According to Achebe (1975:19), "Art is, and was always, in the service of man".

When the reference is indirect, the entry may be put this way: Achebe (1975) thinks that writers in Africa should write things that are of relevance to their societies.

At the end of the entire report, a list of references are entered. Only books, and articles cited are listed under the references. The entry will read thus:

References

- Achebe, C. (1975). *Morning yet on creation day*. London: Heinemann.
- Verma, G.K. and Beard, R. M. (1981). *What is education research: Perspectives on technique of research*. Aldershot: Grower.

The following are the peculiarities of the APA style.

- The acknowledgment is in-text
- Three entries are made for direct quotations- Surname, Year of publication and date of publication
- There is date of publication after surname in entries for references.

Conclusion

We have given here the basic principles of writing a term paper. The information, with regard to details of documentation styles, is not exhaustive. You will learn more details in chapter nineteen of this text, and as you get on with your work in bigger and higher research work.

References

- Barzum, Jacques and Graff, Henry F. *The Modern Researcher* 4th edn. N.Y: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1985.
- Bell, Judith. *Doing your Research Project: A Guide for first time researchers in Education*. Miltonkeynes. Open University press, 1987.
- Sanders Chauncey, *An Introduction to Research in English Literary History* N.Y: Macmillan, 1982.

DOCUMENTATION IN RESEARCH WRITING

N. E. Achebe Ph. D

Introduction

Academic research requires that students' work be accompanied by adequate bibliographic sources. These sources enable readers to locate information about the source of the material. Location of source material is of great value to the researcher who may require cited works for his own research. What then is research? Research can be defined as the disciplined process of investigation and fact finding which will lead the writer to discover the truth about a phenomenon. Research can also be described as patient, careful and prolonged studies. Such patience and careful study are embodied in specialized forms of writing like the term papers, dissertation and thesis.

Research trains students in proper organization of thought, facts, information sifting and precision writing. It provides the evidence students need to defend and express their opinion in thesis. It is therefore required in research that a student must state how and where he found his evidence. In other words, the research paper whether it is a statement of preconceived opinion or prejudice, a collection of footnotes and quotations tied together, must state how and where the facts were discovered so that readers can easily trace them. One important feature of research is that it requires a lot of cross-referencing and this allows a reader to locate the source of material for his own research. Students learn a lot through research. For example, they can learn to select, evaluate and analyze their work. Most importantly, students learn to think and create a new angle of vision for their project. It is only in this sense that the research paper can be original and the validity of student's intellectual maturity proven. However, because no piece of writing is totally original, especially at the undergraduate level, honesty and courtesy in scholarship demand that a student acknowledges the

words and ideas borrowed from the writers through proper documentation.

The varying definitions of documentation from individuals and institutions make it difficult for students to actually explain with sufficient details the proper meaning of the term and how to use it in research writing. In this chapter, attempts will be made to define the term documentation, discuss some of the issues that are common to the numerous documentation style manuals and also reflect current international standards. However, our emphasis will be on MLA style manual.

What Precisely is Documentation?

Documentation is a method scholars use to acknowledge sources of information, direct quotations, opinions, ideas and facts consulted while writing their research report. Documentation indicates the sources of material quoted or referred to in a thesis, dissertation, and project report as well as students' term paper to avoid plagiarism or infringement of copyright. In documenting sources of data and/or information in research, the writer chooses from the numerous style manuals provided by individuals, institutions and associations. Because there are many types of these manuals, writers and students may have difficulty in not only making a choice but also in citing properly elements of the bibliographic details.

Purpose of Documentation

Documentation is an important skill in research writing because the books and other pieces of material writers use must be described in sufficient detail for interested readers to easily identify. Generally, documentation helps writers to:

1. Explore the root of sources quoted in the work for details.
2. Provide sources for further reading.
3. Provide sources for verification.
4. Avoid charges of plagiarism.
5. Indicate to the reader where and how a piece of material was found.
6. Indicate to the reader various authorities writing in the area.

Sources of Documentation

When students quote, paraphrase, summarize, or refer to the work of another writer, they are required to cite its source, using footnotes, references and bibliography.

Material that can be documented using these methods are books, periodicals or serials, letters, government publications, company and Associations' report, conference, seminars, research papers, lectures, interviews, reprints or mimeographs, undergraduate projects, doctoral dissertation and masters theses, unpublished raw data from studies and proceedings from meeting and symposia. Other materials for documentation are the Audio-visual (A/V) materials like the film strips, television broadcast and programme series, music recordings as well as electronic media such as on-line sources, e-mail and e-journal.

Forms of Citation Style

There are basically two forms: - The classic and the triple entry styles. These two are the early forms and the root of other documentation styles that researchers use today. For easy understanding, the documentation or citation style will be categorized according to their root beginning with the classic style.

The Classic Style

This is the earliest style adopted by writers to indicate sources of quotations, ideas or information in a work. The classic style relies heavily on abbreviated Latin words such as *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, *et al.*, in order to avoid repetition of bibliographic details previously indicated in the footnotes and in-text citation. The classic style gave rise to other versions some of which also use Latin words. Notable ones are the Kate Turabian (KT), the Chicago and the Harvard styles, the Modern Language Association (MLA) style and the Citation Sequence (C-S), version of the Council of Biology Editors (CBE), Council of Science Educators (CSE) and the American Medical Association (AMA) styles. Scholars in humanities and physical sciences patronize different style manuals. The reason for stating them in this

chapter is to give GSP students from diverse disciplines an opportunity to select a style manual that is recommended by their faculty and discipline as most of the examples in this chapter are based on MLA style manual. Let us follow some examples.

1. Reference to a Complete Book.

(a) With one individual as the author, editor or compiler

- (i) Greenhalgh, T. *How to Read a Paper: The Basics of Evidence Based Medicine*. London: B. M. J. Publishing Group, 2001.
- (ii) -----*Ibid.* (Means that this entry is repeated and refers to (i) above)
- (iii) Collins, P. *The Stamp Encyclopaedia*. New York: Sharp Press Ltd., 2002.

(b) With two (or three) individuals as joint authors, editors or compilers.

- (i) Ogbazi, N.J., Azikiwe, U and Ifelumni, I. *Studies in Gender Discrimination in the 21st Century*. Owerri: Cape Publishers International Ltd., 2001.
- (ii) Ogbazi, N.J. et al. *Studies in Gender Discrimination in the 21st Century* Owerri: Cape Publishers International Ltd., 2001.
- (iii) Vitale, P.H and Brown, P. F. *The Basic Tools of Research*. New York: Barron's Educational Series, 2001.

Note that in the first citation, (Ogbazi and others.) you do not cite, 'and others' or 'et al'. It is when the same is quoted twice that the terms can be used. For example, Ogbazi, N.J. et al, or Vitale, P.H et al. In this case, the second citation should have different page number(s) to distinguish it from the page(s) cited earlier in the work (i.e, if you are making use footnotes or endnotes)

(c) With an institution instead of an individual as author.

