

LECTURE NOTE 1 (Don't post any comment to this post)

STUDY SKILLS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this unit is to help you manage your own success as a student. This unit exposes you to some issues relevant to effective studying methods and strategies that would make your learning and comprehension easier. The unit will acquaint you with the factors that could affect you in concentrating while studying, expose you to the reasons why you should read effectively for comprehension and summary and what you could do to improve your memory and mental skills. At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define study skills
- identify basic study strategies
- use basic comprehension skills
- organize and use personal timetable
- point out factors affecting comprehension
- use study materials

1.1 DEFINITION OF STUDY SKILLS

Studying is an academic activity that usually takes place in a conducive learning environment. It is an activity that students engage in so that they can gain knowledge they will use in

solving a problem. Study skills are strategies and techniques that enable you to make the most efficient use of your time, resources, and academic potential. As a student, when you develop and improve your study skills you will be able to:

- i. make more efficient use of your study time - get more work done in less time!
- ii. make your learning easier, and help retain what you have learned for longer.
- iii. feel the work and effort involved is worthwhile; it 'pays dividends'.

But you must be aware that there is no one "best" way to learn. It is increasingly recognized that people learn in different ways. Some people learn best by doing; others prefer to learn by listening or reading. Some learn best in group situations, others learn best alone. The secret is to find the methods and techniques that work for you, and to maximize on these. Experiment with different styles of learning. The more versatile your learning methods is, the better you will do all round.

1.2 STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE STUDYING

There is no one sure method of achieving successful studying. However, there are certain things you can do that will make

your studying effective. Some of these strategies are explained below.

1.2.1 Study Time

There is really no “best time” to study it depends entirely on the individual. Work round what you like, and what is practical. Get up an hour earlier in the morning if it works best for you or you may opt for evening study (or have to study in the evening because it is the only time available). The best approach is to study when you are not sluggish and tired. Tiredness makes learning more difficult, and you retain less information for your time and energy. How many hours of study you can do depends on your background and current level knowledge and understanding. Never compare yourself to others in this regard. Find what is right for you and develop routines to begin your studying.

Time Management/Study Tips: Try to adhere to the following time management tips:

- a. Determine your best time of day to study and study then.
- b. Stop procrastinating. Observe procrastination patterns and break them by setting deadlines for yourself.
- c. Have an organized study area where you can concentrate.

- d. Avoid all sorts of interruptions when you study. Separate study time from play time.
- e. Concentrate on one topic at a time. Divide study periods into manageable units (e.g. unit = 1 hour).
- f. Write exactly which topic or subject you intend to cover in each timetable slot. E.g. 4-5pm Algebra.
- g. When studying take a 5 minute break per study hour. This gives the brain a chance to rest and to make sense of what you are learning or studying.
- h. After a lecture or group discussion, go over your notes as soon as possible, so that you will remember everything important that was said. You can lose up to 80% of your learning not review within 24 hours.
- i. Write down all assignments and their due dates in your time management book.
- j. Divide a big assignment into small pieces that can be done one at a time.
- k. Be flexible - when you become bored with certain parts of studying, change topics.
- l. Use social relaxation time as a reward, after you have finished studying.

1.2.2 Study Space

Having a special space for study helps you to concentrate and helps you to develop and maintain good study habits. So, find a workspace/room that you can always associate with study and coursework. Make sure your study place is airy but warm, and have good light to avoid eyestrain. Avoid using a family space where you have to set up and clear away when others need it, as this will affect your ability and motivation to study.

1.2.3 Study Timetable

Once you established the best time to read, the next thing is for you to develop your own personal timetable. For building your personal timetable, it is important for you to note the following:

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

A good timetable allows you to organise your time better, so you fit in more quality study time, more quality free time. Once you have developed your personal timetable, keep a copy on

the wall of your study space and also place another one in your study notebook or diary to keep you on track and focused.

1.3 BASIC COMPREHENSION SKILLS

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

1.3.1 How to Store Information in your Memory

When you get information, you have to store it in a memory. This is very crucial to studying since you need to retain what you read when studying or hear when receiving lectures. We have two types of memories. They are: short term memory, and long term memory. Short-Term Memory is the storing of information in your mind for a short time before you dismiss it or transfer it to long-term memory. Long-term memory may last for a few days or many years. However, both types can weaken due to age, stress or a variety of other reasons including clinical conditions.

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

The following are ways by which you can improve your ability to remember what you read during studying:

i. Chunking: This is the process of grouping things together to help you memorize them. For instance, chunking is what you do when you list a phone number with dashes which makes it easier to memorise e.g. 080-236- 37-591. This is easier to memorise than 08023637591.

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

iii. Acronyms: This is the act of creating a word from the first letters of a list of words or expressions you need to learn to make it easy for you to remember them. You can create your own acronyms or use a popular one for lists that are general.

1.3.2 Applying Basic Comprehension Skills

The following are required for comprehension:

i. Ability to Observe (Observation): Observation is a basic activity in academic work. You observe phenomena, processes and events in a systematic way. You need to

examine facts closely to be able to discern the relationship of things. You achieve understanding of relations between events and phenomena by your habit of reasoning, abstracting, mental discipline and complete and deep observation. You should know that incomplete and superficial observations as well as lack of concentration and attention hinder comprehension.

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

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

comprehension capacity. For you to understand conceptual knowledge of your subject area, you must be able to recognize the meaning of technical words and word combinations or collocations. You also need to be familiar with the set of technical terms in your field of study.

iv. Thinking: This refers to your ability to decipher clear relationships among ideas, important points, illustrations, examples and digressions. Your ability to identify relevant information from the less-important enhances your comprehension.

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

1.3.3 Factors Affecting Comprehension

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

i. Linguistic Factor: Your ability to understand the material you read/listen to while studying depends a lot on your ability to understand the language used effectively. The more you are competent in the language, the more efficiently you are able to comprehend what you are reading or listening to.

ii. Physiological Factor: These are factors that affect your memory and emotions when you study. They include your memory span and emotional state. Memory span relates to your ability to retain in your mind chunks of what you have read/heard. Also, your emotional state is very important to comprehension. You must be emotionally stable and your mind must be free from stress (such as anxiety, worry, fear and tension) when you engage in studying. Whereas a certain level of stress can improve performance, and generate a buzz round your studying, too much stress is unhealthy, and can lead to anxiety, insomnia, eating problems, illness, etc. Enthusiasm and interest are highly desirable emotions you need to cultivate during studies. You must be interested in your studies, while putting everything else out of your mind.

You must become one with your studies, avoid feelings of anxiety, and fear during study time and examinations.

iii. Psychological Factor: These factors include auditory and vision problems. A student will suffer comprehension problems when they have hearing, listening or eye problems.

1.4 Study Materials

For your studying to be effective, you need some basic study materials. Study materials are materials needed for acquisition of knowledge in different fields. They include basic textbooks, dictionary and other relevant materials. You can get basic and supplementary texts from the library.

i. Lecture Notes: These may be specially prepared for you by lecturers and course tutors to aid your learning. They are particularly useful as pointers for examination revision as well as for writing assignments and tests. If you make your own notes from lectures then ensure you attend the lectures, not borrow someone else's (second-hand thinking) notes.

ii. Books /Internet/ CD-ROMs/

audiotapes/newspapers: These are all sources of information. Use them to increase your knowledge and understanding.

iii. Sample assignments: Gather past assignments from other students as they are very useful. They give you an idea of the

level of quality to aim for in your own work.

iv. Past examination question papers: These are crucial. They highlight the kinds of topics and questions that are usually asked in exam questions. The past papers will be very similar to the types of questions that will be set in the exam proper. Use them in conjunction with lecturer/tutor hints and advice and curriculum in case the syllabus changed.

v. Marking schemes or marking criteria: It is useful to have an outline of the methods and criteria used when your work is being assessed. This way, you know what is expected of you. Usually your college lecturers and tutors give you a very clear indication of what they expect.

vi. Dictionaries: A dictionary is an indispensable tool which you need in your area of academic pursuit. You need a good English dictionary regardless of your course of study.

vii. Specialised Dictionaries/Textbooks/

Encyclopaedias: These are sources of reading materials for particular subjects. You need to consult them during your studying for good comprehension of topics and concepts.

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1.5 SUMMARISING AND OUTLINING DURING STUDYING (NOTE-TAKING)

Write briefly in your own words in 2-3 sentences what you have learned at the end of every study session. If the chapter or section is very difficult, summarise more often. This also is an excellent technique for helping memory and for later retrieval of information, especially when preparing for examinations. Recognise that summarising and note making help you to retain any information you have to learn. Note-taking and summarising techniques underpin all your learning. They are very effective “shortcuts” for faster, more

effective learning.

Summarizing: The basic principles of summarising are simple and very effective because they help you to:

- Make sense of the text, that is, you understand new information better and for much longer because you have had to think critically about the meaning.
- Condense or reduce information for storing in your memory
- Focus as you pick out key facts, information and ideas that are relevant to the information you seek.
- Get rid of any information that is not needed or that is irrelevant to your needs.
- Link new information with what you already know, and so helps you to fit it into your understanding and your existing “store” of knowledge.

Note-taking: You should use summarizing techniques to make notes. Notes should always be in your own words, short, clear, in logical order and understandable. They are “mental prompts”, a sort of external memory-jogging technique. The key to good note making is to use as few words as possible. You will not have to worry about whether you are “taking anything in”, the act of making notes or summarizing makes you think.

Notes are excellent preparation for examinations, where timing and quick recall of information is very important. They give you a ready-made outline plan for exam questions - easier than trying to memorize the information from a book. When making notes, bear in mind the following:

- Leave wide margins, lots of white space and room for added ideas. You should be able to read the information easily and accurately.
- Use a double page of your copybook, one side for diagrams, mind- maps or visual cues, the other for linear written notes.
- Use also flow-charts, charts, diagrams, spider-grams, anything that works for you.
- Put the date on each set of notes, and file them in order under headings such as Subject, Topic, Date, Other. You will be able to look them up quickly and revise the knowledge, whether in two weeks' time, or two days before an examination.

Simply copying chunks from textbooks wastes time and effort. The principle is to make textbook knowledge your own knowledge rather than try and learn off someone else version. Copying is more a dictation exercise rather than a learning experience, in effect a "bypass of the mind". It won't improve

your handwriting; it won't do much for your thinking or learning either. In fact, it has very little value, other than it is a great excuse to avoid getting down to the real business of learning. Make your own notes through summarizing and outlining, don't copy the material you are studying.

LECTURE NOTE 2 (Do not post any comment to this post)

LISTENING SKILLS

I am sure by now most of our lecturers have treated this topic with us in the classroom. I believe that this reading

material will go a long way to augment the notes you took during the lecture.

LISTENING SKILLS

2.0 Introduction

In this unit and in the next two units, you will be learning about language skills. There are four language skills through which every language user displays their language competence. The four language skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and speaking skills are often referred to as the skills of oracy while reading and writing skills are referred to as those of literacy. The skills of oracy are those which have to do with the production of speech from the mouth and the reception of the speech through the ears. The skills of literacy are those which only literate people have mastered. These are the skills which we need for writing or printing materials, and the training to read and write. In this unit, you will be exposed to the types, basic features, rudiments and technicalities of listening skills. At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i. identify the place of listening in effective communication
- ii. mention two types of listening
- iii. highlight at least four pitfalls that should be avoided to

become a good listener

iv. differentiate between passive and active listening

v. list four techniques of listening.

