COMPREHENSIVE

USE OF ENGLISH

AND

Basic Communication Skills

EKEMINI JOHNSON

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Dedication

This book is dedicated to all our students at the University of Calabar, Uyo City Polytechnic and Heritage Polytechnic.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT5

In addition to the authors and publishers of the books and articles listed among the books under references, we still owe the following persons deep gratitude for their contributions towards the success of this work. They include, the proprietor of Heritage Polytechnic, Engr. Emmanuel Ekott, the Permanent Secretary, Office of the Head of Service, Akwa Ibom State, Mr Michael Eyo, Engr. Emmanuel Ebong(Exxon/ Mobil).

We also acknowledge the support given us by our colleagues at the University of Calabar, Uyo City Polytechnic and Heritage Polytechnic.

We owe a deep sense of gratitude to all our friends, family members and associates including Mrs Nseabasi Bisong and Miss Sarah Williams for their comments and moral support.

Finally, we are particularly grateful to the Almighty God for the inspiration.

Ekemini and Maurice

Foreword

Comprehensive Use of English and Basic Communication Skills is both a reference and a practice text with a very wide coverage of areas in English language Studies. It provides practical and learning information on significant areas of the English language and its use as well as usages in both academic and general communication.

The text is particularly designed to meet the English lanugaue requirements for students in tertiary educational institutions such as Universities, Polytechnics, and Colleges of Education. It is indeed an important contribution to the few course texts available in the field. It is coming particularly at a time of growing concern about inadequate competence and performance level of students in the use of English in tertiary institutions in our environment.

In nine broad chapters, the authors have effectively addressed topical issues in the Use of English course and related areas in Communication Skills, ranging from the nature of Language itself, Study Skills, the Grammar and Mechanics of the English Language, to Composition and Summary, Library Skills, Research Methods with particular attention on the Term Paper, and Literary Appreciation as an important component of language use.

The book is comprehensive enough to meet the needs of academic examinations, particularly in the Use of English Courses. I therefore recommend it to all who want to develop in the Use of English Courses as well as those who really want to acquire basic communication skills whether in private or personal interactions on the one hand, and business or academic discourse on the other.

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October 2006

PREFACE

This, as the title clearly reveals, is a comprehensive textbook in the area of Use of English on the one hand and Basic Communication Skills on the other. The book covers nine broad chapters namely, An Overview of a Natural Language; Study Skills(Introductory Approach); Study Skills(Developing/ Acquiring Basic Language Skills); Study Skills(Using the Dictionary); Issues in the Grammar and the Mechanics of the English Language; Written Composition and Summary; Research Methods(Library Skills); Research Methods(The Term Paper); and Literary Appreciation.

The publication of this book is basically designed to address some of the problems encountered by students at the secondary school level as they prepare to transit to the tertiary level. Predominantly at the tertiary level students are confronted with the problems created by the academic gap during the said transition. Hence, there is an obvious need to bridge this gap to enable the students to cope with studies at this level and allay the presumed fears expressed by them.

This is done by introducing principles covering study skills ranging from notes taking, reading methods, using the dictionary to research methods. Issues in the grammar of the English language-the language of instruction in Nigeria and written composition have also been given due attention.

This does not in any way take away all the problems associated with this level. Useful comments and suggestions are therefore welcomed for the improvement of its future edition.

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AN OVERVIEW OF A NATURAL (HUMAN) LANGUAGE

Introduction

This chapter seeks to examine core issues associated with human language in terms of the nature and concept of language, its characteristics and the communicative roles of language. Other areas of interest to be examined are, the status of English language in Nigeria, possible problems of studying English in Nigeria, varieties of English, the domestication of English in Nigeria, etc.

1.1 The Nature and Concept of Language

In his attempt to define language, it is the view of Gimson (1980:4-5) that language is 'a system of conventional signals used for communication by a whole community. This pattern of conventions covers a system of significant sound units, the inflection and arrangement of words and the association of meaning with words.' In this respect, any language which is spoken by a group of human beings anywhere in the world (being a particular speech community), is a natural language unlike a language which is invented such as the computer language (with symbols and notational systems for communication within the discipline).

Still in an attempt to explore the nature of language, it has been strongly argued by Lyons (1990:2) as quoted in Eka and Udofot (1996:5) that:

there are other systems of communication which can be described as natural but which do not qualify to be called languages in the strict sense of the word. These include, 'Sign language', body language

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there are other systems of communication which can be described as natural but which do not qualify to be called languages in the strict sense of the word. These include, 'Sign language', body language

and the language used by animals like the chimpanzee and insects like bees. Though body gestures like wave of the hand, an embrace, clapping of hands, a handshake, a nod of the head can communicate on their own without vocal accompaniments, they cannot be called language in any strict sense.

It can also be added that languages which are invented or created from existing natural languages for communication such as 'Esperanto' and 'Wazobia' are artificial languages.

1.2   Characteristics of a Natural Language

A natural language can be described or identified based on the following characteristics:

(i)   **Language is dual in nature** - being that its transmission is by means of audible sound waves and visible marks on a surface.

(ii)   Language is culture bound - as people express their emotions and feeling through language and express their culture through their agreed signs and codes.

(iii) Language is arbitrary in nature - in this respect, there is no clear relationship between an object and the name it is being called or between sound and meaning.

(iv)   Language is conventional in nature – since there exists some form of unwritten agreement or convention about the way the language is to be used.

(v)   Language is non instinctive - being a learned behaviour or activity, acquired and not inherited.

(vi)   **Language is a peculiarly human behaviour** -though there are animal signs and computer language. In this respect, the speech of human beings is more elaborate and systematic to be studied.

(vii) **Pattern Congruity** - this implies that language is an organized system which is established by the different rules that govern the combination of sounds, words, sentences and long

structures.

(viii) **Versatility** - human language is versatile enough to express every aspect of human behaviour, that is why language has become a very strong instrument of communication (Ogbulogo, 2004:26)

1.3   The Communicative Roles of Language

Generally viewed, language is used as a medium of communication since it is the tool with which speech communities exchange ideas and express emotions but the roles or functions of language can further be viewed in the following ways:

(i)   **Informational Role**

Language serves as a major means of exchanging information in form of messages with which people shape their views.

(ii)   **Expressive Role**

Language is used to express emotions and feelings towards others.

(iii) **Phatic Role**

This is seen in the promotion of relationships with others in terms of social functions and greetings.

(iv)   **Performative Role**

Closely followed by phatic role is the performative role which ensures that certain functions which cause a given change in the state of affairs of people generally in form of pronouncement like sentencing, wedding, etc. take place. Language therefore plays an important role in the socialization process as well as helping people to establish ethics and norms that are used to organize society.