- (i) Nnamdi Azikiwe Library (NAL). *Nigeriana catalogue of University of Nigeria, Nsukka*, Enugu: University Press, 2003.

- 2 **References to Part of a Book**
- a. **When the part is written by the same author as a part of a whole book for example;**
- (i) Dike, V. W. 'The use of library.' *Library Resources in Education*. Enugu: ABIC Publishers, 1993. Note that page numbers are added if you are making the citation under footnotes or endnotes. Note also that the single quotation marks are used to differentiate the part of the book from the book title. You can also use the double quotation marks. Consistency should be your watch word here.
- b. **When the part is written by someone other than the author of the book.** For example,
- (i) Iffih, B.N. 'Epilogue: The response of University of Nigeria, Nsukka.' Ed. Kalu, O.U. *The courage of the Vandals: Nature and Control of Cults in Nigerian University System*. Nsukka: Joen Press, 2001.
3. **Reference to an Article in an Encyclopaedia**
- a. **When the author of the article can be determined: For example,**
- (i) Myers, Tom. 'Library.' *New Standard Encyclopaedia*, Vol.10. Chicago: Ferguson Publishing Company, 2000.
- b. **When the author of the article cannot be determined, the title becomes the first element of description. For example,**
- (i) "Research and development." *New Standard Encyclopaedia*, Vol.14, 2000 .
4. **Reference to an Article in a Journal or Newspaper**
- (a.) **When the author of the article is known.**
- (i) Okafor, T.O 'The Nigerian Copyright Law and Plagiarism in Tertiary Institutions.' *Lagos Librarian*. 42.12 (2000): 22-26.
- (b.) **When the author is unknown, the title becomes the first item of description as in item 3b(i) above.**

- (c) **When the author is known in newspaper article. For example,**
- (i). Osungo, D.M. "Reading for life". *Guardian*. Sunday Oct. 4, 2003.

There are numerous citation problems students may wish to study. For reading on classic documentation styles, students may wish to consult Turabian K.L. *A Manual for Writers of Term paper, Theses and Dissertations*. 6th ed. Chicago: University Press, 1998 or the current MLA manual.

The Triple Entry

This uses the surname of the author, the year of publication and pagination to cite a text. This is why it is called the triple entry. Below is a typical example of an in-text citation depicting information from authors used by a writer in an on-going research.

- (i) Achebe (2000:15) notes
 (ii) Okafor (2001:71) warns
 (ii) Okonkwo (2003:12) observes

Examples of citation formats that use the triple entry are The American Psychological Association (APA), the Harvard Style, and the Council of Biology Editors (CBE) style. Note that the CBE has two versions, one is the citation – sequence (C-S) which is like the MLA style and the name- year version which is like the APA style. Note that the CBE version that is typical of the triple entry style can be used where necessary, consistency is the rule. There should not be a mix-up in the use of two or more styles in a research work. Most style manuals require students to assemble a list of the works they cited in their term paper. This can be done in three ways namely: References, bibliography(or works cited for MLA) and footnotes/endnotes.

The Reference

A reference is an acknowledgement a writer makes when quoting directly or paraphrasing another writer's work. References are limited to works cited in the body of the research. They are written in alphabetical order by author's surname.

The Bibliography

A bibliography is a work cited outside the content of a document but with the intention for further studies. It contains a list of all the publications a student has consulted both in writing his work and for further research. Entries in a bibliography are made in alphabetical order. They are not numbered, neither are superscripts used as in the footnotes. Bibliography has many definitions. It can also be referred to as the art and practice of describing books, with particular reference to their authorship, publication, physical form and literary content. In the context of scholarly publication, a bibliography is a list of references given at the end of the work, depicting the sources cited and those not cited in the text of an article, book or term paper being suggestions from the author for further reading. An MLA entry begins with the surname of the author rather than the first name. The surname is immediately followed by the title of the book, place of publication, publisher, date of publication. A bibliography is usually located at the end of a book or an article. Just as in references, any citation style can be used and the entire documentation elements stated below should be included:

1. Statement of author
 2. Title of work
 3. Place of publication
 4. Publisher
 5. Date of publication
- } Imprint or facts of publication
- } Collation
- } Portraits etc

The citation elements are useful in establishing standards in documentation when fully incorporated using MLA style. Typical examples include a-h below:

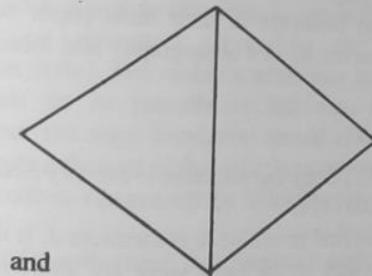
- (a) Belkin, N.J. et al. 'Cases, Scripts and Information Seeking Strategies: On the Design of Interactive Information Retrieval Systems.' *Expert Systems with Applications*. 9 (1995): 379 - 395.
- (b) Dervin, B. 'An Overview of Sense-making Research: Concepts, Methods and Results to Date'. *International*

Communications Association Annual Meeting. Dallas: Texas, 1983.

- (c) Eysenck, H. J., Arnold, W. and Meili, R.. *Encyclopaedia of Psychology*. London: Search Press, 1972.
- (d) Saracevic, T. 'Relevance Reconsidered'. Eds. P. Ingwersen, and N.O Pors. *Information Science: Integration in Perspective*. (Proceedings [of] COLIS 2,) Copenhagen: Royal School of Librarianship, 1996.
- (e) Shannon, C.E and Weaver, W.W. *The mathematical Theory of Communication*. Urbana, Ill. London: University of Illinois Press, 1949.
- (f) The Royal Society Scientific Information Conference. 21 June- 2 July 1948. *Report and Papers Submitted*. London: The Royal Society, 1948.
- (g) Wilson, T.D. and Walsh, C. *Information Behaviour: an Interdisciplinary Perspective*. Sheffield: University of Sheffield Department of Information Studies, 1996.
- (h) Wilson, T.D. 'Information Needs and Uses: Fifty Years of Progress?' Ed. B.C Vickery. *Fifty Years of Information Progress: A Journal of Documentation Review*. London: Aslib, 1994.

Types of Documentation

References



Bibliography

and

Endnotes

Footnotes and Endnotes

Footnotes are so called because they are often placed at the bottom of the page in which references to them are made. They indicate important quotations requiring documentation. Therefore, footnotes

are essential component of documentation. They can also be placed at the end of each chapter or end of a book. When this happens, they are called end notes. Footnotes and endnotes can be used to cite specific portions of a work rather than the entire publication to support statements made by the writer. When such citations are made within the text, they may disrupt the flow of thought, thereby distracting the reader from the substance of the argument. It is therefore conventional to give the information about the work in the footnotes.