2.1 What is Listening?

In diverse spheres of life, listening is a needed skill for effective communication. According to Ruffner and Burgoon (1978), effective communication does not only consist in the ability to produce well-articulated speeches, but very much in one's ability to receive messages. Gamble and Gamble (1996:181) define listening as a deliberate process through which we seek to understand and retain aural (heard) stimuli for a future use. The International Listening Association defines it as the process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or non-verbal messages. Within the context of this definition, three key words are noted: (i) Process of receiving, (ii) Constructing meaning and (iii) Responding to spoken/non-verbal messages.

i. A process indicates a series of actions or operations designed to achieve an end, especially a continuous operation or treatment. By this definition, we can say that listening involves a series of actions, interactions and reactions,

moving from the point of hearing, through interpretation, through attention, through retention to recall.

ii. Constructing meaning: Listening also helps to make sense out of a message before communicating it to someone else.

iii. Responding to (spoken/non-verbal message): The skill of listening enables us to make appropriate feedback to messages we have made sense of. Those responses often made might be coloured by the listener's personal selectivity and rejections which often might distort the received messages.

2.1.1 Differences between Hearing and Listening

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

i. Hearing is a natural and passive process which requires little but no conscious effort but listening is an active process.

ii. Listening is a deliberate conscious process while hearing is automatic requiring no conscious effort

iii. Hearing is inborn or innate but listening is acquired.

iv. Hearing is not a mental process while listening is a mental and an active process

v. Hearing requires less energy to be expended. But listening

requires a range of energy involvement.

vi. Through listening, we understand, retain, analyse and evaluate content. This helps us in listening to react appropriately through feedback to content. But hearing is superficial

2.1.2 Three Basic Steps in Listening

You need to know that listening is a linear process. The three basic steps to achieve listening are:

a. Hearing: This means knowing that a sound is being made using your ear. It is the first step in listening. You cannot listen without the ability to hear.

b. Understanding: This step deals with your ability to comprehend what the speaker said. As a listener, you should understand what is said in your own way which must not be in conflict with the speaker's intention.

c. Judging: This is when you evaluate what has been said. After you are sure you have comprehended what the speaker said, you need to think about whether it makes sense to you or not.

2.2 TYPES OF LISTENING

Listening can be broadly categorised into two broad types. They are Passive and Active listening.

2.2.1 Passive Listening

According to Baker (1971), passive listening behaviour is that in which there is little or no personal involvement on the part of the listener. It is also described as the type of listening in which many people engage simply because they happen to be present when someone else is talking. For example, an apprentice technician who joins the audience in an inaugural lecture will listen passively. He just manages to listen to the sounds; he will not be able to identify meaningfully the spoken signals, not to talk of correctly interpreting what is being said. Passive listening, it must be emphasised, is a negative listening behaviour. It is, however, useful when a student engaged in serious private study has to contend with music playing nearby which he listens to passively.

2.2.2 Active Listening

When an individual is engaged in an active listening behaviour, the person is listening with purpose. In other words, the listener engages all his senses, as well as his attitude, thinking, feeling and intention towards a purposeful participation in the speech act. It is important to argue that all successful communicators and learners generally require active listening because we employ it to comprehend, extract information,

evaluate facts and opinions and to enjoy plays and music.

Active listening can be divided into the following four types:

a. **Serious Listening:** Serious listening is a form of active, purposeful, goal directed listening. It draws out in the listener, rapt attention. By its very nature, serious listening requires a lot of concentration, attention, selectivity, mental processing in deciding what to listen to.

b. **Critical Listening:** This is the listening behaviour which a listener exhibits by listening to speeches in order to distinguish between facts and opinions, logical and emotional arguments. The listener seeks through this behaviour to evaluate as well as analyse evidence and ideas being listened to.

c. **Discriminative Listening:** The main purpose is to understand and remember essential parts of the special message. To achieve this, the listener's knowledge of word discrimination is called to task. The listener, to achieve success through this behaviour, uses context clues to find meanings of words as well as relate details of the message to the main points.

d. **Social Listening:** Man does not engage in serious listening all the time, he employs social listening in dialogues, conversations, friendly arguments/

discussions, gossips, etc. The listening behaviours often associated with social listening are: appreciative, conversational courteous, and affectionate/respectful.

2.3 GOALS TO SET WHILE LISTENING

In any active listening encounter, goal setting is significant. Listening goals identify what one would personally like to gain during and after listening to a particular message. These goals are often characterised by the different listening styles adopted. There are three goals we often set in listening. These goals are:

- i. Listening to understand ideas: When one listens to understand, one listens to main ideas or central concepts, identifying key words and phrases that will help to accurately summarise the concepts being discussed.
- ii. Listening to retain information: Some listeners only listen to retain information. However, if one is to retain what is heard, one must first learn how to focus attention and then learn how to make certain that what is heard is understood. To retain information, certain tools are needed. These are:
 - a. Repetition: We reproduce what we listened to either verbatim or through paraphrase
 - b. Paraphrase: We restate what someone has said in our own

words

c. Visualization: We store something about what we have heard by forming picture in our mind.

iii. Listening to analyse and evaluate conflicts: Being able to analyse and evaluate what you listen to calls for a greater skill than retention. When one listens to analyse and evaluate conflicts effectively, one becomes adept at spotting fallacies in the arguments and statements encountered during discourse.

In general, we listen to understand, retain, analyse and evaluate content and to develop relationship with others.

2.4 BAD LISTENING HABITS AND HOW TO AVOID THEM

Despite all the fuss about goal setting in listening, different individuals still exhibit certain unlistening attitudes. Unlistening behaviours have the tendency of creating a misunderstanding of what could be important to us or someone else. These attitudes are:

i. Calling the subject matter uninteresting: A good listener will take time to listen to a topic even if it sounds uninteresting. You may discover that the topic, though uninteresting, may turn out to be useful.

ii. Criticizing the Speaker's delivery or appearance: Avoid the

tendency to mentally criticize the speaker's manner of presentation or appearance. You need to concentrate on what the speaker is saying so as to get the message instead of mentally criticizing the speaker.

iii. Becoming too stimulated: Sometimes, we get stimulated when we disagree with what a speaker has said and rather than keep listening to them, we get carried away, building questions in our mind to ask the speaker after the delivery. You can miss the additional comments and lose other important points. You must always listen to the complete presentation of a speaker before drawing conclusion about it.

iv. Listening only for facts: When you listen only for facts you will miss the primary ideas being passed across by the speaker. So, while listening, do not isolate the facts because they are only meaningful within the primary ideas.

v. Outlining ideas in a disorderly manner: You must develop different styles of outlining for different speakers. Some speakers are logical in their presentation while some are not. It is good for you to identify the speaker's method for your benefit.

vi. Faking attention: Many listeners fake attention by nodding or staring at the speaker but their minds are miles away. As a

listener, you need to identify your faking habit and eliminate it.

vii. Tolerating or creating distractions: Don't create or tolerate distraction because doing so will distract you as well as other listeners in the audience.

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

ix. Submitting to emotional words: Some words have emotional impact on some listeners. You should not allow emotional words distract your attention in the course of listening.

LESSON NOTE 3 (Do not write any comment to this post)

EFFECTIVE SPEAKING SKILLS

The third topic on the course outline is effective speaking skills.

Human beings differ basically from the animals because they can speak. The possession and use of language to communicate is exclusive to human beings. This unit of lecture therefore introduces you to the skills of effective

speaking as well as the sounds of English, with a view to enabling you to speak and understand intelligible English.

The 24 consonants as pronounced in RP accent.

RP means Received Pronunciation.

Every English accent contains the same 24 consonants, but not all speakers pronounce them in the same way. The 24 consonant sounds are usually grouped into 2 categories: the voiceless which are 9 in numbers and the voiced consonant sounds which are 15 in numbers.

So our focus is to learn how these consonants are realized by RP speakers.

The left-hand column lists the consonants using the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet), next are words in which the sounds are realized.

Just as the way we use Alphabets to write, the IPA are the symbols that we use to represent sounds when we write them (you often see this in the dictionaries). Every sound in English is represented by this symbol which you must not confuse with the alphabets you know. These symbols are usually enclosed between two slanted line such as /p/....

Practice the sounds through the word examples so you can get used to them.

/p/ pad happy hiccough
/b/ back rabbit cab
/k/ cut occur stomach queen six
/g/ gut buggy egg exit
/t/ tip matter jumped thyme
/d/ dip ladder side
/f/ phrase office cough sapphire
/v/ vast nephew save
/s/ cell advice six psychology
/z/ zip rose boys exit
/ə/ thin baths earth
/ə/ the bother bathe
/ʃ/ she machine lash
mission station sugar
/ʒ/ genre pleasure casual
montage seizure
/tʃ/ chat righteous match
/dʒ/ gin suggest bridge
job adjective soldier
/m/ mat summer climb autumn
/n/ pneumonia bony pen
/ŋ/ finger bring bank

/l/ learn eleven sell

/r/ write hurry father

/h/ house hoe hire

/j/ yet new onion music

/w/ wet queen choir penguin persuade

Voiceless ----- Voiced

/p/ park ----- /b/ Bark

/t/ time ----- /d/ Dime

/k/ back ----- /g/ Bag

/f/ fan ----- /v/ Van

/s/ sip ----- /z/ Zip

/ʃ/ caution ----- /ʒ/ casual

/tʃ/ etch ----- /dʒ/ Edge

/θ/ breath ----- /ð/ breathe

/h/ Whom ----- /m/ Maim

----- /n/ name

----- /ŋ/ sing

----- /l/ Like

----- /w/ We

----- /r/ realm

----- /j/ Young

VOWELS

In the last lecture we treated English vowel sounds.

Basically, a vowel is any "open" sound where there is no obstruction or "blocking" caused by the teeth, tongue, lips, palate or other articulators.

In the English alphabet, there are 5 vowels: A, E, I, O, U. But there are many more vowel sounds in the English language.

If you remember correctly, the English vowels are 20 in numbers and can be categorised into 3. We have the monothongs, diphthongs and the triphthongs. But we will concern ourselves with just the first two.

The English Monothongs

Monothongs are single vowels. A single vowel sound is any vowel that is not a diphthong. A single vowel can be short or long and they are 12 in numbers. Monothongs can be divided into 2 groups namely: the long and the short vowels. The long vowels are usually represented with 2 dots as we can see

below and there are 5 of them in English language.

Long vowels

In the British English phonemic chart, long vowels are easy to recognise, because they have a colon (:) symbol after them.

Some long vowels are basically longer versions of short vowels (like /ɪ/ and /i:/).

Long vowels in English:

/i:/ as in sheep key seal

/ɑ:/ as in father farther car

/ɔ:/ as in door saw lawn port

/u:/ as in boot fool cool

/ɜ:/ as in learn fur nurse

Short vowels

This is the list of the 7 short vowels in standard (RP) English:

/ɪ/ as in ship lick sin

/æ/ as in cat battle man

/e/ as in egg beg men

/ʊ/ as in book cook pull

/ʌ/ as in cup love son sun

/ɒ/ as in hot got lost

Schwa - /ə/

The schwa is a special type of short vowel. It is a very "weak"

sound that is never stressed. This means you often find the schwa in words with more than one syllable. Here are some examples:

mother: /'mʌðə/

America: /ə'merɪkə/

The English Diphthongs

A diphthong is a two vowel sounds, one after the other.