(v)   **Directive Role**

This could be in terms of influencing the behaviour of people by giving orders, instructions, suggestions, etc.

1.4 English Language and the Nigerian Situation: A Historical Perspective

Many scholars have made tremendous contributions in their attempt to explore the gradual emergence of English language in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular as an official language based on historical antecedents. On their part, Akindele and Adegbite (1999:58) have argued that:

> before the incursion of the Europeans into various African states, a kaleidoscopic linguistic diversity was already in existence... the genesis of the use of English dates back to the early nineteenth century when freed slaves of Nigerian origin returned to Nigeria sequel to the abolition of slave trade. Many of the freed slaves had received formal education from abroad. Those among them who had Christian orientation proved useful as translators or interpreters in Christian Evangelization during the early missionary period... some indigenes were able to learn and use the language after which they became catechists and teachers in the mission schools. Later the British colonized Nigeria and used their language English for administration. English became prominent in the educational system and was used for official purposes. It then became elitist symbol, used by a few privileged Nigerians who were civil servants and who served as models for no less enthusiastic indigenes who sought after formal education.

This state of affairs or position notwithstanding, the use of English in Nigeria survived the departure of the colonial administrators as the language of administration. Apart from the activities of the

ssionaries who brought English to Africa as a continent and Nigeria a country, other factors prior to this period also contributed nificantly. After the building of the first English port in 1831 or Gold Coast, by the Portuguese, they later got to Nigeria through Slave Coast which also allowed the English language to see the t of the Nigerian soil.

It is also relevant to note that the industrial revolution that rted in Europe in 1750 has also contributed since it brought the tish and the Portuguese to Africa to market their finished goods. r business transactions between the African and European rchants to thrive, English was introduced as a medium of mmunication. As further cited in Akindele and Adegbite 999:60)

> Africans transacted business with European merchants and since this transaction could not be done in a vacuum, they established gradually a medium of communication in English. There was the necessity to produce middle-level manpower in Nigeria in order to facilitate and maximize gains. Consequently the very shrewd Nigerian - Efik traders sent their children to England to learn English and elementary book - keeping. People were employed as interpreters, tax collectors, consular police, cooks and guards. The enormous advantage these had over the other natives created a knd of awareness that made the indigenes want to improve their status in the acquisition of the English language. This of course marked the starting point of the status symbol marker that the English language is today.

It is a known fact that apart from the above claims English nguage was also introduced to this part of the world through the

abolition of trans - Atlantic slave trade in 1883 as thousands of slave were taken to the plantations in America and West Indies whereby they were later trained in order to communicate with their English masters and fellow slaves. Later, majority of the slaves with reasonable competence in English were brought back to Africa and settled in Freetown whereby most of them made Freetown their home built evening schools to train people in English and therefore assiste in increasing the attention English language has enjoyed or gained in Nigeria and the continent.

1.5 The Status of English and Its Uses in Nigeria

English language can be seen as a 'Second Language', an 'Official Language' and even a' Lingua Franca' in Nigeria in terms of status.

A second language (L2) is the next language of acquisition by a bilingual person. This implies that after the first language of acquisition which is basically the speaker's mother tongue (L1) the next language acquired by that speaker is the second language. In Nigeria apart from recent changes in educational policies this still applies to the generality of Nigerians who acquire English as a second language after the acquisition of their mother tongues especially the ones born and bred in Nigeria.

On the other hand, an official language is a language used by the government for the conduct of business in the civil service, law commerce and education and in all other official functions.

On its part a lingua franca is a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication between them. It therefore serves as a language of inter — ethnic communication and mass-oriented whereby, it is being used by all the sectors of the linguistic community in which it operates English language is seen as having the necessary facilities to fit into the above concepts.

Considering the status of English language in Nigeria, the

following uses or functions are obvious.

(i)   Owing largely to the large number of English speakers, English has gradually become a world language as it is seen to be performing different International functions. It therefore serves as a link between people of multilingual societies of Africa and the outside world thus becoming the language of International politics, trade and sports. Nigeria has no other language apart from English for taking part in the deliberations.

(ii)   English is the language with which the government conducts its business though participating meaningfully affects mostly the literate class in Nigeria.

(iii)   To partly solve the problem of National language English ensures political stability in Nigeria since it has become a neutral language that has served various national official purposes rather than allowing a particular indigenous language to play a domineering role.

(iv)   The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria has made proficiency in English a kind of requirement for one to be involved in the business of the parliament, the bench and bar, civil service, social functions, economic activities, political activities, education, etc. There is therefore an overwhelming need for Nigerians to ensure a good mastery of English language since it is not only used by virtually all sections of our society but also globally which Nigeria is a bona fide part of in order to secure a meaningful and favourable link with the outside world.

1.6 A Brief History of the English Language

It has been established that English, German, Dutch, Norwegian, and even Danish belong to the Germanic group of

languages as they are derived from the same original tongue. All of these tongues were developed from a primitive language spoken in prehistoric times by the early Germanic tribes (Pink and Thomas, 1981:1). In the same vein, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, etc. (called Romans), are the offspring of Latin, which was one of the Italic family.

Moreover, Irish, Welsh, Scots, Gaelic, Manx, and Breton belong to the Celtic group while Russian, Polish, Serbian, etc, belong to the Slavonic group. There is need to mention that before the present day English Language, there existed the old English (i.e., the language spoken in England before the Norman Conquest) which differed immensely from the present language in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. One can therefore understand why a passage of English written in the time of king Alfred is unintelligible to a modern reader since old English like Latin and Greek, had a complicated system of inflexions-being nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. and had different forms according to their grammatical relationship. In terms of pronunciation, this strictly applies to the spoken language which has witnessed great transformation as seen through the contributions of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) and scholars that have presented various systems of transcription like Daniel Jones, Halliday, Gimson, Abercrombie, etc.

A close look at the grammar of the English Language will reveal that most of the old English inflexions have disappeared and the grammatical machinery has been greatly simplified. Considering its vocabulary, significant additions to vocabulary have been made through the influence of invaders who have settled in England (Danes and Normans) and through borrowing from literary sources-especially Latin and Greek. The vocabulary can now be given greater attention.

1.6.1 Latin Influence on English Vocabulary

When the Germanic tribes came in contact with the outpost of Roman Civilization, they borrowed a few words which are still to be found in the different branches of the Germanic group of languages such as:

Street (Latin — Strata Via).

Moreover when the English tribes came in contact with a people (the Britons) that had for long been part of the Roman Empire, since the educated population of the British towns spoke a form of Latin, a large number of Latin words which were in use among them passed into the language of the new conquerors though the Latin spoken in Britain had undergone..a reasonable modification as in:

Provost (old English — prafost, Latin — Praepositus).