The foot and end notes have superscripts with Arabic numbers to indicate the source of quotations. An Arabic number or superscript is assigned to the last word of the quoted material. This number is subsequently used as a reference point for a documentation entry. The foot and end notes citation have the same elements of description as in references and bibliography. The only major difference is that while the surname of the author is written first in references and bibliography, the surname comes last in foot and end notes. The same citation in the footnote may or may not appear in the references or bibliography because footnote can be used alone to cite documents. Note that footnotes are numbered consecutively throughout the paper. To avoid numerous footnotes at the bottom of a page or at end of the paper, students are not encouraged to use footnotes in their term paper writing. The distinction between entries in a bibliography and footnote is shown below.

Footnote:

¹Benson E. Edeka. *Introduction to Library Science*. (Enugu: SNAAP Press, 2000) 191.
Remember that the first time a work is mentioned, it is cited in full. Subsequent references to the same work are shortened and Latin words used to complete entries.

In A Bibliography:

Edeka, B. E. *Introduction to Library Science*. Enugu: SNAAP Press, 2000.

Basic Guide for Referring to the Work of Others inside the Text.
Making references to the works of others, during the course of writing, is done in two ways namely: Paraphrasing or indirect quotation and direct quotation. In paraphrasing, the writer represents the ideas from a source in his own words and acknowledges the source, while in direct quotation, a writer reproduces exact words, sentences or ideas from another writer's text to support or refute some issues in his/her work and also acknowledges the source. When a writer refers to the work of others, it is conventional that he provides two pieces of information namely: author's name or the title of the work and the page number of the work. This is called in-text or parenthetical citation. This allows readers (students or researchers) to identify immediately the sources the writer has used, so as to study them for possible use.

1. Parenthetical Citations

There are three major methods of parenthetical citations; three examples will be given with MLA style manual. The MLA format follows the author- page method. This means that the author's surname and page number(s) from which the quotation is taken are in the text, and a complete reference is also in the works cited (or bibliography or references, depending on your choice of documentation style). The author's name may appear either in the sentence itself or in parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase, but the page number(s) should always appear in the parentheses not in the text of the writer's sentences. For example, in MLA style, students can present the following parenthetical citations in three ways:

- a. Wordsworth stated that Romantic poetry was marked by "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (263).
- b. Romantic poetry is characterized by the "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (Wordsworth 263).
- c. Wordsworth extensively explored the role of emotion in the creative process (263)-paraphrase.

2. Indirect Quotations.

An indirect quotation is a quotation a student found in another source that was quoted from an original document. For such indirect quotation, students can use "qtd in" to indicate the source. In MLA style such indirect quotation can be represented as:

Okonkwo argues that high schools are to act as "Social Service Centres, and they don't do that well" (qtd. in Okafor).

3. Direct Quotations.

When writers quote directly the work of others, they usually format quotations differently depending on the length, that is, whether the quotation is long or short.

Below are some guidelines for incorporating quotations in papers using the MLA style:

a. To indicate short quotations (e.g. four lines of prose or verse), in a text, enclose the quotation within double or single quotation marks or if more than four lines, omit quotation marks, and indent the quotation. Provide the author and specific page citation in the text and a complete reference in works cited, bibliography or references. For example, According to some, dreams express "profound aspects of personality" (Foulkes 184). To this, others disagree.

b. If the writer omits a word or words from a quotation, indication of the omitted word(s) is made by ellipsis marks surrounded by brackets. For example:

In an essay on Urban legends, Brunvard notes that "some individuals make every recent rumour or tale (...) and in a short time a lively exchange of details of gossip".

c. If there are ellipsis marks in the quoted author's work, there is no need to put brackets around them. Brackets are only placed around ellipsis marks to distinguish them from those in the quoted author's work.

d. If the writer wants to cite a specific Bible quotation, the rule is to place the Bible version in parenthesis, as each version varies in its translation. For example:

Ezekiel saw "what seemed to be four living creatures" each with faces of a man, a lion, an ox, and an eagle [New Jerusalem Bible, Ezek. 1:5-10].

e. Long quotations: In this type, quotation marks are omitted. The basic guide is to start the quotation on a new line, indent one inch from the left margins and maintain single line spacing throughout the quotation. For example:

The educated elites have wrong conception of Dickens. According to them:

When school education as distinguished from natural education was first practiced, it was assumed that a child destined to be a scholar should be allowed to do nothing but study and be kept hard at it all the time, the penalty for idleness or inattention being merciless flogging. It was assumed also that every child, no matter what its tastes, aptitudes, or capacity may be, is a potential theologian, philosopher and Latin poet and orator of the rank. Invariably, the child was called on to be Homer, Plato, Pythagoras, Aristotle, Cicero, Virgil, Newton, Liebniz and Einstein rolled into one (Hogan and Bogart 4).

Documentation of Electronic Sources:

Electronic sources are important in research. For this reason, examples covering a wide range of these sources are treated.

a. A web site

For a web site entry include Author(s), title of paper, Date of posting/revision, Name of institution/organization, affiliated with the site, Name of page, Date of access, electronic address.

Note that if an author is given for a web page or electronic source, entries will start with the alphabetized author(s) but if not, the title of the work will be used as the main entry, while a shortened version of the title will be used for parenthetical citation. It is necessary to list the date of access because web postings are often updated and

information available at one date may no longer be available later. Note the use of angled brackets around the electronic address; they are often required for clarity. The generic citation form using the MLA would look like examples a - e:

- (a) Cameron, R.D 'A Universal citation database as a catalyst for reform in scholarly communication.' *Firstmonday*, Vol. 2. No.4 (1997). Web. 20 November 1998 <http://www.firstmonday.dk/issues/issue_2_4/cameron/index.html>.
- (b) Harter, S.P 'The Impact of Electronic Journals on Scholarly Communication: A Citation Analysis.' *The public - Access Computer System Reviews Vol.7 No. 5*, (1996):5-34. Web. 20 November 1998 <<http://info.lib.uh.edu/pr/07/n5/harter>>.
- (c) Jacobs, J. 'Providing Data Services for Machine - Readable Information in an Academic Library: Some Levels of Service.' *Public Access Computer Systems Review Vol. 2. No. 1* (1991):144-160. Web.1 Sept. 1998 <<http://info.lib.uh.edu/percsrev.htm>>.
- (d) Maricic, S. 'The Mainstream - Peripheral Science Communication.' *Technoscience*. Vol.10.No.1(1997). Web. 20 November 1998 <<http://www.cis.vt.edu/technoscience/97win/comm./htm>>.
- (e) Weintraub, J. 'The Development and Use of a Genre Statement for Electronic Journals.' *Sciences. Issues in Science and Technology Librarianship*. Vol.17 (1998). Web. 1 Sept.1998 < <http://www.library.ucsb.edu/istl/>> . Note that a variant MLA collation details may be presented as follows:
- (a) Rudolph, J. and Brackstone, D. 'Too Many Scholars Ignore the Basic Rules of Documentation.' *Chronicle of Higher Education*. 11.4 (1990) 56. This shows that

'11' is the volume number and the '4' is the series number.