There is movement or "glide" between the two parts of the sound.

For example, to say the /eɪ/ like in the word "cake" (/keɪk/) first say /e/, then say /ɪ/ without stopping. Your mouth will move from the /e/ shape to the /ɪ/ shape. This is the "glide".

Diphthongs of English:

/ɪə/ as in beer

/eɪ/ as in same

/ʊə/ as in tour

/ɔɪ/ as in coin

/əʊ/ as in nose

/eə/ as in hair

/aɪ/ as in fly

/aʊ/ as in house

STRESS AND INTONATION

In addition to mastering the sound units of English, you should also understand stress and intonation as important features of the English Language. Stress is the prominence (or emphasis) given to a particular syllable of a word which makes it stand out from the other syllables. A stressed syllable is produced with a greater muscular energy and perceived as being longer and louder than the unstressed one. In English, a word that contains more than one syllable will have one of the syllables bear what we call the primary stress. This primary stress is indicated by a stroke occurring up before the syllable that carries the stress this way:

Ex'port (verb) ----- 'Export (noun)

Con'tract (Verb) ----- 'Contract (Noun)

Im'port (Verb) ----- 'Import (Noun)

Edu'cation ----- Im'portance

As it is the case in the examples above, stress is used to distinguish between words with the same spellings, but which belong to different word classes. Also stress can also be used for emphasis in a clause, e.g.

I saw 'him ('him' is emphasised) but in I 'saw him ('saw' is emphasised) and in 'I saw him ('I' is emphasised)

It is not easy determining which syllable is to be stressed in a

polysyllabic English word. However, if you consult your dictionary regularly you will be able to overcome the problem.

Intonation: Intonation refers to the variation in the pitch level of the voice. When we speak, our voice does not remain at one level; it goes up and down and this is called intonation. This variation is not random but depends on the type of sentence i.e. whether it is a statement or question; the attitude of the speaker to what is being said or to the listener. The different intonation tunes are: falling, rising, and falling-rising. In English, intonation performs grammatical and attitudinal functions, among others. The falling tune is used for declaratives, commands and wh- questions. Examples: She is a little girl (Declarative)

Get out of my way (Command)

Where are my books (Wh- question)

Usually, utterances that are made with the falling intonation can be made with the rising tune to indicate warmth, excitement, etc. Also with intonation, a declarative statement can be turned into a question, e.g. our teacher will explain more about stress and intonation?

The rising tune is used to ask a question with alternatives, as well as a polar question, that is, a question that demands

yes/no for an answer.

LESSON NOTE 4 (Do not write any comment to this post)

READING SKILLS

The fourth topic on the course outline is reading skills.

What is Reading?

Reading is the act of getting meanings from printed or written words. It is the most important skills in a literate society. Reading provides the key to all kinds of information. It enables us to learn how to build/fix things, to enjoy stories, to discover other people beliefs, to exercise our imaginations, to broaden our interests and to develop ideas and beliefs. Reading means recognising letters and groups of letters as symbols which stand for particular sounds. The sounds in turn form words that express ideas in written. The ability to read and write is called literacy and a person who can read is said to be literate. A person who cannot is illiterate.

IMPORTANCE OF READING

As a student you should work hard to improve your reading skills. This is because reading takes a major part of the students' study time. Good performance at university is directly related to a good reading ability. Also, most students have never had any instruction in reading and so do not realise that they are poor and inefficient readers. Finally, reading is a developmental process which is ongoing and can never be

completely mastered and so, you should make a conscious effort to improve reading throughout.

Reading involves two basic processes which are interdependent, the physical process which is visual and the mental or intellectual process. It is necessary to engage in reading efficiency as this will help you to acquire proper motor skill which will enhance the efficient physical processing of written materials. Reading plays an essential role in the daily lives of most people. To survive in the literary world today, you need to be able to read road signs, maps, labels on medicine bottles, directions for operating new appliances etc. The ability to perform all such useful activities is sometimes called Functional Reading or Functional Literacy.

A special kind of functional literacy is Learner Literacy. This is very important. University students must read to gain an understanding of a wide variety of topics. Learner Literacy also requires the ability to read special kinds of materials, including charts, graphs, maps and tables. Another kind of functional literacy is Workplace Literacy. This involves the ability to read written materials necessary for doing a job. Such materials include manuals on how to operate computers and other technical devices. This is one way that a person's

ability to read directly influences job success.

TYPES OF READING

People differ in their reading ability. Those who have been reading for a long time tend to understand what they read more quickly and more automatically than new readers. Also, older readers bring more background experiences to their reading. Regardless of age, training and other experiences, reading abilities and habits vary from person to person. A good reader uses various techniques. The technique depends on the type and difficulty of the materials, the purpose for reading, the readers own language development and familiarity with the subject. Using the criterion of reading speed, the following types of reading can be identified:

i. Intensive Reading: intensive reading is reading for a particular purpose. It involves a close examination of a text to get the full meaning. It is the type of reading that you do for detail and analysis when the material will have to be later recalled, recast, discussed and evaluated. It requires a slow and meticulous reading speed since the amount of comprehension is expected to be high; hence the speed of reading is correspondingly slow. A student preparing for an examination in specific subjects needs to do this kind of

reading. Comprehension is very paramount for this kind of reading. In this type of reading, you should learn to respond to the plain sense of words and sentences and to see their implications, to follow relationships of thought between sentences and paragraphs and to integrate information in the text with their own experience and/or knowledge.

ii. Extensive Reading: In extensive reading, reading is done only out of interest. So, the reader is not interested in details. This type of reading is enjoyable since the reader does not have to struggle through the material. So he will not bother himself with the complex analysis of the events, nor will he need to write down points. He is only interested in the general outline of the piece of literature. This rapid silent reading is also important for assignments which involve reference work, i.e. training in how to look for specific information which is required, where the answer cannot be found in one book and where a person does not have the time to read each line carefully as with intensive reading.

Extensive Reading involves reading rapidly for information as fast as possible and as many books or material within the shortest time. This kind of reading exposes the readers to a variety of reading materials and enables them to improve in all

aspects of language skill (listening, speaking and writing). One of the best ways to enrich or increase one's vocabulary power is through extensive reading because the tendency is there for the reader to come across new words and expressions.

But you should be aware that the two types of reading discussed above are not mutually exclusive; one supports the other to make a student's reading ability more efficient and rewarding.

METHODS OF READING

Some students read slowly and laboriously because they are uncertain of what they are expected to learn from their reading assignments. Their uncertainty is increased when they are given tests which require accurate recall of minute details. You need to develop the ability to locate main ideas if you are to read with better comprehension. Two components of reading efficiency are the ability to read fast and the ability to comprehend the message. The speed at which a student reads a particular material depends on the level of difficulty of the material and the student's ability and background knowledge. 3 types of speed of reading are explained below.

A. Study Reading Speed: This is the slowest reading speed and it is used for comprehending difficult materials and to get

high rate of understanding and good retention. Here, the student studies the material carefully so that he will not miss a single point and to be able to recall the material at a later time.

B. Average Reading Speed: This is useful for extensive reading. Average reading speed is used on easy-to-read textbooks, newspapers and prose material. It cannot be used for poetry, since poetry packs ideas closely together and is usually written so that pronouncing the words is helpful in getting the rhythm and tone of the poem. A good reader's average reading speed may vary from 250 words per minute to 500 words per minute, while a poor reader's average speed may vary from 150-80 words per minute.

C. Skimming and Scanning: Skimming and scanning are two reading methods that are used for very specific and special purposes. They require very fast reading rate, and they differ from rapid reading in that not all the content of the material is actually read. It is a selective form of reading.

i. Skimming: This is reading at the fastest speed which a person can accomplish. It is used when a reader wishes to cover any reading material in a hurry or get a useful reference source. It is also used when high comprehension is not

required. Skimming involves moving your eyes quickly over a whole page or selection. In skimming, you should note titles, topic sentences, chapter headings and highlighted words or phrases. Also, examine the table of contents, the index and any picture or other graphic aids.

ii. Scanning: The major purpose of scanning is for the rapid and efficient location of specific words, facts or details. It is an extremely useful skill in helping students to learn and master technical terms where a number of sources need to be consulted for their meanings and uses. Scanning involves moving your eyes quickly across a line or down a page to locate particular information. To scan, choose a text-book, place a folded paper over the first line and move the paper quickly down the page. Look for key words that relevant to the information you need. When you locate such a word, stop scanning and read slowly.

STUDY TECHNIQUES (SQ3R)

Many students confuse studying with reading. It is a fact that studying often involves reading, but if a student does nothing but reading during his study period, he is not likely to be working effectively as he should. Reading is part of most study techniques but is not the whole. In this section, we

focus on one specific study technique, the “SQ3R” which embodies the important reading principles of studying. This method consists of five steps: Survey, Question, Read, Recall and Review.

a. Survey: When you first approach the material to be studied, the first thing to do is to “survey” it. That is, lightly skim through it by looking over the entire material to get a general idea of what you will be reading. Read the introduction and the summary (if there is any), check the titles, headings and look at any illustration. The survey should not take much time. You may spend only 3 minutes surveying a 20 page chapter. You are only trying to have a general idea of what the material is about.

b. Questions: The Q in the SQ3R stands for Question. In this stage of the study technique, you must go through the material and make a series of questions and decide which questions you can be able to answer at the end of your reading. If the author has used sub-headings, it will simplify your task: all you have to do is change the sub-headings into questions. For example, if the chapter is on “Clauses”, the first sub-heading may be “Noun Clause”. You can form a question such as “What is a noun clause?” It is wise to write

down the questions for later reference. If the chapter has no sub-headings, you must then skim through the material to get the main ideas and ask questions based on these. Your survey of the material will help you in finding the most important areas of the chapter, and skimming will help you to pick out the main ideas in order to put them down in question forms. Another important result of making questions on a chapter is the arousing of your curiosity. A student who comes to the chapter with specific questions to be answered will learn more than one who comes with some vague idea in his head.

c. Read: The 3R part of the SQ3R means "R, R, R". The first R stands for Read. Read here simply means reading the material through so that the questions you wrote down can be answered. Often, during reading, you will discover that questions need be generated on certain areas. If this happens, you can stop and write down these questions. You should not think that reading once is enough. For a complete understanding of most text material, especially if you have not read extensively and you do not have high degree of interest, nor excellent background knowledge, you will need to re-read the material.

In the SQ3R method, you would have been through all the

pages at least twice before beginning to read. You turn all the pages once on your survey, and again turn all the pages when making up your questions. You should not take notes or underline anything on the first reading. Taking notes slows and distract the reader. The purpose of the first reading should be to get a general understanding of the material. Underlining prematurely may result in over underlining. This is because you may not know what the major ideas are until you have finished the material and may think everything is important.

d. Recall: The second R of the SQ3R technique stands for Recall. In recalling, you attempts to tell what you have read. It involves reciting, from memory, mentally or orally to oneself or a friend, the information, main points and ideas, that have been gathered from reading. It also includes writing down the major ideas and main points of the text from memory. The important part of this section of the study technique is that you form in your own mind and in your own words answers to the questions from the material you are studying. You must avoid repeating the exact words of the author.