In addition to this when Christianity was introduced to the English through the Roman missionaries, with the spread of the religion, the English language adopted a large number of Latin words to express new ideas connected with the faith as in:

Pope (Latin - PaPa).

Finally, since the Revival of learning in the sixteenth century (which brought about a wide study of Latin and Greek literature), Latin words have been reasonably borrowed from literary language and such words later passed from one language to another with little change in form.

1.6.2 Scandinavian Influence on English Vocabulary

There were raids made by the Danes upon the English coast from the end of the eighth century to the time of Alfred whereby, Mercia and the Southern part of Northumbria were invaded and settled by them. The invaders were later defeated by Alfred and they retired to East Anglia and settled there. A century later the Danish king Savein invaded England and his son Cnut became king of the English. The Danish settlement brought significant influence on English language

as many words were borrowed by the English. Among them are:
Skin, Skill, ill, get, leg, etc.

1.6.3 French Influence on English Vocabulary

It is interesting to note that the French influence on English is indirectly Latin influence since the French language is derived from Latin. This notwithstanding, after the Norman conquest the French language as spoken by the Normans, was the tongue of the ruling classes in the English territory and was also used largely by Englishmen. It is also pertinent to mention that, from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century much French literature was translated into English. In the process, a good number of French works were incorporated in English language as presented below:

(i)   Master, servant, dinner, banquet (connected with household).
(ii) Duke, Marquis, Viscount, baron (Titles) among others.

Notably, the Norman conquerors of England spoke the French dialect of Normandy and Picardy. In this case, when the Angevin dynasty came to the throne of England in the twelfth century, the dialect of central France became the language of the court, and the incorporation of French words in English continued though many words were borrowed twice, first from one dialect and then to the other as in:

Catch — chase; warden — guardian; etc.

Finally, during the reign of Charles 11 there was close intimacy between the English and the French courts, and a knowledge of French language and literature was appreciated in England. Many French words thereby passed into English as we have in:
Campaign, memoir, prestige, etc.

1.6.4 Greek Influence on English Vocabulary

With regard to the influence Greek has exerted on English language, it is argued by Pink and Thomas (1981 :4) that:

> *the Greek element in the English language is chiefly of modern origin and is used mainly to express scientific ideas. New words from this source are constantly being introduced because it is very easy to coin words from Greek roots - telegraph, philology, geology, gramophone, cybernetics etc.*

In view of the above claims, it can be argued that the mixed nature of the English vocabulary has a seeming effect on the language itself and its users. The language has been greatly improved by its borrowings from other tongues and thereby tends to surpass other languages in its wealth of synonyms and in its power of drawing precise and subtle distinctions as one often has a choice between a native English word and a synonym of Latin or French origin as:

Almighty	-	omnipotent
Blessing	-	benediction
Bloom	-	flower
Calling	-	vocabulary etc.

1.6.5 English Alphabet and English Spelling

Letters of the alphabet are used to represent sounds of spoken language in writing through symbols. In an ideal situation, every letter would be a phonetic symbol representing one sound. This standard is applied in the assessment of the English alphabet. It certainly means that the English alphabet is defective since the language does not have enough symbols to represent all the sounds. In this respect, the same symbol may represent different sounds as in:

'a' in Pat, cat, rank, want, etc.

Moreover, the same sound may be represented by various symbols as in:

[I] — hit, nymph, women, sieve, etc.

At this juncture one can rightly say that English spelling is phonetic (especially the modern English spelling) in view of deficiencies of the English alphabet since it does not accurately consistently represent the sounds of speech. On this note it is observation of Pink and Thomas (1981 :5) that' the spelling of English was very nearly phonetic'.

The defect already pointed out can possibly be attribute the modern spelling which was fixed in the fifteenth century w thereby represents the pronunciation of that century. Notably, be then the scribes did not observe uniformity in terms of spelling with the invention of printing which brought about the multiplica of books, there was the need to have a defiinite system. Lac correspondence between the written word and the spoken sour also largely due to the fact that English pronunciation has underg many changes over a period of time without losing sight of anomalies that existed previous to this period or about the fifte century. This was as a result of the introduction of symbols by French scribes from their own language to represent English sou which brought about the use of 'c' for 's' in city, mice, etc. They attempted to make the spelling of certain words to indicate t etymology as seen in the Norman - French words like 'dette' 'doute' as earlier introduced but later written 'debt' and 'doubt order to show their connection with the Latin 'debitum' and 'dubit though the 'b' has never been pronounced. It can therefore be sai this point that the peculiar nature of the English language due to historical antecedents has contributed largely to the difficult na of the language especially to a learner speaker of the language.

1.7   Varieties of English

There is an overwhelming need for one to know what forms of language are appropriate for given situations. Issues that constitute varieties are hereby examined under the following sub-headings.

1.7.1 Geographical and National Varieties

It is possible to find in many dictionaries instances of 'variety' labels' like: 'AME' for American English; 'RP' for Received Pronunciation, etc. These labels are reminders that English. language is, in a sense not a single language but many languages, each of which belongs to a particular kind of situation. In this respect, the English used in the United States is somewhat different from the English used in Great Britain and the English used in formal written communications is in some ways different from the English used in informal conversation. English is no doubt spoken as a native language by millions of people in the United States of America, Britain, Canada, Ireland, Australia, the Caribbean and many other places. It is also obvious that the varieties used in the United States and in Britain are the most important in terms of population and influence which makes it more interesting to pay attention to these two varieties in this discourse in terms of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Table 1 highlights the differences in terms of grammar.

Table 1:   The Grammatical Differences between American
English and British English.

S/N	American English (AmE)	British English (BrE)
I	Have you *gotten/got* the new notes?	Have you *got* new notes?
2	Their car is different *than* ours	Their car is different *from* ours
3	They suggested that Ndifreke *be* dropped from the team	They suggested that Ndi-freke *should be* dropped from the team

From the above examples, one can see in the first set that ArnE has two past participle forms of get: *gotten and* got, while BrE has only one: *'got'*, though the past tense form is 'got' in both varieties. In the same vein, the second example reveals that AmE accepts the complement 'than' after different while 'from' is used in BrE. In the third example. the use of the subjunctive after verbs like demand. require, insist, suggest, etc. is more common in 'AmE' than 'BrE' where the construction is restricted to rather formal contexts. Differences in terms of spelling and pronunciation are examined through table 2.