- (b) Tannehill, R.S. 'Bibliographic and Information Processing Standards.' *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology* 18.2 (1983) 61-94. Here '18' is the volume number and '2' is the series number.
- (a) **Web site with author:**
Felluga, Dino, *Undergraduate Guide to Literary Theory*. Purdue University. 17 Dec.1999. Web.15 Nov. 2000 <<http://omni.cc.purdue.edu/7%7Efelluga/theory2.htm>>.
- (b) **Web site without author**
Purdue On Line Writing Lab. Purdue University. Web 10 Feb. 2003 < [http:// owl. English. Purdue edu/handouts/research/r-mla.html](http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r-mla.html)>.
- (c) **Article on a web site**
- i. Article with author:
Poland, Dave. 'The Hot Button.' Roughcut: Turner Network Television, Web. 28 Oct. 1998 <[http:// www. Roughcut. Com.](http://www.Roughcut.Com)>.
- ii. Article without author :
'Modern Language Association Format.'
Purdue Online writing Lab. Web. 6 February 2003 < [Purdue Universityhttp:// owl. english. Purdue.edu/handouts/research/r-mla.html](http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r-mla.html)>.
- iii. Article in On-line Journal or Magazine:
Wheelis, Mark. 'Investigating Disease Outbreaks: Under a Protocol to the Biological and Toxin Weapons Convention.' *Emerging Infectious Diseases*. 6.6 (2002). Web. 35 Dec.2000 <[http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/vol.6no6/ wheelis.htm](http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/vol.6no6/wheelis.htm)>. 33 pars>.
- iv. E-mail and other personal communications.
Author. 'Title of the message.' Email to person's name.
Date of message.

This format is used for personal interview, personal letters or even conversation between two people. Because this type of communication does not have titles, the description should be noted as personal interview rather than the conventional method of writing the exact name of recipients. For example, E-mail to Okeke. The generic citation form using the MLA is for example.

(a) Email to you as Mr. Okeke (reader and author).
Okeke, Andrew. 'Re: Modernist Literature.'
E-mail to the author. 15 Nov. 2000.

(b) E-mail communication between two parties, not including the author. Achebe, Nancy "Re On-line Tutoring"
The essential parts of an e-mail message includes name (optional), address, the symbol @ (at), the servers electronic address and the type of institution or organization of the server. For example an hypothetical email address is Nancy, Achebe. Rainbownet@yahoo.com.

(nancyachebe)	Rainbownet	@yahoo.com
name	address at server's	types of organization

Email address abbreviations:

Types of organization

	Abbreviation
Commercial	com
network	net
education	edu
organization	org
government	gov
military	mil

v. Article in a reference database on CD ROM
'World war 11.' *Encarta*. CD-ROM.. Seattle: Microsoft, 1999.

vi. Article from a periodically published data base on CD ROM.
Read, William. 'Whites and the Entertainment Industry.'
Tennessee Tribune: Ethnic Newswatch. CD-ROM. Data Technologies. (25 Dec. 1996): 28.

For more about citing electronic sources students should read MLA Documentation:

Basic Rules for Citation

In order to be useful, documentation entries are required to be accurate so as to adhere to some set of rules or standards. These rules are embodied in the International Standard Bibliographic Description (ISBD) Programme and those enumerated in cataloguing codes of the Anglo-American cataloguing Rules. The rules in these standard codes are concerned with how to cite details of works (such as term papers, monographs, reports official publications, conference proceedings and lectures) to ensure that relevant and accurate information is available to readers.

To document sources of works cited, students may be guided by the following rules:

1. Cut 3" x 5 index card and write on one side of the card only.
2. Study and identify the various entry elements e.g. author, title, facts or publication and collation. (physical description of books by ascertaining the number of pages).
3. Determine the relevance of each source to your research before listing.
4. Invert author's names, place surname last if you are using the MLA footnotes but in references and bibliography the author's surname should come first. If work has more than one author, you may list all the author's name in the sequence they appeared in the work. Follow up with their initials after a comma preceding the surname of other authors. Another method is to write et al, but for each case be consistent for example: Documentation in research writing written by Achebe, N. E., Okeke, F.O. and Ozioko, R. E. can be written in the reference list, followed by the title of the work and other documentation details. Or the first author's surname can be written followed by 'et al' and other details.
5. If more than one work of a particular author is to be cited, order them alphabetically by title using three hyphens in place of the author's name for every entry after the first.

6. If no author is given for a particular work, alphabetize by the title of the work and use a shortened version of the title for parenthetical citations.
7. Capitalize each letter in the titles of articles, books, journals etc. Alternative form is to capitalize only the first letter of the title and use small or lower case letters in other words of the title-this applies in APA style But whichever one you use, be consistent.
8. Underline or italicize titles of books, journals, magazines, newspapers and films. Underlining is necessary when you use the manual typewriter that has no italics feature.
9. Arrange documentation index cards in alphabetical order if it is for references and bibliography, if footnote, arrange by entries serially in descending order and make entries according to numbers.
10. Write all punctuation marks where necessary according to 1504 – 1986 documentation rules and ISBD (G) framework. Punctuation helps to distinguish one component of the elements from another. It also helps to partition the elements of cited work for easy understanding by readers.
11. For a lecture or a speech, give the speaker's name, the title of lecture or speech in quotation marks, the meeting and sponsoring body, the location; (e.g place/city) and date of lecture. If no title, use appropriate labels e.g. lecture or seminar. For referencing electronic sources provide the following information:
 - a. Author's name (if not available, use the article title as the first part of the citation)
 - b. Article title
 - c. Publication name
 - d. Publication date
 - e. Page Number
 - f. Data base name
 - g. Service name
 - h. Name of the library where service was accessed.
 - i. Name of the town where service was accessed.

- j. Date of access.

See examples on article on a website (Ci – iii) above.

Note that sometimes the above details may not be complete or where complete they may not follow strictly the above sequence of presentation. But student should be consistent in applying the rule. Overall, there are four essential rules of referencing:

- (i) Every item of the source lifted must appear in two places, in-text and in reference, bibliography or works cited at end of a work..
- (ii) Lifting of other author's ideas, quotations, information or expressions in printed and diagrams, tables, summaries or paraphrased works must regularly be included in the documentation list, any omission shows that work is incomplete.
- (iii) Consistency in the use of style manuals in a work
- (iv) Use of punctuation marks to delineate entry elements in the cited work.

Glossary of Terms

Ellipsis - The omission of a word or passage indicated by three periods with a space before, after and between each period. The words or phrases omitted may refer to the author or an idea on the page that may not be required for full meaning of the texts.