It has been recommended that 50 per cent of the student's study time should be spent in trying to recall what he has read.

The process of recall is a good way for you to test yourself and discover for yourself what you understand and what you don't. The student's recalling period is perhaps the most active of all the stages, as here he must re-cast the material into his own language based on his own understanding.

e. Review: Thus far, in following this technique, the student would have been through the material 4 different times in one way or another. review includes surveying the material again, making sure of the structure and organisation of the material. If you have done a good job of writing the questions and answers, you might merely read your own questions and answers. You may need to re-read the sections that have been noted or underlined, recalling material in sequence and in fact trying to repeat the previous steps in the SQ3R strategy.

BAD READING HABITS AND HOW TO ELIMINATE THEM

There are a number of bad habits which poor readers adopt. Most of these involve using extra body movement in the reading process. Some of these bad reading habits can be eliminated easily when identified.

i. Head Movement: Poor readers have the habit of moving the head from left to right as they follow the words from left to right across the page. Such movement slows down reading

speed. The only muscles you need for reading are the eye muscles. A lot of time and energy is wasted through head movement.

ii. Pointing at Words: Poor readers point to words with their fingers or objects as they read. This slows down reading through the mechanical movement of the fingers or object. Also, pointing causes the reader to focus attention on the wrong information. Pointing to individual words can prevent the reader from taking in whole phrases and sentences, which inhibit his understanding of thoughts and ideas.

iii. Vocalisation: Some poor readers think it necessary to pronounce words aloud as it is read. Usually, this pronunciation is quite soft so that the reader is whispering to himself than actually reading aloud. The disadvantage of pronouncing words while reading is that it tends to tie reading speed to speaking speed. This badly affects reading rate and comprehension. Vocalisation takes various forms. Some readers merely move their lips soundlessly. Some make tongue or throat movements without lip movement. Still, other readers will have activity going on in their vocal cords, which can be detected if the student places his fingers alongside his larynx (vocal cords in the throat) while he or she is reading.

iv. Sub-vocalisation: Sub-vocalization differs from vocalisation, here, the reader does not actually move any part of the vocal apparatus but he still pronounces the words to himself in his mind. The lips, tongue or vocal cords do not move but the reader is clearly pronouncing and listening to himself. Excessively slow reading speed is often a clue to some type of vocalisation. So, train yourself to speed up your reading by avoiding concentrating on the pronunciation of individual words.

v. Regression: This refers to glancing back and re-reading words and sentences that one has already read. Because many people are unsure of themselves and their reading, they often go back to read a line or a sentence again to make sure they have read it correctly. Regression is a bad habit which often results from lack of concentration. All readers make some regressions, but good readers make very few and bad readers make a large number. Sometimes, regression could also mean that the reader has come across a new word or phrase which he does not quite understand and wishes to review. Making a regression for this purpose may be justifiable. But, too many regressions while reading is a deficiency.

vi. Rhythmic Eye Movement: This refers to the way in which the eyes move across the lines of prints. When the eyes are reading a line of print, they make a series of short jerky movements along the line, stopping after every one or two words for a very brief pause. Each time the eye stops, it sees a certain span of material and this span is called the "Span of recognition". Poor readers have a small recognition span in that they can only recognise one or two words at one glance while good readers have a wider span of recognition and can take in several words per fixation. Readers may probably not be aware of their eye movements. Eye movements can easily be observed by another person.

vii. Physical Disability: Inadequate brain development, vision or hearing defects can cause reading deficiencies. However, they account for only a small percentage of all reading problems. This might be beyond a reader to correct. In this case, professional attention/help should be sought.

LESSON NOTE 5 (Do not write any comment to this post)

FIGURES OF SPEECH

Figure of speech is the use of language that has meaning beyond the literal meaning. It is also known as figurative language, figurative expression or trope. Figure of speech refers to the figurative use of words as distinct from its usual, surface, literal or ordinary meaning.

To get the meaning of figure of speech we must depart from the literal meaning of the statements. What this means is that figures of speech are not meant to be taken as statements of facts. For example, if someone says “My lawyer is a shark”. This is a figurative use of language because literally, a lawyer cannot be a shark that has jaws with sharp rows of teeth. But what the statement means is that my lawyer is ruthless.

When we speak “figuratively,” then, we are making an analogy or comparison between two things. In other words, we are borrowing a quality from a familiar thing, and saying it applies to whatever we are describing. We shall examine some examples of figures of speech below:

1. Metaphor: is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase that ordinarily designates or indicates one thing is used to designate or indicates another. So, metaphor is used in language to make implicit comparison. In other words, a metaphor is figure of speech that is used in direct comparison of two unlike things without the use of “like” or “as.”

Examples of Metaphor:

"His life is an enormous desert"

"Adamawa hunters are the real lions"

"He is a pig when he sees food"

2. Simile: is a figure of speech that is used to make comparisons between two things in expressions using either of the words: as, such as, like. In other words, simile is a figure of speech that compares two things using the words “like” “such as” or “as”. Examples of Simile:

"His life is like an enormous desert"

"Adamawa hunters have shown themselves as the real lions"

"Her smile is as cold as ice"

3. Personification: is the act of representing an idea, a thing or a non-human being as having human characteristics or attributes. In other words, personification is a figure of speech that gives or attributes human qualities to an animal, object, or idea. Examples of Personification:

"The moon knocks incessantly on my door"

"Money talks in every business"

"Salvation will come to you if you believe"

The use of the words: knocks, talks and come, put human qualities on moon and money. As we know, moon cannot perform the action of knocking and money cannot talk. But we can still make meanings from the above sentences.

4. Hyperbole: Is a figure of speech that deals with overstatement or exaggeration of facts. In other words, hyperbole is a deliberate overstatement that is used to make emphasis or exaggeration. Examples of Hyperbole:

"I am dying of thirst"

"I read all day now my head is feeling so heavy"

"We have talked about this issue a thousand times"

5. Understatement: This figure of speech is the opposite of hyperbole. It is used to make an issue less than is the case.

Examples of Understatement:

"Corruption in Nigeria is not a big deal; it is just mere stealing"

"River Niger is now a bare land due to the drought"

6. Paradox: Is a statement that appears contradictory to common sense yet it is true. In usage, paradox seems to contradict itself as it seems to refer to something illogical. In other words, a paradox is a statement that appears to be absurd but which actually bear some truth. Examples of Paradox:

"Her life story is a an open secret"

"His old face was youthful when he heard the news"

"In the long run, the child is the father of the man"

7. Synecdoche: is a figure of speech that uses a part of a whole to represent the whole. In other words, synecdoche is a figure of speech that singles out a part of a person or thing to stand for the whole. Example of Synecdoche:

"That young lady is a brain"

"The young headman has over thirty head of cattle"

"All hands must be on deck if we are to succeed"

8. Metonymy: is a figure of speech which is characterised by the substitution of a term naming an object closely associated with the word in mind for the word itself. In other words,

metonymy is a figure of speech which uses the name of one thing for that of another of which it is an attribute or with which it is associated. Examples of Metonymy:

Many lands in Edo State belong to the Crown

"I can't seem to enjoy any movie from Nollywood"

"I have read all of Achebe"

9. Oxymoron: is the combining of two contradictory terms in one expression. In other words, oxymoron is a figure of speech that presents apparent contradiction in the use of words in an expression. Oxymoron is a descriptive phrase that combines two contradictory terms to create a totally fresh idea. Examples of Oxymoron:

"Although he has been released from prison but he is a crying free man"

"The love between him and his wife is such sweet anguish"

10. Parallelism: is the use of symmetrical sentence structure or phrasing to create either an effect or a more telling comparison. Examples of Parallelism:

"The world will little note or long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here"

11. Pun: is a figure of speech that play on words. It is often humorous. It builds on words which sound similar, yet have

unrelated meanings. In other words, pun is a figure of speech that uses a word in such a way as to suggest two or more of its meanings or the meaning of another word similar in sound.

Example of Pun:

"I am a mender of bad soles" (soles similar to souls)

12. Litotes: is an understatement in which an affirmative is expressed by the negative of the contrary. Examples of Litotes:

"She is not a bad singer"

"I am not unhappy"

13. Irony: An ironic expression is one in which the current circumstances and the speaker's attitudes are opposed to the literal meaning of his speech. Simply, an irony states the opposite of what the speaker or writer means leaving something in the tone of the statement or in its relation to the known facts to suggest the real meaning. Example of Irony:

"Nigeria is a county where in the midst of plenty, people are dying of hunger"

When irony is used with an intention to scorn or mock, it becomes sarcasm.

'Water, water, water everywhere. Not any drop to drink"

From the forgoing it is clear that figurative language or figure of speech is not intended to be interpreted in literal sense.

Appealing to the imagination, figurative language provides new ways of looking at the world. It always makes use of a comparison between different things. Figure of speech is used to reveal something interesting, unique and/or surprising about a person, object or situation.

LESSON NOTE 6 (Do not write any comment to this post)

GRAMMATICAL UNIT - THE MORPHEME

Hierarchical Elements of Language

In order to achieve meaning in communication through language, the elements or units of language must be ordered, and hierarchical relationship must exist among these elements of language. The elements are: morpheme, word, group or phrase, clause and sentence.

THE MORPHEME:

A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of the grammar of a language. In other words, it cannot be broken down into any other meaningful unit. It is the minimal unit used in building words in a language. A morpheme should not be confused with a syllable - the smallest pronounceable unit of a language. However, it is possible that a morpheme may be realised as a syllable.

TYPES OF MORPHEME:

Morphemes are classified in two ways.

One is by meaning and the other is by structure.

Based on meaning we can classify morphemes as free morphemes and bound morphemes.

A. Free Morphemes: are morphemes that can easily stand alone without being joined to any other morphemes. It is also called Root morphemes or Simple words. E.g.: man, stand, book, hood, go, etc.

B. Bound Morpheme: are morphemes that need free morphemes to stand. They are also called additive morphemes because they need to be added to free morphemes. E.g.: -ness, il-, -hood, -y, -ward, -ation, -s, -ies, etc.

We can further classify bound morphemes into derivational

and inflectional morphemes.

i. Derivational Bound Morphemes: are morphemes that change the class of words. They fall under affixes such as prefix, infix and suffix.

Prefixes are derivational morphemes attached to root, free or base morphemes at the start of words. E.g.:

im- (impossible, immortal),

il- (illegal, illogical),

un- (unhappy, unmarried),

a- (apolitical),

mis- (misunderstand),

dis- (disloyal),

en- (encode), etc.

Suffixes are added to words at the end. For instance, -er (teacher), -ful (faithful), -less (harmless), -ness (newness), -ment (amusement), -ous (famous), etc.

ii. Inflectional bound morphemes: They are sub-divided into plural markers and tense markers.

Plural markers are morphemes added to pluralise nouns. Examples are bolded in these words: boy-s, tomato-es, lorr-ies, liv-es, etc.

Tense markers are those added to inflect verbs. Examples are

also bolded in the following examples: do-ing, love-s, want-ed, bake-d, etc.

There are also replacive morphemes and zero morphemes.