Table 2: Differences in Terms of Spelling and Pronunciation

S/N	Distinctive Groups	AmE	BrE
i	or / our group	color honor	colour honour
ii	er / re	Fiber center	fibre centre
iii	Single/Double Consonant	traveler wagon	traveller waggon
iv	s/c	defense offense	defence offence
v	e / ae	anesthesia esthetic medieval	anaesthesia aesthetic mediaeval
vi	Ck/ que / i/y/	check cipher	cheque cypher
vii	Sk /ʃ, dʒ/dj	schedule /'skedʒu:lʃ	schedule /'ʃedju:l /

Still on the issue of spelling, it is the view of Eka, 1999:72 that:

American English has over the years been so moulded by sociological and environmental conditions that it has acquired a distinctiveness of its own... the differences in written English that the student is likely to encounter are relatively few and unlikely to cause any problem of comprehension. Both forms of spelling are acceptable but the rule is to be consistent within any given piece of writing.

The above reasoning implies that a formal 'AmE' variant form of usage does not constitute error though there is need for consistency within the same language system. In the area of vocabulary, one will still see differences as shown in table 3.

Table 3: Differences Arising from Words Used in AmE and BrE

AmE	BrE
Fog - light	Fog - lamp
Driver's license	Driving licence
Car truck	Car boot
Windshield	Windscreen
Side mirror	Wing mirror
Thermos	Flask
Flashlight	Torch (light)
Gas	Petrol
Truck	Lorry
Mouse pad	Mouse mat
Bulletin board	Notice board
Airplane	Airoplane
Hood	Bonnet

'Apart from the aforementioned differences in 'AmE' and 'BrE' there exist other aspects of differences in terms of punctuation and dates, as illustrated below:

" " (double quotation mark) in AmE
' ' (Single quotation mark) in BrE

With regard to dates, in AmE, it is the month that appears first while the day appears first in BrE as shown below.

October 10, 2006 (AmE)
10 October, 2006 (BrE)

1.7.2 Written and Spoken English

According to Leech and Svartvik, 1986: 23 'the English of speech tends to be different from the English of writing in some fairly obvious ways.' It is possible to use hesitation fillers in speech or lose track of our sentence or mix up one grammatical construction with another but highly reduced in writing. The grammar of spoken sentences is generally simpler and less strictly constructed than the grammar of written sentences.

1.7.3 Formal and Informal English

Formal language is the type of language we use publicly for some serious purpose as in official reports, business letters, etc.

Formal English is nearly always written though it is exceptionally used in speech (formal public speech). Informal language is somewhat colloquial since it is the language of private conversation. It is the first type of language that a native-speaking child becomes familiar with. Since it is generally easier to understand than formal English it is often used in public communication of a

popular kind such as in advertisement (Leech and Svartvik, 1986: 24).

Examples: Informal	-	Formal
Dad	-	Father
Death	-	Demise, decease
Job	-	Employment

Moreover, formal written language is always used with an impersonal style being that the person using the language does not refer directly to himself thereby avoiding the pronouns **'I'**, **'You'**, and **'We.'**

1.7.4 Polite and Familiar Language

One appears to be more polite when one is talking to a person one does not know well or an elderly person in terms of age and social position. It also depends on circumstances of usage or the context of communication.

Examples:

(1) Switch off the light, will you? (familiar)

(2)   Would you please switch off the light? (polite)

It should however be noted that, if one is trying to be familiar in wrong circumstances, it raises the question of impoliteness.

1.7.5 Tactful and Tentative Language

To be tactful is to avoid causing offence or distress to someone. It could also mean disgusting or covering up the truth. Tentativeness here which is closely related to tactful language is an indication of the speaker's reluctance to commit herself.

Example:
May I suggest that we suspend the lecture? (tactful)

1.7.6 Literary, Elevated or Rhetorical Language

The literary or elevated language can be used by a writer or public speaker mostly to impress the listening or reading audience by the solemnity or seriousness of the message. The Rhetorical variety signifies a stylized use of language whether in speech or writing as it is consciously chosen for an emphatic or emotive effect. A 'rhetorical question' is meant to be interpreted as an emphatic statement which is in the form of a question but does not demand an answer

Example:
Is it any wonder that public office holders are mistrusted? Notably, it is no wonder that they are.

For one to be prolific or have a good level of mastery in the English Language, one should see these varieties as levels of usage and pay greater attention to the appropriate context of communication.

1.8 The Domestication of English in Nigeria

In an attempt to explain what domestication of English in Nigeria involves, Adegbija (2004:20) has reasoned that:

the term 'domestication', in the context of English in Nigeria, connotes 'home-grown', 'made native', 'adapted and tamed to suit the Nigerian environment.'. We may also apply the terms 'acculturation,' 'nativisation' or 'indigenisation' with the same sense. There is a sense, therefore, in which domestication implies that English has become Nigeria's property. We have adapted it for home use and made it applicable to our numerous conveniences,

experiences, nuances and sensibilities. We may then say that English in Nigeria has been given Nigerian citizenship.

It is reasonable to argue that 'Nigerian English' evolves from domestication even though many scholars including Brann (1975) and Prator (1968) as cited in Adegbija (2004:21) have argued that features which constitute Nigerian English simply account for deviations from standard British English. Other scholars like Adetugbo (1987) and Banjo(1995) asset that Nigerian English exists and has numerous sociological sub-types, with the standard sub-variety being the most prestigious.

1.8.1 An Examination of What Has Given Rise to the Domestication of English in Nigeria

The domestication of English in Nigeria has occurred as a natural response to yawning linguistic and socio-cultural needs. In this respect there is the day-to-day contact of English with many indigenous languages thereby creating the need for new ideas and modes of thought to be expressed in new ways that are not available in the variety.

In addition to the above factors, where English does not have the required expressions and nuances, the compelling urge to communicate often results in peculiar expressions that are quite apt for the Nigerian context. In yet another contribution, it is the reasoning of Adekunle (1979:39) that:

English has come to a new ethno linguistic environment and its contact with local languages and speech habits, its use to project local customs and traditions, has naturally resulted in its being assimilated into the local culture and being given a local colour.

Since language is not a linguistic Island, it therefore means that it must react and adapt to the new social and linguistic environment. Additional factors that are responsible for domestication as cited in Adegbija (1989) include:

> the indomitable, pervasive and omnipresent media influence, either in bringing entirely new words into existence or in establishing and confirming them. Examples are 'bottom power' (favours obtained by a woman via her fertninity or the granting of sexual favours); 'national cake' (assets, rights and privileges to which Nigerian citizens consider themselves entitkd) etc. the standardization of idiosyncrasies and errors: referring to cases in which a striking usage gains legitimacy, national respect, attention and admiration. Due to the importance of the user or the topicality of the context of usage, the term can gain acceptance as a stan dard Nigerian Enghsh term. Ready examples are, 'a man of timber and calibre attributable to, Mbadiwe, a famous Nigerian politician. Trouble-shooter' is used in reference to who foments trouble, rather than the original English sense of someone who prevents trouble from occurring or shoots at trouble. The third reason is the predominantly formal character of the English taught in Nigeria which has made English in Nigeria rather bookish, formal or sometimes affected Consequently, 'big words' or 'jaw breaking words' are seen as symbols of erudition and knowkdge.