Plagiarism - A literary word for using another author's style, ideas or words without acknowledgement.

Thesis - A simple statement of opinion which the entire work is designed to support.

Superscripts - A number superimposed on the last word of quoted materials for easy identification. A superscript number serves as a reference point either in the form of foot note or end note.

Revision Questions

1. What is documentation? State four reasons why a student should document sources of his/her work.
2. State five basic rules which may be useful to students in citing documents for research.

- List five types of information required for documenting electronic sources.
- What factors govern a student's choice of quotations for a term paper.
- Which documentation style manual relies heavily on Latin words? Give two examples of this in terms of their use.
- Explain the following abbreviations; et. al, op. cit., Ibid., chap. Loc cit.
- Explain the following terms in research writing: Title, Imprint, Collation, Notes.

Notable abbreviations in Classic Style

Abbrev.	Full	Meaning	Context
1. anon.	anonymous	not known	Work whose author is unknown
2. bk.	Book		Textual for reading and writing materials
3. Chap. Ch.	Chapter(s)	Paging work about	Used for work identification
4. c., ca	Circa		Used to approximate dates e.g. (c. 1834).
5. ed., eds.	editor(s) edition(s) or edited by	Authority	Used for researcher responsible for a work.
6. e.g.	exempli gratia	For example	For explanation
7. et al	et alii	and others	Used instead of individual identification of other contributors to a work or book.
8. et. Seq.	et sequens	And the following	For adding information.
9. Fig(s) Figure(s)		For indicating tables or plates	For additional information
10. Ibid.	Ibidem	Same text and Page cited before or above.	Indicates repetition of the same work.
11. i.e id est	that is	For expatiation of ideas, or explanation.	
12. Loc cit.	Loco citato	in the same paper cited previous above	refers to work fully identified in footnote.
13. Ms (Mss) Manuscript(s)		Hand written or Typed document.	Always capitalized without a period.

14. n.d.	No date	-	Use to indicate when work has no date of publication.
15. no(s)	No Number(s)	No number(s)	No page number(s)
16. n.p.	No place of publication or no publisher given	-	To indicate no place of publication or publisher
17. op. cit.	Opere citato	Same as previously	Indicates work previously cited but not immediately above. Citation is preceded by author's surname and followed by page number because op. cit. stands for title only. To indicate authors who may not like to reveal their identity
18. Pseud	Pseudonym	pen name e.g (Lewis Carrol & Mark Twain	To indicate nature of book.
19. Rev.	Review by Revised or revision	-	To indicate aspect of work in text.
20. Sec., Secs	Section(s)	-	Indicates when date is unknown.
21. S.A	Sine anno	No date given	Indicates that a quotation or section of it is correct even though there is a logical Spelling or grammatical error.
22. Sic	Sic (full)	so or thus	Indicates when the place of publication is not known.
23. S.L	Sine Loco	No place	Indicates when the publishers is unknown.
24. S.N.	Sine Nomine	No publisher	To indicate translator or translated version of work.
25. tr.,	trans.	translator, translation-	To indicate aspect of literary work.
26. v.,	Verse	Type of work	Use with or without a period.
27. Viz	Videlicet	Namely	This is capitalized only before Roman Numeral e.g. Vol. V11; for writing Arabic letters, it is written vols. in lower case.
28. Vol. Vols.	Volumes	-	

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Chapter Twenty

REVISION AND EXAMINATION TECHNIQUES

E. O. Okwor & B. O. Nwokolo

Introduction

Revision normally precedes formal examinations that are periodically organized by schools and other public institutions for different purposes. Revision is a form of preparation that predicts, and looks forward to the big action, that is, examination. The provision made for revision before examination shows that examinations are very important in the process of teaching and learning.

Let us consider the phenomenon of examination. You will certainly agree with us that examination, in a general sense, is a normal part of the process of life. Informally, different forms of examination, at one time or the other, take place in homes, and offices, at markets, workshops, etc. Sometimes the examination takes place without the knowledge of those examined. With such quasi examinations, we determine the knowledge, skill, wisdom, character, and attitude of people around us. A story in Igbo folklore buttresses this point. In this story, the father-goat assembled his sons and tested their level of wisdom and maturity. The question put to each was, "How many times would you have bitter experiences before learning your lesson?" The sons responded one by one and in various ways. Eventually, the correct answer was proffered by the youngest son, who said that he would avoid having any bitter experience by vicariously learning from the bitter experiences of others. The father-goat shook his last son's hand and said, "You are a wise son". This means that the wise son succeeded while his brothers failed.

School examinations are formal and normal fact-finding exercises like the preceding fable. They are periodic means of knowledge and skill evaluation, which should not frighten any serious-minded student. In the first place, examinations evaluate the

amount of knowledge or skill that students have learned within a period of time. Secondly, examinations assess the teacher's knowledge, pedagogical skills and over-all competence. So, both the students and their teacher(s) are under the scrutiny of the school authorities in every examination.

As a student, your understanding of the essence and purpose of examinations will engender in you the right attitude towards examination; the right attitude is seeing school examinations as normal academic activities for the purpose of evaluating the knowledge or skill learned by you. This understanding will change the uninformed perception of examination as an unnecessary trouble or an exercise in which success must be achieved by all means. If your attitude is positive you will do everything necessary and worthy, including thorough and continual revision, before the approach of any examination.

The lack of understanding of the essence of examination, on the other hand, results in negative attitudes towards examinations. Are you afraid of examinations? If you are, it means that your attitude towards them is wrong, and that you may not do all the necessary things expected of you before examinations. Wrong attitude towards examination will lead to any of the following unnecessary, avoidable, or unlawful conduct:

- (a) writing examinations without proper preparation,
- (b) writing examinations without confidence,
- (c) hiring the services of examination contractors,
- (d) sourcing for examination questions before examinations,
- (e) smuggling notes, texts and jottings into the examination hall,
- (f) copying answers from fellow students during examinations,
- (g) exposing your answers for other students to copy during examinations,
- (h) searching for lecturers that will be willing to sell examination grades after examinations, etc.

For the sake of your honour, dignity and reputation, as an undergraduate, you should endeavour to develop positive attitudes towards examination, and avoid all negative practices that corrupt

the sanctity of examinations. To help you, this chapter offers useful tips for doing worthwhile revision and writing successful examinations. We will begin with revision.

Revision Techniques

The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* defines revision as "the work of studying facts again in order to learn them". In relation to examinations, revision should be seen as the review of study materials (lecture notes, and textbooks) in order to understand them or permanently commit them to memory in readiness for tests and examinations. It is a crucial aspect of the study process in a semester. The process commences with the registration of courses and ends with examinations. As a student, the quality and quantity of the revision you do determine your disposition during tests and examinations and your level of success in the tests and examinations. The implication is that you should know when and how to engage in the revision task. With this implication in mind, we shall look at revision as a two-level process requiring the active involvement of the student.