These morpheme types are closely related to inflectional morphemes. Replacive morphemes occur when one or two letters of words are replaced with others when marking plurality or tense. Examples are bolded in the following: man-men; tooth-teeth; see-saw; weep-wept; sing-sang, etc. For zero morphemes, it occurs when tense and plurality are marked in words, but their morphemes do not show physically. Examples are: sheep, hit, hurt, deer, cast, staff, etc.

How to Identify Morphemes

You should be able to break down words into morphemes. The table below will help you to figure out how to identify morphemes in words.

| Words----- | Root | Morpheme----- | Bound |
|----------------------|------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Morpheme | | | |
| disrespectful----- | (respect) | ----- | (dis-, -ful) |
| unpreparedness----- | (pre | | |
| pare)----- | (un-, -d, -ness) | | |
| classifications----- | (class) | ----- | (-y, -action, -s) |
| unexpectedly----- | (e | | |

expect)------(un-, -ed, -ly)

Hurt -----(h

urt)------(Zero morpheme)

Staff -----(S

taff)------(Zero morpheme)

Men -----(M

an)------(Replacing of a with e)

Came------(

Come)------(Replacing of o with a)

LESSON NOTE 7(Do not write any comment to this post)

GRAMMATICAL UNIT - THE WORD

A word can be defined as sound or combination of vocal sounds to express meaning. A word is an independent

meaningful unit of the grammar of a language. In written language, it is easily identifiable in that it has spaces on either sides. But in spoken language, it is difficult, at times, to demarcate word boundary. Take for example:

a. I fight her for I fighter

b. Forever I for Eva

Words are classified based on two criteria. They are the criterion of meaning and the criterion of structure.

A. TYPES OF WORD BASED ON MEANING:

Using the criterion of meaning, there are two types of words: content word and grammatical word.

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

ii. Grammatical Word: This type is also referred to as form word, function word, or structure word. This type of word performs mainly a syntactic function, hence the name grammatical word. Grammatical words include: articles,

conjunctions and prepositions. They are close-ended, that is, they are limited in number. Change in membership of this class does not usually happen. If a change occurs at all, it is not easily noticeable. Examples include: to, for, by, in, the, a, an, at, with, between, etc.

B. TYPES OF WORDS BASED ON STRUCTURE:

Based on the criterion of structure, three types of words can be identified. They are explained below:

i. Simple Word: A simple word is a free morpheme. It is possible to add an affix to it which will change the word from being simple. But when an affix is added, the base and the affix must be separable, if the word is to be classified as simple. Examples are: girl, money, come, look, a, of, which, sun, etc.

ii. Compound Word: is one which has two bases. In other words, it has two free morphemes. We can form compound words by combining two or more free morphemes together. Examples are: timetable, sickbed, teacup, headgear, teaspoonful, moreover, handshake, chairman, etc.

iii. Complex Word: contains one free morpheme and one or more bound morpheme. You should note that the morphemes in a complex word may or may not be easily separated. Also,

complex words are derived from plural forms of irregular nouns and the past tense and past participle form of irregular/strong verbs. Examples are: tooth, children, oxen, men, dug, born, put, etc

WORD CLASS OR PART OF SPEECH

Parts of speech (also called word classes) are sentence elements that work together to make up a sentence. Just as a car is not a functioning car without all of its synchronized parts working together, a sentence is not a functioning sentence without the correct usage and combination of its essential parts of speech. Words in a language can be classified into different parts of speech based on the meaning, form and function of the words. Word class can be classified into two categories: the open class and the closed class.

A. The Open Class:

These words belong to the major parts of speech namely: nouns, main, adjectives, and adverbs. In any language they are quite large and open-ended. The parts of speech in this class make up about 90% of the words in our vocabularies. This means you can create coin or add new words to this category. For example, nouns have increased constantly in the age of technology with new words such as Internet, website, URL,

CD-ROM, email, newsgroup, bitmap, modem, multimedia. There are also new verbs such as download, upload, reboot, right-click, double-click etc.

B. The Close Class:

This word class does not easily accept new words. Its members are fixed and do not easily change. Closed class words are very few in number. They are sometimes known as grammatical or function words. These parts of speech include pronouns, prepositions, interjections, determiners, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs. These classes include words like of, the, and, but, the, is, etc.

DESCRIPTION OF PARTS OF SPEECH

The parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Each of them is described below:

1. DETERMINERS

These are words that are used to introduce nouns in sentences. For example: the, that, etc. Determiners in the sentences below are in brackets

(The) money is hidden in a box.

(A) baby is crying.

(That) girl is an angel

TYPES OF DETERMINERS:

The different types of determiners in English language are discussed below:

i. Articles: are words we use before a noun to indicate whether the noun is specific or not. We have two types of articles, namely: the definite article (the) and the indefinite article (a and an).

a. The boy is outside. (Definite article)

b. A boy is outside. (Indefinite article)

c. An old man is outside.

ii. Possessives: These are determiners that are used to show possession or ownership of the nouns that follow them. Examples are: his, your, my, her, etc.

a. My book is missing.

b. Our bags are on the table.

c. I sold his car.

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

a. Few of the students passed the test.

b. Many people love her.

iv. Demonstratives: are used to point to the nouns they refer to.

E.g.: these, those, that, etc

a. That boy over there is my brother.

b. Those books are yours.

v. Numerals: These determiners are used to indicate numbers and positions nouns occupy (in a sentence). The two types of numerals are: Cardinals which deal with numbers, e.g.: one, two three, four, etc and Ordinals which indicate positions, e.g.: first, second, third, etc.

a. Two years ago, my uncle bought me a piano.

b. Lola is the fourth child in her family.

2. NOUNS

A noun is a word describing who or what in a sentence. This who or what can be a person, place or thing. A “thing” can be anything - an animal, a device, a point, an object, an event, etc.

A noun is an essential part of any sentence. Examples of nouns are in brackets below:

(Ali) and (Ann) watched a (show) on (Animal Planet).

(Nigeria) is home to many (creatures).

That red wooden (chair) in the (corner) is a priceless (antique).

(Education) is good

CHARACTERISTICS OF NOUNS

Nouns have some characteristics that can make them easy for you to identify in sentences.

i. Only nouns can take determiners such as: 'the, an, a,' etc.

Example, "The man bought an egg".

ii. Nouns can be changed into plural forms by plural markers:

-s (boys), -es (mangoes) and -ies (babies).

iii. Only nouns uses apostrophe plus - s to indicate possessive forms, e.g. "Adamu's car"

iv. You can also form some nouns by the addition of certain suffixes like: -ion (Rejection); or (Elector);

-ness (Lividness); -hood (Neighbourhood); -ian (Christian);

-ment (enjoyment); -ist Motorist).

CLASSES OF NOUNS

Nouns can be classified into four basic classes. And they are Proper, Common and Collective Nouns.

i. Proper Nouns: are the names of a particular person, place or thing. The first letter of a proper noun is always capitalized.

E.g. Mary, Aisha, Ali, Yola, Nigeria, Abuja, The Vanguard.

ii. Common Nouns: are names that do not specify a particular person, place, animal or object. They refer to a class of people, places, animals or objects. Examples are teacher, animal, vehicle, friend, etc.

Common nouns are of two types: concrete and abstract nouns

a. Concrete Nouns: These are nouns that refer to things that have physical forms. We can touch concrete nouns because they are tangible, e.g. car, spoon, shoes, textbooks.

b. Abstract Nouns: These are names of entities that have no physical forms. That is, those nouns that are immaterial as they cannot be touched, e.g.; peace, hope, love, kindness, honesty.

iii. **Collective Nouns:** are nouns that refer to groups or a collection of people, animals or things as unified entities, e.g. audience, committee, family, team, etc. Some collective nouns are specific to certain groups of people, animals, or objects. E.g.: swarm (of bees), troop (of soldiers), bunch (of keys), herd (of cattle).

iv. **Count and Un-count Nouns:** Nouns in English can also be classified into count and un-count nouns.

a. Count Nouns: are nouns which can be counted and can be in both singular and plural forms. E.g.: window/windows, room/rooms. They can also take definite and indefinite articles: a, an, the. E.g.: a room, a dog, an envelope, an elephant, the room. You can also use cardinal numerals with

count nouns because they can be counted. E.g.: one room, one dog, two elephants, etc.

b. Un-count Nouns: These are nouns that cannot be counted. They are also called uncountable nouns or mass nouns (because they exist as an undifferentiated mass). They are always in the singular form. E.g.: water, gold, furniture, equipment, information, etc. Uncountable nouns can also be abstract, (i.e., nouns that we are tangible). E.g.s. of un-count abstract nouns are: loyalty, faithfulness, endurance, etc. There are many concrete nouns which are also un-count nouns. Although we can see and touch them, but we cannot count them, because we cannot separate them single units. E.g.: paper, salt, water, oil, etc.

3. PRONOUN

Pronouns are words we used in place of nouns in sentences. In the sentence: Mary took the money but she left the bag on the table. “Mary” is a noun; it is later replaced with the word she towards the end of the sentence; so, she is a pronoun because we used it in place of the noun Mary.

TYPES OF PRONOUNS

The different pronouns in English language are explained below.

i. Personal Pronoun: These pronouns are used to refer to persons and things. The English personal pronouns can be seen in the table below: (I, we, you, your, he, she, it, they, etc.)

-----Singular----

-----Plural

1st Person I (me)-----We (us)

2nd Person You (you)-----You (you)

3rd Person (Masculine) He (him)

(Feminine) She (her)

(non-person) It (it)-----They (them)

ii. Possessive Pronoun: These are the pronouns that are used to indicate ownership or possession of a particular thing.

Examples are:

a. The book is (mine).

b. Those shoes are (yours).

c. The book is (theirs).

iii. Reciprocal Pronoun: This pronoun is used to identify an action or feeling that is reciprocated; so, the pronoun always refers to more than one person. There are only two reciprocal pronouns in English and they are: “each other,” which refers to two nouns, and “one another,” which refers to more than two noun. See the sentences below for how they are used:

- a. Ali and Jude always hurt each other.
- b. Students in the group must support one another

iv. Reflexive Pronoun: This pronoun functions as grammatical object and it is used to refer back to the main noun (or the subject) of a sentence. Examples are: myself, yourself, herself, etc.

- a. Jerome hurt himself playing tennis. (himself refers back to Jerome)
- b. Ayi struggled with herself over the issue. (herself refers back to Ayi)

v. Indefinite Pronoun: is used to replace unknown quantity and to refer generally to person or thing. E.g.: many, both, few, all, any, another, some, everything, nothing, something, no one, none, anything etc.

- a. Everyone will find out soon.
- b. Many came to the party

vi. Emphatic Intensive Pronoun: is used to lay emphasis on the subject of a sentence. E.g.: himself, yourself, themselves, etc.

- a. The girl herself was arrested.
- b. The lawyer himself will testify in the courtroom.

vii. Relative Pronoun: These are linking pronouns. We use relative pronouns to link relative clause with the main clauses

in complex sentences. Examples are: whom, which, that, whose, and who.

a. The girl who ate your food is here.

b. I like the bag that you bought

viii. Demonstrative Pronoun: is used to point out the noun it is referring to in sentences. E.g.: this, that, etc.

These are my things.

Those are my things.