It has at this point been established that there exists domestication or there is a separate variety of English known as Nigerian English (with

divergent views on either treating it as a distinct variety or as a deviation from the standard British English).The next task is to recognize some of the outstanding features of domestication. These features are categorized into lexical, grammatical, phonological and idiomatic levels as discussed below.

1.8.1.1   Lexical Features of Domestication

Lexical features involve words in the language. As rightly claimed by Adegbija(2004:23) such features include:

> Coinages or neologisms: where new terms are created for new experiences e.g. chewing stick, cash madam, senior brother, co-wife, go-slow: Analogisation: formation of words on the basis of the pattern of an existing word or pattern in English e.g. decampee; Direct translation or transliteration: formed by the direct translation or transliteration of an expression from the indigenous languages into English; Transfer: of culture, sense or meaning from the native language into English, or reinterpretation or extension of an existing meaning in English to cover new areas of experience in Nigerian English. E.g. 'well done'said to someone passing by and not engaged in any work...

From the above features, it is possible to see new expressions being used in Nigeria to give Nigerian English its unique or idiosyncratic flavour.

1.8.1.2   Grammatical Features

In the area of grammar, it is cited in Jowitt(1991 :115) that popular Nigerian English frequently puts non-prepositional verbs into the prepositional sub-class and vice versa as follows:

1	Prepositional in SBE	Non-prepositional in PNE
	e.g. dispose of,	dispose; you should dispose your car...
	reply to	reply: reply my letter...

2 Non prepositional in SBE

SBE Verb	Prepositions are added
Advocate	for: they advocated *for* a new libary
Comprise	of: the library comprises *of* many sections.
Discuss	about: they discussed about many problems.

The above examples indicate that, where there should be no prepositions added to verbs, it is possible to have the reverse in Nigerian English including verbs like demand, emphasize, lack, order, request, etc. which do not require prepositions in standard British English. Wrong syntactic structure is not left out as it is possible to have the structure:

This	my	car
Demonstrative	possessive	Noun (NE)

Instead of:

This	car of	mine
Demonstrative	Noun	possessive (BrE)

The above features are rather common in most varieties of Nigerian English and not in all.

1.8.1.3 Phonological Features

There are observable domesticated features in terms of pronunciation. This affects intonation, length of the sound considering

vowel sound, voicing, consonant clusters, etc. This has been reasonably examined by Jowitt (1991).

1.8.1.4 Idiomatic Features

The idiomatic features are in terms of coining entirely new idioms just like the lexical elements as in 'to be put in the family way', 'put to bed', 'take light', 'big boys', etc. These examples do not really exist in standard British English.

1.8.2 Varieties of Nigerian English

Different scholars have made meaningful contributions in the area of classifying the varieties of English in Nigeria. They include Banjo(1979), Jowitt(1991) and Adekunle(1979). Adekunle. (1979) on his part has identified three varieties:

the first is the **near-native** variety, spoken by well-educated Nigerians.

the second is the **'local colour** variety' which is attributable to English finding itseff in a new ethno linguistic environment.

the third variety is the **incipient bilingual** variety which relies more on transliteration and is characterized by deviations from English syntactic structures.

Since there exist in Nigeria, varieties of English, it therefore goes without saying that, English is undergoing shades of domestication. These varieties of Nigerian English should be seen as a continuum ranging from **acrolectal Nigerian English** (standard Nigerian English), marked by medium local! social acceptability and medium high-national acceptability; and **basilectal Nigerian English** marked by sub-standard or non -standard features (Awonusi,1987).

It is no doubt the argument of Jibril (1982) and Udofot (1997) that in the light of the realities of the Nigerian society, spoken English at times is not a correlate of educational status. On this note, the two contributors further reclassify the varieties of spoken Nigerian English in table 4 thus:

Table 4: Spoken Nigerian English: A Varieties Reclassification of Variaties

Varieties	Exponents	Features
Variety one (non-standard	Primary and secondary school leavers	inability to make vital phonemic distinctions
	University freshmen	high incidence of irr-elevant pausing
	Some second year university undergra-duates	tendency to accent nearly every syllable
	Holders of OND and NCE Primary school teachers	preference for the falling tone
Variety two (standard)	Third and final year undergraduates	ability to make some vital phonemic dis-tinctions and occa-sional approximations
	University graduates University and College lecturers and other professionals	reasonably afluent speech
	Secondary school teachers of English Holders of HND	many prominent syllables preference for unidirectional tones (the fall and the rise)
Variety Three (sophiscated	University lecturers in English and linguistics Graduates of English and Humanities. Those who have lived in mother tongue areas	ability to make all phonemic distinctitions fluent speech and a few extra prominent syllables use flexible use of intonation

From the above varieties, one moves towards the ladder of quality from variety two, the standard variety, to variety three, the sophisticated variety, which though close to British English, has been

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shown to be significantly different especially when one considers the non-segmental features. In the light of this, there is need to strive towards having a standard variety of Nigerian English.

1.8.2.1   Standard Nigerian English

On the need for a standard Nigerian English, it is the reasoning of Adegbija (2004) that:

> while many linguistic features that have been domesticated can pass the candidacy test of the 'English Language in Nigeria', not every item of English used in Nigeria is passable as 'Nigerian English'. Put differently, while every Nigerian and every social group is free to domesticate and speak of English as desirable, every single variety of English cannot be referred to as Nigerian English which identifies Nigeria and implies an emerging endonormative model or concrete internal norm development.

The same scholar has further argued that, people who utter expressions like:

i   can you please off the light?

ii   how work?

iii   small by small, the small man became a big man through hard work, etc.

may not qualify as candidates for standard Nigerian English.

It is therefore possible that the qualification or non qualification of a given linguistic item to signal domestication of English in Nigeria could be based on reasons like:

(i)   being intelligible but not grammatical.

(ii)   being locally intelligible but not internationally intelligible;

(iii)   being socially unacceptable as it appears to be hyper-correct;

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(iv)   being locally intelligible but internationally unacceptable

From the above points, it is a challenging fact to note that, international intelligibility is quite significant in determining a standard local norm but, it should not be allowed to thrive to the detriment of local considerations which are sociolinguistically realistic. In this sense, an expression like, 'a man of timber and caliber' may be internationally unintelligible but is not only considered both locally intelligible and acceptable, but reasonably perfect in describing people of tremendous influence and authority within the Nigerian setting. It is in the light of this that Adegbija (2004:34) opines that a standard norm in a non-native context among the different varieties of domesticated Englishes, should be marked by several features including the following:

> absence of regional pairing or stigmatization;
> it should be largely internationally intelligible;
> it should be socially determined rather than imposed by authority or legislation;
> a standard model should have earned some measure of high status and social prestige. A stigmatized, unrespected, laughed at or low status variety of English will most likely not effectively function as a standard variety;
> It should be at a very high point of the continuum of intelligibility;
> It should be advertised itself in items of codification, development of literature and functional salience.