First – Level Revision

First-level revision should start as soon as lectures begin in a semester. This is the time a wise student begins both his quest for knowledge and his preparation for examinations. This means that you should revise each day's lectures at the end of the day and periodically revise your lecture notes and other study materials. We, in other words, want you to see revision as an "ongoing process which is an integral part of your reading, study and learning programme", and to understand that, "Developing practical study skills means planning a study programme into which you systematically integrate your revision time" (Obah and Otagburuagu, 1992: 64).

Having a study programme is a sign of your determination to work hard, knowing that genuine success emanates from hard work and determination. Your hard work should be characterized by the following practical steps:

- (a) regular and punctual attendance at lectures,

- (b) active listening during lectures,
- (c) taking notes of major points and vital details during lectures and revising them at the end of the day,
- (d) making up notes and revising them periodically,
- (e) reading recommended and other related textbooks and taking vital notes from them,
- (f) summarizing notes taken from lectures, and
- (g) reviewing past questions and attempting to answer them.

When you are reviewing your notes, lecture handouts and other study materials, your reading method should be *Study reading*. This method is used when the purpose of the reading is the mastery of main points and vital details. One of the techniques adopted for study reading is the SQ3R (see chapter 16). Daily and periodic revision, using the study reading method, will lead you to the final revision before examinations.

Final Revision

Academic calendar usually provides a period of revision for lecturers and students before examinations. This period is usually short but very important. Those students who actively and consistently carried out their studies, in accordance with the activities stipulated in the previous section will find this period very useful and less stressful. This is because much of the academic work they need to do had already been done. They had, several times, *studied* recommended materials, novels, plays, poems, and course textbooks, lecture handouts, including lecture notes and other study materials and had summarized the key points and vital details therein.

So, they will use this period to finalize their preparations. Any student who waits until this period to begin his revision has regrettably missed the point in university education and will surely harvest low grades after his examinations. This is because he who fails to plan has planned to fail, according to a popular saying. What exactly will happen at this stage? The discussions that follow contain the tips that will make your final revision effective.

(a) Making Final Revision Timetable

A final revision timetable is important. If you are desirous of success in your semester examinations, you should not hesitate to draw up your own final revision timetable towards the end of the semester or as soon as the notice for examination is published. Your departmental examination timetable or that of the university should be your guide. With the timetable, you will know when to begin the final revision of each course and how much attention to pay to each one. It will also ensure that all your courses are revised shortly before examinations commence.

(b) Revision Tools

During this final revision period, you should arm yourself with summaries of lecture notes and notes taken from texts and other study materials. The summaries are supposed to be the by-products or the outcomes of the study readings previously engaged in. The summaries are the key points or facts to which some vital details are added. The summaries may have been done in a jotter or in some parts of the lecture notebook, especially in a wide margin purposely created for such summaries. This does not mean that textbooks and long lecture materials should be discarded; rather, they should be kept within your reach so that the marked and underlined portions could be reviewed with ease, if need be.

It is important to reiterate the fact that the final revision period is usually short; so it is not a proper time to start reading textbooks, notebooks and other materials from chapter to chapter or from cover to cover in search of new facts. Your major revision tools are the summaries of your lecture notes and notes from textbooks to which constant and quick references could be made until the examination hour.

(c) How "Reading" Should Be Done During Final Revision:

When you sit down to revise for an imminent examination, with your revision materials before you, every effort of yours should be geared to the recall of the major points contained in all the topics treated in the course. Since you had meticulously studied your lecture notes and textbooks several times and had summarized the major points,

your mind can read your summaries, including the lecture notebook without your opening any of them. The human mind has the capacity to recall information and experiences. Your own mind has the same ability. Tax and train your brain, and its capacity to recall facts will surely enlarge.

The point we are making is that the final revision period is mainly the period of recall and review, the period of reading more with the mind than reading with the eyes, a period when revision tools are consulted in order to refresh the memory when a major point or vital detail is escaping from it.

A brief story at this juncture will help to emphasize the importance of practising recall and remembering before any examination. It is the story of an undergraduate who sought the assistance of a witch doctor in order to pass her semester examinations. After interviewing the student, the doctor gave her a piece of wood wrapped up in a piece of white cloth and instructed her thus: "Read your books seriously in the day time; at night, when everyone else is asleep, bring out what I have given you and tell it all the things you had read, point by point." The student went away, followed the instruction religiously, and eventually performed well in the semester examinations.

Obviously, the piece of wood had no magical power. The power that was put to action was the power within the student; it was the power of her mind. The only point of the story is that practising recall and remembering is a key factor to success in any examination. J.V. Landy, in his *How to Study*, recommends that revision at this stage should be done with books closed most of the time. He advises that students should "ferret" the facts or ideas out from their memories, not from their notebooks. Attempts at recall should be followed by reviews; that is, the review of the points that were not easily recalled. Fix elusive facts (concepts, points, diagrams, formulas, charts, etc.) to the memory by writing them out or drawing them several times.

There are three other active ways to practise recall:

(a) **The Use of Past Question Papers:** Gather as many past question papers as possible and use them to test how much knowledge you have acquired in a course and how prepared you are

for the examination. The past papers will also make you aware of how questions are framed and structured in a course. While you try to solve the questions mentally, make effort to pen down answers to some of them, especially essay questions. For example, if you are faced with the English language examination in which you will write a composition or two, you will do yourself a great favour if you can sit down, time yourself, and answer some of the composition questions. This practice will certainly make you mentally alert, and also straighten and sharpen your thinking process.

(b) **Joining a Good Discussion Group:** A good discussion group will sharpen your understanding of a course and prepare you for the examination. Difficult questions, including past ones, are easily handled by such groups. The extent of your active participation in the discussions indicates the degree of your preparedness for the examination. If you cannot make effective contributions to discussions, or privately solve past questions, the examination you are preparing for is likely to be a nightmare for you.

(c) **The Use of Mnemonics**
Mnemonics is pronounced /nimɒnɪks/. Mnemonics can be defined as the study of strategies that enhance the remembering of information. Any of such strategies is a mnemonic. Mnemonic strategies assist the memory and, therefore, enhance the recall of information. It is, in this regard, a learning technique. According to Bakken and Simpson (2011), "Mnemonic strategies have been proven to help individuals remember information." A number of such strategies have been developed and are in use. They include acrostics, acronyms, rhymes, keywords, to mention but four.

Acrostics: They are also known as sentence mnemonics; they refer to sentences formulated in such a way that the first letter of each word represents something one wishes to remember. (see chapter 2 of this text). Again to remember the five oceans (from the largest to the smallest), one can formulate the following sentence: "Paying Attention Increases Study Ability". In this case, the initial letters stand for Pacific, Atlantic, Indian, Southern and Arctic.