That is my car .

This is my thing.

ix. Numerical Pronoun: is used to show the number or position a thing or a person occupies in a scheme or arrangement. Numerical pronouns are of two types:

i. Cardinals (are words such as one, two, three, etc) and

ii. Ordinals (are words like first; second; third, etc).

a. I invited ten persons but only (five) came to the party.

b. I came (fifth) in the race.

x. Interrogative Pronoun: We use these pronouns to ask questions. E.g.: who, where, which, how, etc.

a. Where is my food?

b. How is your health?

c. When are we leaving?

4. VERB

A verb is a word that expresses an action or put forth a state of being. It talks about the action the subject is involved in or the state of being of the subject. Without a verb, a sentence will be ungrammatical. Verbs are classified into different types depending on the function they perform in sentences. The types of verbs are:

i. Lexical or Main Verbs: Lexical or main verb is a single action word that do not require other words before the action it expresses is understood. Examples are bracketed in the sentences below.

- a. I (sleep) at home every day.
- b. We (eat) rice.
- c. Jane (dances) in the room.

To get the –ing form, a lexical verb must be assisted by auxiliaries. Check the sentences below:

- a. *I going home.
- b. *We eating rice.
- c. *Jane sleeping in the room

None of the sentences above is correct. This is because the lexical verbs are used without auxiliaries.

ii. Auxiliary Verbs: Auxiliary verbs are those words that help

lexical verbs to express their actions. E.g.:

a. I (am) sleeping at home tonight.

b. We (are) eating rice.

c. Jane (is) dancing inside.

Auxiliary verbs are of two types, they are primary and modal auxiliaries. Primary Auxiliary Verbs are further divided into three sub-types. They are as listed below:

-The verb to be (am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been)

They (are) singing

-The verb to have (has, have, had, having)

They (have) sang

-The verb to do (does, do, did)

They (do) sing

The primary auxiliary verbs manifest in various forms, depending on the tense and number of the subject. The Modal Auxiliary Verbs are used to express the mood of the verb.

The mood can be that of ability or capability, permission, probability, obligation, willingness, volition, intention and compulsion. Examples are: will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must; ought; dare; need. Examples:

I will do the work. (willingness)

They should go and see their sister. (obligation)

I can work for three days. (ability)

You must not go out today. (compulsion)

I will not disturb your privacy. (volition)

May I open the door? (permission)

iii. Linking Verbs: Linking verbs are used to connect the subject of a sentence and its predicate together to show some kind of equality between them. Here are some examples:

a. Franklin (is) a student.

b. The boys (are) worn out.

c. The work (seems) easier.

iv. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs: A transitive verb is a verb that takes an object to complete the sense of a sentence. An intransitive verb makes sense without an object. In most cases, when the question 'what' is asked after the verb in a sentence, the answer is the object of the verb while the verb is a transitive verb. However, when there is no answer to that question, the verb is intransitive. E.g.:

a. A boy (broke) the car window.

b. He (died) peacefully in his sleep.

There are two verbs in these two sentences: broke and died. If the question 'what' is asked after broke in the first sentence (what broke?), the answer will be the car window. This means

broke is a transitive verb. But, if the question “what” is asked after died, there is no answer because peacefully in his sleep answers the question ‘how’ not ‘what.’ This makes "died" an intransitive verb.

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

- a. Plants grow fast in the bush.
- b. I grow plants.

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

5. ADVERB

Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, adverbs or entire clause or sentence.

i. Adverbs as modifiers of verbs: Adverbs are used here to give us more information about the verb. They tell us how, when, where, how, and how often verbs occur.

- a. Johnson came (here).
- b. Rose ate her food (hurriedly).
- c. I took my drug (yesterday).

ii. Adverbs as modifiers of adjectives: Adverbs are used here to make adjectives stronger or weaker.

a. The man is (relatively) young.

b. The story is (very) interesting

c. The music is (too) dull.

iii. Adverbs as modifiers of other adverbs: Adverbs are used here to change the degree or precision of other adverbs in sentences.

a. He walked (very) slowly.

b. He performed (averagely) well.

c. The drama went (so) badly

iv. Adverbs as modifiers of clauses: Adverbs also gives more information about a clause. For example:

a. (Really), I like you.

b. (Finally), he passed the examination.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVERBS

Certain characteristics can be used to distinguish adverbs from other parts of speech and they are:

i. Most adverbs in English end with suffix ‘-ly’ e.g. quickly, hurriedly, gently, wisely, quietly, etc.

a. He left hurriedly.

b. He spoke gently.

c. They danced horribly

But there are also some words which end with ‘-ly’ yet they

are not adverbs e.g. friendly, brotherly, homely, likely, lovely, manly, etc. All these are adjectives; not adverbs. Examine the sentences below:

a. He has a manly posture.

b. He gave me brotherly pieces of advice.

c. I had a homely time

Some other adverbs do not have the suffix '-ly' attachment at all. Examples are: too, far, so, very, quite etc. These are adverbs of degree otherwise known as intensifiers.

ii. Adverbs can be formed by adding the suffixes '-ward' and '-wise' to some words in English. Examples:

back + ward = backward

down + ward = downward

home + ward = homeward

like + wise = likewise

street + wise = streetwise

clock + wise = clockwise

iii. Adverbs form their comparative and superlative degrees exactly like adjective. Examples:

| Word | Comparative form | Superlative form |
|------|------------------|------------------|
|------|------------------|------------------|

| | | |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|
| perfectly | more perfectly | most perfectly |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|

| | | |
|---------|--------------|--------------|
| happily | more happily | most happily |
|---------|--------------|--------------|

early earlier earliest

But some adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms. Examples:

well better best

little less least

much more most

TYPES OF ADVERBS

There are different types of adverb in English language. Some of them are explained below.

i. Adverb of Time: This answers the question of “when?” Adverb of times is used to indicate when an action takes place.

e.g.

a. She went to school (yesterday).

b. We arrived home by (5 p.m).

ii. Adverb of Place: This answers the question “where?” It is used to indicate where an action takes place. E.g.

a. My uncle lives (here).

b. I'll leave for Abuja (tomorrow).

iii. Adverb of Manner: This answers the question “how?” It is used to indicate how an action is carried out. E.g.

a. The man walked (sluggishly).

b. She shouted (angrily) at me.

iv. Adverb of Frequency: An adverb of frequency answers the question “how often?” You use it to describe how often an action is carried out. E.g. a. She (rarely) eats meat.

b. She reads (daily).

v. Adverb of Degree: It answers the question “how much” or “to what extent?” You use it to show the extent to which an action is performed. E.g. a. It is (very) beautiful.

b. The work is (completely) done.

vi. Adverb of Cause/Reason: This answers the question “why?” It is used when stating why an action is performed.

a. Mr Tayo was late for the interview (because his car broke down).

b. We were punished (for insulting the lecturer).

vii. Adverb of Condition: It answers the question “under what condition?” You use adverbial of condition when the fulfilment of an action depends on another action. e.g.

a. (If you love me), you will marry me.

b. (Unless it rains), the heat wave will continue.

6. ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a word that is used to describe a noun or pronoun. An adjective makes a noun or pronoun more specific by giving details about it. It helps us have a clearer picture of

what is being talked about. Below; the adjectives: tall, fat, tell us more “about the man who crossed the road”.

The tall fat man crossed the road.

POSITIONS OF ADJECTIVES IN SENTENCES:

Adjectives occupy two typical positions in a sentence.

(a) Attributive: An adjective may come before the noun it qualifies. E.g.: The (young) man helped the girl.

When adjective occupies a position immediately before noun or pronoun it modifies (like in the sentence above), such adjective is called attributive adjectives.

(b) Predicative: An adjective can also be separated from the noun and put after a verb. In this case, such adjectives are called predicative adjectives. Example:

He appears (happy).

(c) Adjectives can occupy more than one position in a sentence. Example: She is a (tall), (lovely) (African) lady.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are known to possess certain characteristics and we can identify them by these characteristics

(i) We can form many adjectives from nouns and verbs by adding suffixes. Examples:

(a) -ful e.g. cheerful, joyful, fearful, hopeful

(b) -able e.g. amicable, likeable, dependable

(c) -ous e.g. generous, advantageous, generous

(d) -ish e.g. foolish, boyish, yellowish,

(e) -ible e.g. edible, credible, feasible

(f) -en e.g. wooden, golden,

(g) -less e.g. fearless, painless, spotless

(h) -tic e.g. chaotic, erotic,

(ii) We can modify most adjectives by “very”. Examples: very well, very pretty, very useful, very important.

(iii) All adjectives (apart from the proper adjectives) can take “-ly” ending to form an adverb, e.g.: peacefully, effectively, loudly, arrogantly.

(iv) We can compare adjectives in comparative (by adding -er) and superlative (by adding -est) degree. E.g.:

Positive Comparative Superlative

big bigger biggest

young younger youngest

beautiful more beautiful most beautiful

Comparison: She is taller than him

Superlative: She is the tallest girl in the class

However, there are other types of adjectives which do not follow the regular pattern above to show degrees, for example,

unique, round. There are also others referred to as non-gradable adjectives. Examples are:

good better best

bad worse worst

many more most (used for countable nouns e.g: Many girls)

much more most (used for uncountable nouns e.g: Much water)

FUNCTIONS AND TYPES OF ADJECTIVES

Some adjectives perform specific function in sentences where they are used. Adjectives can be named according to their functions. There are proper, common, possessive, etc. They are all explained below.

i. Proper Adjectives: are derived from personal names and are used to describe nouns. E.g.:

(Platonic) love (from the personal name – Plato);

(Caesarean) section (from the name Caesar) etc.

ii. Common Adjectives: This is an adjective used to qualify a common noun. Examples, of this include (lazy) girl, (broken) table etc.

iii. Possessive Adjectives: earlier we. Possessive adjectives are also words like his, her, my, our, their, etc. They show possession. A possessive adjective makes the meaning of

noun more definite. Examples:

a. This is (his) jacket.

b. These are (our) pens.

c. Ali has found (my) car.

iv. Demonstrative Adjectives: There are also some adjectives that point out nouns. Examples:

a. I like (this) tree.

b. I don't like (that) tree.

'This' and 'these' are used for things that are near. 'That' and 'those' are used for things that are further away.

'This' and 'that' go with singular count nouns while 'these' and 'those' are used with plural count nouns.

v. Interrogative Adjectives: These adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions. Examples:

a. (What) book are you studying?

b. (Which) car is yours?

c. (Whose) money was found?

vi. Numerical Adjectives: This type of adjective has to do with numbers. There are two types of this type of adjective namely Cardinal (one, two, three, etc.) and Ordinal (e.g.: first, second, third, etc.)

a. We have (five) houses in Ibadan.

b. I took (first) position in the exams.

vii. Distributive Adjectives: These adjectives are used to distribute the number of nouns they modify. E.g.: each, every, either, etc.

a. Every student is expected to be serious.

b. Each member of the team is expected to present a paper.

viii. Relative Adjectives: This is the kind of adjective that you use to modify a noun or pronoun that has already been mentioned in the same sentence. For example:

(a) This is the boy (whose) uniform was torn.

(b) The shoe (that) the cobbler made is bad.

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES:

More than one adjective can be used in describing a single noun or pronoun in a sentence. For example:

This is the (big) (bad) wolf.