For there to be a standard variety of English among the different domesticated varieties of English in Nigeria, there is need to have a model for the standard based on notable properties. Various scholars have made different inputs in this regard. In her contribution, Udofot (2004:111) remarks:

> we suggest variety two, our standard variety which is at present being taught in schools since it is the variety spoken by most educated Nigerians including the teachers who teach at the pritnary, secondary and even at the university levels as the model.

It is the feeling of the above author that the model should merely be seen as satisfying specialized training in the phonology of English as Banjo's variety three demands. Udofot goes further to criticize this model by observing that, 'it should therefore not be the model to be taught and examined in Nigerian schools because there may not be enough teachers and examiners who speak it themselves'.

On his part, Adegbija (2004:35) differs with Udofot on the model that should serve as a standard variety through the excerpt below.

> while some scholars suggest that the secondary school student is the model for the standard. others suggest the university student. l am myself tempted to suggest the NTA News English as the model for a standard variety. This is because in a sense, it is the variety of the educated; it is readily accessible to most speakers of English; it is daily heard, and it is perceptually salient at the national level

The above source sees the NTA news English from the linguistic perspective as having features that are both locally acceptable and internationally intelligible. It is therefore reasonable to remark that whatever model is adopted, there is the need to step up the pace of codification on the one hand and to have well coordinated standardization efforts by stakeholders on the other. Moreover, the social ecology that engulfs English language in Nigeria should be tackled since it is still seen as a minority language(spoken by minority literate population against the largely non-literate Nigerian

population) among other considerations.

In conclusion, one is significantly encouraged to accept the fact that there is a Nigerian variety of English or there are varieties of English used in Nigeria, brought about by domestication even though an acceptable and agreed standard variety is yet to emerge through an agreed or acceptable model. It is also reasonable to state here that, while the domestication process continues, English should not be allowed to function wrongly. In this respect, its functions in terms of official mandate both constitutionally and in practice, language of education, media, law, etc.(Nationally) and Internationally as the language of information dissemination, sports, entertainment, culture and arts, science and technology, etc. should be strictly defended and protected to give such domestication both local and foreign relevance.

1.9   Possible Problems Associated with English Language Learning and Usage in Nigeria

1.9.1 Preliminary Remarks

It is now generally known that English has spread to nearly all parts of the world. It started off as the first language (Mother Tongue or L1) of a large number of users in Britain, and America and has, additionally, become the second, foreign or alternate language in many other parts of the globe (Eka, 1994:9). Undoubtedly, English spread to Nigeria through missionaries and explorers as early as 1842 although English-based pidgin is known to have been in use even by the 16th century. Today English functions in Nigeria both as a second language (L2) and an official language. Without belabouring the issue to the extent of oversimplifying, it serves one to note that, the term 'L2' is both technical and linguistic as it is seen as a situation whereby a language is learnt after the acquisition of an L1-being the mother tongue. On the other hand, a language is considered to have an official

status when it is used in different formal situations and particularly for the dissemination of information by different government organs. This is the case with English in Nigeria. Without making a mountain out of molehill, one would add in a swift succession that the reality in the Nigerian situation even as it affects other L2 countries with domesticated English, is, however, that a firm mastery of the English Language is hardly achieved at the secondary and early university levels of education. Issues to be examined here include, the nature of English language as it affects the learner; problems faced by learners of English in Nigeria, etc.

1.9.2 The Nature of English Language as it Affects Learners

Apart from the problem of retroactive interference of mother tongue (MT) with second language (L2) at various levels (including phonological and grammatical), there are inherent features of English which affect both the native and the non-native speakers/learners. The non-native speakers tend to be affected more as they overgeneralise rules without being conscious of exceptions. The said overgeneralisation will be examined at the following levels of language study.

1.9.2.1   Orthograpny and Phonetics

Orthography borders on spelling while phonetics deals with sound articulation in languages. It should be noted that there is an unfavourable lack of correlation between phonetic and orthographic features, whereby words are hardly pronounced the way they are spelt, as in:

Chalet /ˈʃæ lei /
Church / tʃɜːtʃ/

Choir / KWaiϑ/

1.9.2.2   Morphology

Morphology embraces word formation. The problem worth highlighting here is lack of consistency in word formation rules as illustrated below:

i.   'in -, im-, il-' means "not" as seen in
      informal,
      impossible
      illogical, etc. while 'in-'
      also means 'highly' as seen in inflammable.

ii.   '-less' means 'without' as seen in
      childless,
      useless, etc
      but in 'priceless' it means 'very costly'.

iii   a person who writes is a writer,
      a person who reads is a reader
      but a person who cooks remains a cook.

1.9.2.3   Syntax

The syntax of the language governs word relationship in a sentence in terms of rules but the problem prevalent here is lack of consistency in syntactic rules as presented below:

i.   plurality   -   boy - boys
                      -    man - men
                      -    sheep - sheep

ii   tense   -   walk - walked   - walked
                      -    spell - spelt   - spelt

iii   Comparison   -   drink - drank   - drunk
                      -    good - better   - best
                      -    bad - worse   - worst
                           (more better is wrong)

iv   Stative/ dynamic   (verbs of perception)
                           I can see clearly
                           I can hear...

                           (I am seeing / hearing is wrong)

1.9.2.4   Lexis

Lexis is simply the lexical items or list of words that exist in a language. In terms of lexis, there is the problem of meaning in polysemous items like bank, well, mouth etc. which must be studied succinctly and various applications observed strictly. While examining the problems of English language learning and usage in Nigeria from the point of view of the nature of the language, one should not lose sight of features of language learning. In the light of this, the following points should be taken into consideration.

1.9.3 Features of Language Learning

It is the reasoning of Akindele and Adegbite (1999:139) that, 'the learning of a language involves a complex set of interlocking features almost all (if not all) of which have implications for several problems of learning English.' In this regard, the following features should be noted.

1.9.3.1   Elements (Participants)

The elements (participants) include, the learner, linguistic data, agents of exposure, policy makers/planners. etc. In the case of the

learner, the non-native speaker of English is rightly considered to be a linguistic adult when he learns English, unlike the native speaker who acquires the language as a child. The possible problems raised here include the levity with which the second language learner approaches the learning of the said language thereby transferring features from his mother tongue to the second language unlike the native speaker whose mother tongue is English language.