Acronyms: In this context, they are words formed from the first letters of names or group of words that one wishes to remember. For example, the seven deadly sins of pride, avarice, lust, envy, gluttony, anger, and sloth can simply be represented as PALEGAS. In this fashion, Americans use HOMES to remember their five great lakes: Huron, Ontario, Michigan, Erie and Superior. To remember the order of adjectives in a string, one can use the acronym, SASCO, to refer to adjectives of Size, Age, Shape, Colour and Origin.

Rhymes: They are verses or short poems which can be used to assist the memory. The popular rhyme used to remember the number of days in each month is a good example. You can use what you want to remember to compose a rhyme.

Keywords: They are familiar words whose sounds are similar to the words one wants to learn and remember. For example, a student who has come across “mnemonic” for the first time might use “demonic” as his keyword. Associating the new word with the familiar word helps recalling efforts. In the same way, an Igbo student who finds it difficult to recall the name of the American president “Obama” may decide to use the Igbo name “Obioma as a keyword”.

Mnemonic strategies are not limited to the ones described above. Any device aimed at aiding retention and recall of information is mnemonic. You should exploit the benefits of mnemonics during studies and revisions for examinations. So, always devise mnemonics to help you recall elusive information.

The importance of revision cannot be stressed enough. You should, therefore, start in good time to prepare for your examinations, especially examinations in those courses you find difficult. Do not wait until the publication of examination timetable before you start your reading and revision. Thorough and diligent revision, following the guidelines above, will make you face the examination day with courage and confidence. Note that it is absolutely necessary that you

have a good sleep the night preceding the examination day, so that you will enter the examination hall with sound mind and body.

Examination Techniques

In the previous section of this chapter, we had thoroughly discussed revision techniques by drawing your attention to all that a student who has an examination to write must do in order to assume full preparedness for the examination. In that section we dealt with what a student should read, how he should read them and finally how he should preserve all knowledge gathered so that such knowledge will come in handy for use as he writes the examination. In this section, we shall endeavour to answer the following questions:

1. What is an examination?
2. Why do we write examinations?
3. How must we behave in the examination hall? and
4. How do we write examination?

We shall now take these questions one after the other.

What Is an Examination?

The term ‘examination’ suggests a test of what a learner knows, understands and recalls. In other words it suggests a progressive evaluation of the learner’s progress in knowledge and experience. According to *Webster’s Dictionary Thesaurus for students*, examination is “a test given to determine progress, fitness, or knowledge”. *The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, fifth edition*, (1995:398) defines it as a formal test of somebody’s knowledge and ability in a particular subject, especially by means of written questions or practical exercises. On its own part, *Longman’s Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995: 467) defines examination as “a spoken or written test of knowledge....” In the context of this chapter, we shall limit ourselves to examination in a formal situation such as educational institutions. In this regard, we shall see examination as a test which tries to establish how much a student knows of a subject matter, leading to the grading of the learner or student on a pass or fail gradient.

In other words, examination is the process and act of determining how much a learner is able to recall of answers to specific questions intended to test his knowledge of a subject-matter. It can come in the form of occasional tests (oral or written) as well as a final test at the end of a specified period of time.

When the gradual tests (continuous assessment) are combined with a terminal examination to produce a result, the outcome of such an exercise usually results in the award of promotion and/or a certificate. This is what obtains in most schools in Nigeria today, including the university. All progressions from one class to another up until graduation are the products of continuous assessments at the end of semester/term, year and terminal/degree examination. In some cases, there is the additional requirement of practicals and project reports, all of which are taken into consideration in the overall evaluation of a student's performance. However, this chapter concerns itself essentially with written examinations which test the overall knowledge at the end of a specified period of time such as term or semester, annual and final year.

Why Are Examinations Necessary?

There are essentially two major reasons why examinations are necessary:

- (1) evaluation, and
- (2) award of certificates.

It is important to evaluate a student's performance through tests which make it possible to assess the student's areas of strength and weakness, with a view to taking corrective steps in the student's overall interest.

In the modern Nigerian society, the student's ability to survive depends largely on the degree of formal knowledge at his disposal. In other words, education is the key to success. Examinations form the major instrument for testing knowledge and competence. The quality of certificate obtained after the due completion of a course of study is a concrete evidence of the anticipated competence of a

student. How well you perform in your final examinations determines the quality of the certificate that will be awarded to you. The quality of certificate that you secure goes a long way in ensuring how bright your future will be. Therefore, how you apply the right techniques in your examinations will determine how bright your chances will be in the wider Nigerian society. What you know and can present as answers to examination questions are just one aspect of your overall performance during an examination; how you comport yourself just before, during and immediately the examination ends also counts in ensuring your success in an examination.

In institutions of learning, at all levels, examinations are used for the constant assessment of learners and lead towards the final certification of the learners. Examinations are, therefore, generally regarded as an objective evaluation of the knowledge and competence of the learner in his/her chosen field of study. They are also used in other areas of life such as in employment and award of grants and scholarships. For instance, oral and written interviews are forms of examination intended to assist an examiner to make an objective and fair assessment of the qualification of the examinee for a specific privilege or opportunity.

Types of Examination

Examinations come in different forms which may be informal or formal, oral or written, periodic or final.

- i) *Written Examination*: This comes in the form of written assignments, done spontaneously in class as tests or a formal terminal examination at the end of a semester, year or end of a programme of study.
- ii) *Take Home Assignments*: These are tests in which the learner is allowed to seek out answers to specified questions over a period of time, usually not less than 24 hours, and to respond orally or in writing thereafter. Term papers, group or individual assignments and project assignments/research work fall within this category.

- iii) **Practicals:** These include laboratory work (science), field assignment (Agriculture, Science, Archaeology, etc), audition (music), rehearsal (literature – drama).
- iv) **Orals:** These are also known as ‘Viva Voce’ and require the students’ oral presentation of all he/she knows under the strict guidance of the teacher. For example; seminar presentation, thesis or project defence, and so on.
- v) **Interviews:** These are used specifically to test a combination of the candidate’s knowledge and competence in specific skills leading to employment and/or special awards.

Methods of Written Examination: There are essentially three methods of the written examination:

- 1) **The Essay** – presented in prose style and includes continuous writing and short notes.
- 2) **Multiple Choice/Objective** – Answers are specific and must be given succinctly or identified in the midst of other wrong answers known as distractors
- 3) **Open-Book Examination** – In this type, questions are given to the students in advance of the time/date of the examination. They are encouraged to search for all the texts that will assist them to answer the questions and bring them to the examination. However, the questions must be answered in the examination, with the student searching for the answers from the texts assembled and also writing down the answers within the specified examination time. This method is used occasionally in the university and other tertiary institutions of learning, not at secondary or primary school levels because of its complexity. The open-book examination is essentially research-based and, therefore, requires a more in-depth analysis of questions and answers, amply supported with the views of authorities in the specific discipline.