Therefore, it is essential for you to know the proper arrangement of adjectives:

1. Adjective of size/shape: big, tall, round, triangular, etc

2. Adjective expressing facts: soft, hard, rough, tight, etc

3. Adjective expressing value/quality: beautiful, intelligent, good, etc

4. Adjective of colour: blue, yellow, gray, green, etc

5. Adjective of age: old, new, archaic, modern, etc
6. '-ing' adjective: interesting, disturbing, discouraging, etc
7. '-ed' adjective: beloved, disillusioned, fatigued, etc
8. Adjective of origin/nationality: Nigerian, Italian, American, etc
9. The Noun
for example:
 - a. The (tall) (intelligent) (young) (Nigerian) man won the prize.
 - b. The (soft) (gray) (Italian) belt has been stolen.

8. PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions are words that show relationships between nouns/pronouns and some other nouns/pronouns in sentences. Examples are: about, before, during, above, across, below, etc. In the sentences below, the words 'into' and 'past' show the relationship between 'I' and 'store' and between 'hawker' and 'store'

- a. I walked (into) the store.
- b. The hawker walked (past) the store.

TYPES OF PREPOSITION

There are two types of preposition. They are the simple and complex prepositions.

- i. Simple Preposition: These are single-word prepositions such

as in, at, beside, on, behind, into, against, outside, from, for, of, through, above, over, across, etc. Look at the sentences below:

a. He came (from) London.

b. The book (is) on the table.

ii. Complex Preposition: Is made up of a simple preposition followed by a noun and then followed by another simple preposition. Examples: in compliance with, in view of, in addition to, by means of, as a result: with regard to, etc.

Some other kinds of complex prepositions are made up of an adjective or an adverb or a conjunction followed by a simple preposition e.g. but for, except for, due to, because of, according to, as regards etc.

a. He did the work (in compliance) (with the boss directive).

b. I couldn't finish the work (due to the rain).

9. CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions are words that are used to join words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence. Examples: and, but, or, so, yet, either-or, neither-nor, that, who, whom, after, which, since, because, until, whenever, while, etc.

TYPES OF CONJUNCTIONS

The two types of conjunctions in English are: subordinating conjunction and coordinating conjunctions.

i. Subordinating Conjunctions (Subordinators): These are conjunctions you can use to introduce subordinate or dependent clauses and also connect them to the main clauses to form complex sentences. Examples are because, that, what, how, which, whose, if, wherever, etc.

a. I will give you the money, (if) you work for it.

b. A thief entered the house (because) nobody was in.

ii. Coordinating Conjunctions (Coordinators): Coordinating conjunctions are used to join or connect words, phrases or clauses that belong to the same grammatical class. You use coordinators to join two or more nouns, verbs, adjectives or clauses that have the same status. E.g.: but, or, so, yet, either-or, etc.

a. Johnson (and) Frederick are friends.

b. I want to see the director (or) his assistant.

10. INTERJECTIONS

Interjections are words that you can use to express different kinds of feelings or emotions like surprise, pain, shock, happiness, excitement etc. In writing, you indicate these feelings with exclamations mark (!). e.g.:

a. (Oh!) he died at last.

b. (Alas!) The journey was not interesting.

c.(Gosh!) He missed that goal.

d. (Eureka!) I have found my phone

LESSON NOTE 8(Do not write any comment to this post)

GRAMMATICAL UNIT - THE PHRASE (OR THE GROUP)

A phrase is a cluster of connected words that do not form a complete idea or sentence. It is a group of related words without a subject-verb relationship. In other words, a phrase is an expression consisting of one or more words forming a grammatical part of a sentence.

Another name for phrase is group. A phrase is used as a single part of speech in a sentence. Consider the sentence below.

The girls are working out in the garden.

The girls/are working/out in the garden.

Each section of this sentence is performing different roles in the sentence and therefore belongs to different classes.

“The girls” is a noun,

“out in the garden” is a prepositional,

“are working” is a verb.

But because each of the above parts of speech (noun,

preposition and verb) contains more than one word, they are referred to as phrases (noun phrase, prepositional phrase and verb phrase).

TYPES OF PHRASES

Phrases are classified according to their central-word or head-word. Phrases are named after a class of words which has a primary function within that class.

The different types of phrases are explained below:

i. Noun Phrase:

Noun phrase is a phrase in which the head or central word is a noun or a pronoun. Noun phrase can be formed by the combination of modifiers and nouns. E.g of noun phrase are the following:

The girl.

The little girl.

The man in the house

ii. Verb Phrase:

Verb phrase is formed by the combination of lexical (main) verb and auxiliary verb. E.g.: the words in the brackets are the verb phrases:

Bolade (will go) there.

Ali (should have gone) now.

Chika (is not reading) a novel.

iii. Adjectival Phrase:

An adjectival phrase is a group of related words headed by an adjective that modifies a noun/pronoun. Examples are:

He is (very wicked).

She was (almost correct).

The lady with the (big hat) is my wife.

iv. Adverbial Phrase:

An adverbial phrase is a group of words that is headed by an adverb that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb in a sentence. It can be formed by the combination of intensive adverbs and other types of adverbs. Examples:

The assignment was (very neatly) written.

She spoke (so fluently).

She is (so much) into prostitution.

v. Prepositional Phrase:

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that is headed by a preposition. There are two obligatory elements in a prepositional phrase: a preposition and a noun phrase.

Such phrases can function as adjectival, adverbial, complement of a verb, subject complement and adjunct. The bracketed expressions below are prepositional phrases:

The boy (on the field) is my grandson.

They eat (without meat).

We live (in that apartment).

vi. Appositive Phrase:

This is a phrase that gives more information about a noun or pronoun in a sentence.

You should not confuse appositive phrase with an adjectival phrase which modifies a noun. Rather than modify a noun, an appositive phrase presents the subject in the sentence in a different way. Appositive phrases are marked off by commas at the beginning and at the end, when used in a sentence.

Examples include:

Wole Soyinka, (the Nigerian writer), will be at the ceremony.

John, (my little son), is a hungry.

vii. Gerundive Phrase:

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

(Dancing) is not ungodly.

He needs (spanking).

They are accused of (spying).

The words in brackets all ending with –ing are gerunds.

A gerundive phrase is a group of words that is headed by a gerund. Gerundive phrase functions as subject of a verb, object of a verb, appositive to subject, adjective modifying nouns, pronouns and noun phrase, adverb modifying verbs.

E.g.:

- a. (Smoking in public places) is bad.
- b. (Eating well) lengthens life.
- c. He likes (playing with me).

viii. Infinitival Phrase:

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

(To stand) out among my equals is my aim in life. (Subject of the verb 'is')

We intend (to celebrate) our birthday in style. (Object of the verb 'intend')

LESSON NOTE 9 (Do not write any comment to this post)

GRAMMATICAL UNIT - THE CLAUSE

A clause is a group of related words having a subject and a finite verb. It is a grammatical unit that has at least a subject and a verb. A clause can stand alone as a sentence or use as part of a sentence

TYPES OF CLAUSES

There are two types of clause in English. They are the main clause and the dependent clause

i. Main Clauses:

All clauses cannot stand alone on their own. Those that

express complete thoughts and can stand on their own are called main clauses or independent clauses. They can also be called simple sentences when they stand on their own, E.g:

The boy is outside

The children are hiding behind the glass house

ii. Dependent Clauses:

These are clauses that cannot stand on their own because they do not express complete thoughts. They are also called subordinate clauses. This is because these clauses are usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions, such as if, unless, that, because, while, whereas, when, etc. For a subordinate clause to express complete thought, it needs a main clause.

In the examples below, the bracketed expressions are the dependent clauses and the others are main clauses.

Omo is serious (because she has a purpose).

They came (when we did not expect).

We love one another (as our God enjoins us).

(When he comes), I will send him out.

The man (who took my money) is here again

Functions of Subordinate Clauses:

Apart from using the criterion of meaning to classify clauses,

(independent and dependent clauses), we can also classify subordinate clauses based on the function they perform in sentences. Here, there are three types of subordinate clauses and they are:

1. NOUN CLAUSE:

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

(What I want to eat) is cooking right now (Subject of the verb "is cooking")

I won't read (what you wrote) (Object of the verb "won't read")

2. ADJECTIVAL CLAUSE:

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

The lady (who bought the shoes) is my mother. (Modifies the Noun "The lady")

She (who must be obeyed) has just arrived. (Modifies the pronoun "She")

3. ADVERBIAL CLAUSE:

Adverbial clause is a subordinate clause used as an adverb.

Adverbial clause modifies only the verbs in the main clause.

Example:

The babies screamed (when the masquerades appeared).

(The adverbial clause modifies the verb "Screamed")

TYPES OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES:

The different types of adverb clauses and what they modify are:

i. Adverbial Clause of Time:

This tells us when the action in the main clause is performed.

It answers the question "when"? Adverbial clause of time usually begins with: when, after, before, while etc. E.g.:

He was provoked (when she asked for a bribe).

(When I saw him), I was perplexed.

ii. Adverbial Clause of Place:

Adverbial clause is used to give information about where the action in the main clause occurred. It answers the question "where"? You can identify adverbial clause of place usually with: where and wherever. Examples:

Nobody knows (where Nigeria is heading to).

I am ready to sleep (wherever you give me).

iii. Adverbial Clause of Reason:

An adverbial clause of reason is used to give reason about why a verb in the main clause occurred. It answers the question "why"? You can identify adverbial clause of reason usually with: why, because, etc.

(Because I did well) they were happy.

She cried (because she was jilted).

iv. Adverbial Clause of Concession:

This adverbial clause is used to show contrast between the main clause and the subordinate clause. You can identify them with: although, though, even though, etc. E.g.:

(Although he read), he did not do well in the test.

(Even though I know it), I won't tell you

v. Adverbial Clause of Manner:

This clause provides information on how the verb in the main clause occurred. It answers the question "how"? They can be identified with: as how, how, as, as if, etc.

He talks (as if he knows everything).

She dances (as an insect does).

vi. Adverbial Clause of Condition:

This gives the condition under which the verb in the main clause will happen. Adverbial clause of condition can be

identified with: unless, if, except, provided, until, etc.

(Unless it rains), I won't go back home.

(If it you come home), She will be very glad.

LESSON NOTE 10 (Do not write any comment to this post)

GRAMMATICAL UNIT: THE SENTENCE

A sentence is a group of related words that expresses complete thought. A sentence can be identified by the use of three terminal punctuation marks; full stop (.), question mark (?) and exclamation mark (!).

I am going home.

Is that your car?

Wow, I love that!

PARTS OF A SENTENCE:

There are two parts to every sentence; the subject and the predicate.

1. THE SUBJECT:

The subject is that part of the sentence that performs the action of the verb. It is whom or what the sentence is talking about. We can have a simple or complete subject and compound subjects. A simple subject refers to the word or group of words which function as a noun. E.g.:

- a. (Ann) is my sister.
- b. (John) who slept in my car), stole my pen.
- c. (They) are sleeping

In the sentences above, “Ann” and “John” are nouns used as simple subjects. “They” is a pronoun used as simple subject.