In the same vein, the availability of raw linguistic data is of paramount importance. The child that uses, English as the mother tongue (EMT environment) tends to have an age over his counterpart in a second language situation. In the EMT environment, there is enough data in such natural and artificial setting surrounding the child: home, school, etc. unlike the English as second language (ESL) learner who is exposed to limited data in his environment. The material he is exposed to is mostly artificial as found in school or mass media, whereby the learner ends up learning and using bookish and stilted English.

Considering the agents of exposure, they do not appear to impact positively. They include parents, friends, teachers, books, the mass media, etc. These agents in most cases do not present the right models to the learner.

The polices designed by the planners tend to aggravate the problems as the process of learning English becomes tedious for the second language learners in which case, a smooth transition from the home to the school is hardly achieved as the learner attempts to learn the language while learning other subjects in the same language which he has not yet understood and mastered. The child therefore memorizes the language and content of subjects without learning the means of understanding and expressing himself clearly in English.

1.9.3.2   Process

As one of the features of learning, process involves learning, maturation, development of language, etc. With a close' look at

learning and maturation, one will discover that the process takes quite long as the learner may not be able to understand and concretize easily what he has learnt. Language development in this regard may be affected by the learner's predisposition and attitude towards learning but apart from these factors, teachers and reinforcers may compound the problem through their own weaknesses such as: lack of competence, experience and dedication to duty, etc.

1.9.3.3   Factors

Time and motivation seem to favour the EMT learner more than the ESL learner since the former unconsciously and effortlessly begins to learn English from birth as he is exposed to the language throughout the day. Similarly, an EMT learner of English as a primary means of communication has a greater motivation for learning than his ESL counterpart except under favourable learning conditions like well-qualified and experienced teachers, teaching aids, etc.

1.9.3.4   Procedural Circumstances

The procedural circumstances for learning do not seem to favour the ESL learner since English language learning takes place mostly in a formal setting. Such learning environment provides the kind of English that is highly technical and bookish. In this regard, improved conditions of learning in semi-formal and informal setting would facilitate the mastery of reasonable registers in English. Moreover, the increase in the formation of voluntary organizations whereby English is used during their deliberations is commendable since such social functions can promote the learning of English.

1.9.3.5   Skills and Conclusion

The four language skills are: speaking, listening, writing and reading. In order to use the language efficiently, greater attention

should be paid to these language skills though the nation's educational system emphasizes reading and writing skills. The totality of these factors present tremendous constraints to the learner of English under a second language situation.

1.10 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and the Nigerian Language Situation

There is a widely acclaimed shift in attention from the application of language to general purposes to language for special or specific purposes as being quite a recent development. In view of this development, the English language appears to be largely involved than any other language probably due to its involvement in the/ development and dissemination of various disciplines across the world. There are certain characteristics of the language used in each discipline such as: science and technology, communication, economics, advertising, literature, law, etc.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a product of this phenomenon and a major concern worldwide today (Orisawayi, 1998). Since the Institutions of higher education are also involved in preparing students for various professions and leadership roles, they therefore accommodate all the provable specific purposes that may be needed by educated workers. Three major issues deserve attention here while considering the practice of 'EAP' across the world.

Firstly, the unique characteristics of each variety of the resulting language is globally stable in that each academic discipline has evolved and used the same variety which is easily associated with it anywhere. In this respect, science and technology has the same linguistic characteristics worldwide. The second consideration is that the native speaker/

user of English language already has a certain linguistic and socio-linguistic competence which tends to facilitate the kind of specialization required on the part of the users. Thirdly, learners/users of English as a second language (ESL) do not often have the same facility as the native speakers do. The 'ESL' therefore has a double burden of first mastering English for general purposes (EGP) and then taking on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in higher education.

Notably, studies in 'EAP' is more addressed to the 'ESL' user though the native user of English will also find it necessary to learn the application of English to specialized areas. The assumption here is that while involved in training in the use of English for academic purposes, the students is presumed to have adequate linguistic competence to be able to cope with the versatile nature of the tasks which require him to maneuver himself through the varieties of English specific to various disciplines. In Nigeria however, this is not the case because a holder of credit in English language from secondary school certificate examination still lacks adequate competence in some areas of English grammar, lexical selections and idiom. There is therefore the need for both remedial and developmental measures while organizing training in 'EAP' skills in the 'ESL' environment.

CHAPTER TWO

STUDY SKILLS: AN INTRODUCTORY APPROACH

Introduction

It is the reasoning of Okereke (1998:47) that study skills 'deal with the art of developing efficiency and effectiveness in reading and studying in general'. In view of the fact that university education or any other tertiary level of education is not the same with previous levels not to mention the fact that most students do spend many years after the secondary education before the tertiary education for different reasons, there is therefore the need to guide students on how to approach their respective academic careers at the tertiary level. Study skills become handy as students will be equipped with effective and result-oriented study habits. Areas of interest in this chapter include: how to develop effective study skills, identifying bad study habits, etc. as discussed below.

2.1. How to Develop Effective Study Skills

Result-oriented study skills can be developed by a student through motivation/mental activation, conducive study environment, study time/plan, reading efficiency/ timed reading, strategy for note taking/making, resources for learning, formation of study groups, good study methods, self assessment and examination techniques as examined below.

2.1.1 Motivation/Mental Activation

Motivation is the urge or desire to do something. It could be intrinsic in nature as it derives from the nature of the task itself or

extrinsic as it derives from external factors that influence one's motives.

Motivation involves the student's mental and intellectual appraisal and acceptance of the workload in store for him which will definitely help the student to apply himself mentally and physically to the volume of work in his discipline. Mental activation is the result of strong motivation which prepares or urges the student to develop the desire to study and have the determination to succeed. When there is no mental activation, the student will find himself dozing during studies and will gain little or nothing after hours of wasted effort in studying. On the other hand, if a student's mind is activated he will have the mental alertness and the zeal to learn. This will encouragel concentration and there will be no high incidence of mental distraction.

2.1.2 Conducive Study Environment

It is advisable for one to study in a quiet, peaceful and comfortable atmosphere, with less distraction. The physical environment in which study is done should be taken seriously. People react differently to different environments but since bedrooms are widely associated with sleep and other forms of relaxation except the student is able to adjust favourably, library or general reading room is recommended at this initial stage.

2.1.3 Study Time/Plan

There is need for a student to plan and organize his study time favourably based on when one's mind is most active and when it is most conducive for studies. There should be a study plan or timetable in order to spend the time well. This will accord each subject a reasonable attention.