Let us then briefly explore pre-examination and examination conducts as techniques for examination success.

How to Behave Just before and during an Examination

The last few minutes before the commencement of an examination are as important for examination success as the actual writing of the examination. Below are some important hints:

Before the Examination:

1. Be confident that having attended lectures and satisfied the continuous assessment requirements of your course you are already half way to success in the course you are being examined on.
2. On the day of the examination, confirm all earlier information about the date, the time and venue of your examination.
3. Arrive at the venue of the examination at least thirty minutes to the time of commencement of the examination, or even earlier if so directed by the examining authority.
4. Take along with you to the venue all the necessary materials such as your identity card, your fee receipts (original and photocopy as may have been directed) and the correct writing materials.
5. Observe all checking – in processes and quietly take your seat in the examination hall.
6. Before you move to your seat, drop all materials you are not allowed to keep with you during the examination; keep them at a safe place in the examination hall; take only the materials allowed, such as your pen, pencil and ruler to your seat.
7. Keep your money, hand bag and cell phones safe and away from the venue of an examination.

During Examination:

1. As much as possible, keep a safe examination distance from your friends during any examination. It is unsafe to take a seat near any of your friends, as the temptation to interact with them, even over harmless issues, is reduced to the barest minimum, if you keep a safe distance.
2. Be relaxed and composed as you wait for further instructions and the examination question paper.

3. Have confidence in your ability, having taken your studies seriously throughout the session, done all your assignments and revision thoroughly. Examination and examiners are not terrorists.
4. Make up your mind not to seek any external assistance throughout the examination as that could amount to examination malpractice. All your enquiries must be made only to the invigilators. They are there to assist you to bring out the best in you; do not hesitate to approach them.
5. As soon as the invigilators issue the answer booklet to you, complete all the relevant information on the cover of the answer booklet and wait for any further directive.

Answering Examination Questions

To answer questions during an examination, observe the following carefully:

1. Carefully read all instructions in the examination question paper. And as you read the questions, carefully note all instructions that come with each question.
2. Note if there are compulsory questions and ensure that you attempt all such questions, as they are usually awarded higher scores than the rest.
3. Share the examination time equitably among all the questions.
4. Do not spend too much time on any one question to the detriment of others. You can only score the maximum mark for any question, and no more, no matter how well you answer the question.
5. Interpreting examination questions is very crucial to good performance in any examination. Before you answer the question, do a careful analysis of the question to find out whether it demands a short or a long answer. Do exactly what the question says and no more. For instance, such words and phrases like, 'list', 'briefly state', 'enumerate' and 'mention' do not require long answers, whereas such words like 'discuss', 'explain', 'compare and contrast' etc. may accept a more elaborate discussion in a continuous writing form.

6. The most effective answers are those given in simple language. Therefore, answer questions as simply as possible. Do not go out of your way to impress the examiner by using the so called 'big words'. The likelihood is that you might get the spelling wrong and get penalized for it. Therefore, simplicity is the word.
7. Make sure that you allot some time for the review of your written answers. This is important so that you can detect and correct avoidable errors and 'slips'. This review can be at the end of each question answered and/or towards the end of the whole examination.

Conduct during Examinations

The secret of examination success is self-confidence. You have studied hard, attended your lectures dutifully, written all assignments and done your revision carefully. In other words, you have not piled up work for the final revision period, but had been consistent in hard work all through the session. Like the computer, your brain has saved information for your latter use. What is now left is for you to "download" already saved information for use in the examination. With this at the back of your mind, carefully observe the following:

1. Keep to yourself throughout the examination period and do not be distracted by the presence of others.
2. Concentrate on the questions and weigh their relative degrees of difficulty.
3. Answer the questions in any sequence, starting with the question whose answer you are most familiar with.
4. Obey the examination invigilators so as to avert any distracting embarrassment.
5. Do not engage in any examination malpractice such as copying, seeking assistance from any of the other members of the class, peeping into others' answers (giraffing) and doing any other thing that could confer unmerited advantage on you over and above other examinees.
6. If you are ordered to stop writing, do not disobey this order; stop immediately.

7. Immediately you submit your examination answer script, quietly leave the venue of the examination; don't loiter around.
8. There is nothing wrong with carrying out a post-examination review of your performance, so long as you are able to absorb the shock of discovering that you gave some wrong answers. Thereafter, put the examination behind you and return to the right frame of mind to prepare for fresh challenges.

Summary and Conclusion

We have given you necessary tips on how to revise for an examination and how to conduct yourself before, during and immediately after an examination. We have also given you hints on how to tackle examination questions as well as how to keep out of trouble as you write any examination.

We would like to conclude by reiterating our earlier submissions:

- a) consistent hard work from the beginning of the session,
- b) regular attendance to lectures,
- c) careful preservation of information in convenient, meaningful summary form, and
- d) attempting and submitting all written assignments and the covering of the entire course outline before the commencement of the examination. When you have done all these, your self-confidence will receive a boost and you can confront any examination situation.

Sample Questions

1.
 - (a) What is revision?
 - (b) Is it necessary to provide a revision period before an examination? Why?
 - (d) What is the relationship between revision and the examination timetable?
2. Enumerate the study tasks a student must diligently accomplish for him to be considered fully ready for the final revision of a course.

3.
 - (a) Discuss in detail the different ways of practising recall during revision.
 - (b) What constitutes your most useful reading materials when you have few days to do the final revision for your semester examinations?
4. Noise is a serious distracting factor if you are taking notes. Discuss.
5. Discuss any three reasons why it is necessary to keep notes.
6. Mention any three important materials you must take to an examination venue. What do you think could happen if you fail to take any of the items with you to the venue?
7. Why is it advisable that you keep a safe distance from your friends when you are writing an examination?
8. Invigilators are very important in the conduct of examinations. Mention any four reasons why you agree with this assertion.
9. Discuss the view that examination is not a true test of knowledge.
10. Read the short passage below and answer the questions that follow:

If you want your studies to be done efficiently, we suggest that you develop a system for keeping notes. You will no doubt want to keep notes on different subjects separately. If you are using bound, notebooks for example, you may decide to have one per subject or use one for two subjects. If you are using files, it would be more convenient to have one file per subject and then arrange the sheets in such a way that all the notes on a particular topic stay together. Files are probably more suitable than bound notebooks because they allow you to rearrange your notes in any order you please, without having to tear out pages. The important point to bear in mind is that notes are an aid to study. They can be a valuable aid if properly arranged because the information they contain will be at your fingertips.

(Extract from *Developmental English* by L.A. Banjo and J.O. Bisong Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd, 1985, p. 27).

1. What is the maximum number of subjects recommended if you are using bound notebooks and what is the maximum if you are using a file for note-keeping?
2. What is the major advantage of the file over bound notebook in note-making?

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