Complete subject is used to refer to the noun/pronoun and everything that makes reference to them in carrying out the action of the verb in a clause. E.g.:

- a. (The boys who took your money) came here
- b. (The overused car) is there

A compound subject is used to describe the occurrence of two or more simple subjects doing the same verb in a sentence. E.g.:

- a. (The boys and the girls) danced all day.
- b. (My mother and I) will leave today

2. THE PREDICATE:

The predicate is that part of a clause that gives information about the subject. It is the remaining parts of the clause that are not the subject. It consists of the verb or verb phrase and other elements such as object and complement. Like a subject, the predicate can also be simple, complete or compound.

A simple predicate consists of only the key verb or verb phrase as in the sentence. E.g.:

- a. Mary (sings)
- b. Ali (came) over last night
- c. She (has been crying) all day

The complete predicate refers to the simple predicate and all the words in the clause that modifies it so as to make the meaning of the sentence complete. E.g.:

- a. Ali the black boy (ate the food)
- b. Salihu (danced all night)

c. He (has arrived already)

A compound predicate consists of two or more verbs or verb phrases which are joined together by a coordinating conjunction. E.g.:

a. The men (killed and cooked) the ram in the farm

b. She (will wash, scrub and cook) for you

Based on the identification of subjects and predicate, sentences in English can be split into these two categories: subject and predicate. See the examples below:

The little girl/ slapped the boy

The man who ran inside the room/ is a thief

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES:

A sentence can be classified in three ways:

(i) by its structure,

(ii) by its function and

(iii) by voice.

By structure, a sentence is classified as: simple, compound, complex and compound-complex. And by function, we have declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. By voice, we have active and passive voices.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES BY STRUCTURE

One traditional way of classifying sentences is by the number and types of finite clauses that are used in constructing the sentence. Types of sentences on the criterion of sentence structures are explained below:

i. Simple Sentence:

A simple sentence is made up of one independent clause with no dependent clauses. I.e., a simple sentence is equal to one independent or main clause. Examples:

The football match has ended.

The boys over there are playing along the road.

ii. Compound Sentence:

A compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses which are joined together with a coordinating conjunction. Examples:

The man gave her some money and she paid her school fees

There are two independent clauses in the sentence above:

"The man gave her some money" is one; "she paid her school fees" is the other. These two clauses are two simple sentences that are joined together with the conjunction "and".

The conjunction does not belong to any of the simple sentences; it simply joins two simple structures to form a compound sentence.

The conjunction used to join two or more main clauses together is called coordinating conjunction. Other coordinators are: but, and, or either. Another example of a compound sentence structure is:

The boys are not playing along the road nor are they throwing stones at moving cars

iii. Complex Sentence:

A complex sentence is made up of one or more main clauses added to one or more subordinate clause with a subordinating conjunction such as: if, unless, because, when, how, etc. E.g.:

The boys who threw stones at the moving cars are playing along the road.

iv. Compound-complex Sentence:

This is also called complex-compound sentence. It is made up of two or more independent clauses added to two or more dependent clause. Example: When the wind blew, the trees fell but it did not rain

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES BY FUNCTION

Sentences can also be classified based on their purpose or function. On the bases of this classification we have the following types of sentences:

i. Declarative Sentence:

A declarative sentence is used to commonly make statement.

A negative sentence can be used to deny a declarative sentence. E.g.:

I am going home.

I am not going home

ii. Interrogative Sentence:

An interrogative sentence is used to ask question to request information, e.g.:

When are you going to work?

iii. Exclamatory Sentence:

An exclamatory sentence is used to express feelings and other emotions. E.g.:

a. What a wonderful day this is!

b. Gosh! I am hungry!!!

iv. Imperative Sentence:

This is a sentence that is used to make a listener to do something. An imperative sentence performs two functions. One is to give command and the second to make polite request. E.g.:

Come and see me tomorrow morning. (command)

Please pass me the salt. (polite request)

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES BY VOICE

By voice, we have two types of sentences. They are the active sentence and the passive sentence.

Active Sentence

In a sentence using active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action expressed in the verb. That is, the subject is whatever does something. It can be a person, a place, a thing, or even an idea. Here are some examples, with the subject in brackets:

(The painter) painted the room in shades of dark colours

Every morning, (the sun) rises.

(The dog) bit the boy yesterday

(The tall woman) will brush her teeth.

(Your bravery) saved the town

Sentences in active voice are also more concise than those in passive voice because fewer words are required to express action in active voice than in passive.

Passive Sentence

In a sentence using passive voice, the subject is acted upon; he or she receives the action expressed by the verb. The agent performing the action may appear in a "by the..." phrase or may be omitted. Examples:

The room is painted in shades of dark colours (by the painter)

Yesterday, the boy was bitten (by the dog)

The town was saved (by your bravery)As you can see, the words in brackets can be omitted from the sentences and the sentences will still be grammatically meaningful.

Passive sentences are commonly used in scientific texts while active voice is used for most non-scientific writing. Using active voice for the majority of your sentences makes your meaning clear for readers, and keeps the sentences from becoming too complicated or wordy. Even in scientific writing, too much use of passive voice can cloud the meaning of your sentences. But when we need to report speech in which the doer of the verb action is unknown, the passive form of a sentence is more appropriate.

BASIC STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH SENTENCES

English sentences can take different patterning or structures such as SV, SVO, SVC, SVA, SVOO, SVOA, and SVOC. Where: S (subject), V (verb), O (object), C (Complement) and A (adjunct). We shall examine these elements in details. We have already examined Subject and Verb. We will focus on the others.

1. The SV Structure

Jane /dances

This sentence contains two obligatory elements; subject +

verb.

A sentence takes this structure when the finite verb in the clause is intransitive.

They/ are crying

She /has been running

2. The SVO Structure

Jane/ bought/ a dress

The above sentence has 3 obligatory elements; subject, verb and the object.

The type of verb used in a SVO structure is known as TRANSITIVE Verb. We /are copying/ notes

She /ate/ the food

3. The SVC Structure

Jane/ is / beautiful

Jane/ is /a dancer

Jane/ is/ outside

The SVC clause also has three obligatory elements; subject, verb and complement. The complement either describes the subject as in the first sentence above; or it identifies whom or what the subject is as seen in the second sentence above; or it tells us where the subject is as seen in the third sentence. The type of verb used in a SVC structure is known as an intensive

verb. It is also called a linking verb.

4. The SVA Structure

Jane/dances/well

Jane /sang /the song

Unlike the other structure have talked about, the SVA structure has three elements; subject, verb and adjunct, however, not all the elements are obligatory to complete the sense of the sentence within which they occur. Adjuncts are not obligatory elements; if you remove them, the sentences will still make complete sense.

5. The SVOO Structure

Jane /gave/ me/ the novel

The SVOO clause has 4 obligatory elements; Subject + Verb + Direct Object + Indirect Object. And because the verb requires two obligatory objects to complete its sense the verb is called DI-TRANSITIVE verb. The first obligatory object (not necessarily by position in the sentence), is called the Direct Object because it is directly affected by the action of the verb. While the second object is referred to as Indirect Object since the action of the verb only affects it indirectly. E.g.:

She/ bought /a carOD /for meOI

She/ bought /meOI / a carOD

(the OD means direct object while OI means indirect object)

6. The SVOC Structure

The people /elected/ him/ the governor

In this structure we have 4 elements; subject + verb + object + complement. The type of verb used in a SVOC structure is called a complex-transitive verb. This verb requires a combination of object and complement.

7. The SVOA Structure

The prisoner/ killed /the man/in the street

The SVOA structure has 4 obligatory elements; subject + verb + object + adjunct. The type of verb found in a SVOA structure is also called complex-transitive verb.

LESSON NOTE 11 (Do not write any comment to this post)

WRITING EXAMINATION ANSWERS

This is our last topic this semester. You will be writing examinations throughout your stay in school. Under this topic, we will focus on mechanics of writing examination answers.

The Language of Examination Questions and Answers

Success in tertiary education requires of students the ability to write effective examination answers which entail a good knowledge of the subject matter and discourse competence as well as knowledge of essential grammatical systems needed to express ideas in meaningful and well-constructed sentences.

A major problem of students is the failure to recognize the dynamics of instruction verbs as technical terms in examination discourse in English. Such instruction verbs

include words like: ' discuss, explain', describe, compare, contrast, argue, demonstrate, criticize, examine', etc.

The English essay is the main means of assessing learners in writing. It becomes necessary that students acquire the techniques of essay writing. What, then, are the major characteristics of the English essay writing for examination?

1. Clarity

The purpose of an essay should be made clear from the wording of the topic. The implication of this is for both teachers and students. For the teacher, questions must be clearly worded to eliminate ambiguity and vagueness. And for the students, they must analyse and understand the keywords in the questions they are about to answer. A good knowledge of how examination questions are worded is a pre-requisite for writing effective answers. Closely related to clarity is unnecessary repetition. When writing examination essays, you must avoid unnecessary repetition of ideas.

2. Relevance and Logical Development

Logic is also a highly desirable quality in an examination essays. There are two major forms of logical development found in the paragraph of essay. These are the inductive and deductive patterns. An essay written for examination must

also have a good introductory part, development or middle part, and a concluding part.

3. Sequential Order

A significant feature of the examination essay is linearity. Ideas must be organized in a linear or sequential order like a straight line from general to specific or specific to general. The organizing mechanism is the paragraph, that is, each idea should be examined in paragraphs. A sense of logical development of paragraphs will enable the student to present answers in an orderly manner.

WHAT TO AVOID

Written examination essays should NOT contain the following:

- a. Contractions (i.e. 'is not', would be used instead of 'isn't'; 'they have' instead of 'they've')
- b. Hesitation fillers (such as: 'er' 'em' 'well', 'you know' etc., which might be common in the spoken medium are avoided)
- c. Familiar abbreviations or informal style such as "becos", "u", "dis" "i.e." "e.g." etc.
- d. A number of phrasal or prepositional verbs which are more suitable or appropriate in an informal style. For example "well".

In summary, the principles of the written examination essay enumerated above may be related to the cooperative principle of Paul Grice (1975, 1978). These are related to writing examination answers as follows:

- a) Maxim of Quantity: make your answers as informative as required.
- b) Maxim of Quality; make your answers to be exact.
- c) Maxim of Relevance: make your answers relevant to the demand of the question
- d) Maxim of Manner: be orderly and clear in your answers.

Here are more 'key' words (instruction verbs) in examination questions with explanation for each.

- i. Compare: This requires an answer which presents items side by side and indicates their similarities and differences. A balanced answer is expected.
- ii. Contrast: This requires an answer which points out only the differences between two items.
- iii. Criticize: This requires an answer which points out mistakes and weaknesses and which also indicates any favourable aspects of the subject of question. It requires a balanced answer.
- iv. Define: This requires an answer which explains the precise

meaning of a concept.

v. Analyse: This requires an answer which takes apart an idea, concept or statement in order to consider all the factors it consists of.

vi. Evaluate: This requires an answer similar to 'Discuss' but the conclusion in this type is expected to make a judgment, either 'Pro' or 'contra' (for or against), the concept being discussed and evaluated.

vii. Justify: This requires an answer which gives only the reasons for a position or an argument.

viii. Summarise/Outline: This requires an answer which contains a summary of all the available information about a subject, i.e. only the main points and not the details.