2.1.4 Reading Efficiency/Timed Reading

This calls for efficient reading habits. An efficient reader does not waste time and effort while reading. He varies his reading speed with purposes. He may choose to read slowly with thorough understanding of what he is reading and read quickly at will. He can grasp the main ideas well and avoid details when he chooses to do so. He is intent on achieving a particular purpose as his mind is alert and questioning. Since his mind is inquisitive in nature, he will certainly read on and make more discoveries. He will not only think ahead but will achieve global understanding by reading different textbooks on a given topic. To achieve efficiency, the reader should also time himself while reading. He should combine comprehension with reading speed and still achieve reasonable comprehension within limited reading time.

2.1.5 Effective Note-Taking/Making Techniques

It has been established that notes (that are taken during lectures) perform two integral functions as noted by Dunkel (1998:259-260):

these are the encoding function which aids learning and retention by activating attentional mechanisms and engaging the learner's cognitive processes of coding, integrating, synthesizing and transforming the aurally received input into a personally meaningful form,' and the external function which makes the notes an external rep-ository of information that permits later revision and review to stimulate information recall

Note-taking during lectures requires good listening and writing skills. The writer should coordinate both listening and writing skills to benefit from lectures. Most students take notes in a verbatim form

while others jot down the main points that will still be meaningful. Students also make notes when they develop the notes that were written during lectures or from textbooks that have been read. Note-taking is somewhat different from note-making in terms of details, illustrations, use of abbreviations and acrostics, use of diagrams and tables, etc. In note-taking, major points are recorded fast from lectures or textbooks avoiding details and illustrations.

Note-taking makes wide use of abbreviation, acrostics, sketches, avoiding clear diagrams and tables. One can also use headings, subheading, underlining, numerical figures, circles or arrows to highlight important points. One can also use graphics and special prints. In most cases, such notes could be accessible to only the writer and at times even unintelligible to him.

Note-making on the other hand, involves a wider development of the information (which results from note-taking) into detailed and well-illustrated text, accessible to any person literate in the language. Note-making employs details, illustrations, diagrams and tables to enhance clarity (Eyoh, 2000:141). In this respect, the following techniques should be adopted to enhance effective note-taking.

(i) **Using keywords**

Keywords will save time and reduce the chances of verbosity or redundant details. It summarizes the content appropriately and meaningfully.

(ii) **Using Symbols**

Symbols save time and space. They include:

&	-	and (ampersand)
@	-	at
©	-	copyright
02	-	oxygen
#	-	number

(iii) Abbreviations

The well known abbreviations are:

a/c   -   account
b/c   -   because
Esq.   -   esquire
GMT -   Greenwich Mean Time
i.e.   -   that is
ltd   -   limited
RSVP -   Respondez s'il vous plait (please reply)
yr   -   year

(iv) Acrostics

Apart from the above abbreviations, the student also has the leeway to develop his or her personal abbreviations known as acrostics. They are:

Bidg   -   Building
Estmtd   -   Estimated
Info   -   Information
Shd   -   Should
Econs   -   Economics

Finally, it should be noted that while taking notes from lectures one should listen with concentration for better understanding of the message and the writer should use abbreviations, symbols, acrostics, diagrams, keywords, sketches, colours, capital letters, etc. With regard to taking notes from books, the reader should use scanning and skimming methods while reviewing the preface, introduction, index etc. to have an overview of the content. The student should take note of the bibliographical details of the book including the pages that are read while taking notes. There is need to make use of topic sentences, abbreviations and apply critical reactions to the material by distinguishing facts from opinions. Notably, while counting on the

above strategies, the personal skills of the individual should equally be accorded right of place and utilized effectively.

2.1.6 Resources for Learning

Apart from the fact that students should attend lectures first hand rather than copying the notes from such lectures from their class-mates, availing oneself of the resources available for learning is paramount to any student. The library provides these resources for the student to widen his knowledge through research as he reads any other academic material rather than depending only on the classroom lectures which in most cases only guide the student and give him an idea of lecturer's approach to a subject, areas of emphasis and perhaps current trend in a given subject area yet to be published.

2.1.7 Formation of Study Groups

Commenting on the usefulness of study groups, it is the reasoning of Maddox (1967) as cited in Okereke (1998:68) that,

> study is often thought of as a private activity: the learner shuts himself up with his books and masters the subject-matter alone and it is true that the greater part of study is best carried out in this fashion. But books supply only the raw materials of learning. After facts have been taken in, they need to be reduced to order and system. In this process of organizing your knowkdge, sifting it, seeing the parts in relation to the whole and distinguishing the important from the unimportant, discussion with others is invaluable. Discussing your work with other students often helps to remove misconceptions, and frequently provides a solution to some nagging difficulty which has been holding

you up. It can give you a fresh view point and a fresh impetus to study. And the mere act of communicating and explaining your work to others can serve to clarify your own thoughts.

Students should therefore form study groups rather tha isolating themselves from others. However, such groups should n exceed five students and every member should be made to participa meaningfully. This can be achieved through regular meeting whereb topics are distributed to members for them to research and prese while members listen to each discussant and add to what has bee omitted. By so doing, learning takes place in a greater dimension.

2.1.8 Good Study Methods

Study methods simply involve the various ways students hav decided to tackle the study tasks before them. Study methods includ

(i)	SQ3R	- Survey, Question, Read, Recall, Review
(ii)	PQRST	- Preview, Question, Read, Summarize, Test
(iii)	OK4R	- Overview, Key points, Read, Recall, Reflect, Review
(iv)	3S3R	- Survey, Study-read, Speed-read, Recite, Review, Reflect

While examining the first study method-SQ3R, one should note th survey involves skimming through the book to note its organizatio central and major ideas, etc and raise questions concerning th material in terms of its organization in terms of what signal clues the content or how relevant the material is to the student's academ needs at a given time. The student can then adopt the first 'R' whi is to read in order to have major ideas and answers to questions th

measure the essence of reading the texts. The student should do with reasonable comprehension and good reading speed. The student should also jot down notes during the reading stage in an attempt to summarize the message got from the text. He should also conduct himself in a manner that distraction will be reduced while jotting down the points without losing track of the train of ideas. The student should move on to the next 'R' which is the recall stage. This is to bring back to mind or memory what has been read and memorized. While recalling, the student should not read. Whatever he recalls should also be written down separately. The last stage is 'the review' which should be carried out to fill in gaps arising from poor recall. This will further enhance learning and increase the reader's power of retention.

Apartfrom the SQ3R study method, every student has the leeway to choose which ever study method he can meaningfully adjust to and benefit from.

2.1.9 Self Assessment

The knowledge of these study skills should not just be viewed in principle. The student should therefore go a step further by assessing himself to find out how these study skills have affected him in the light of his performance in recalling what has been read through written tests, assignments, group discussions, etc. This assessment will also influence his motivation either to step up his performance rating or to stabilize. On the whole, self assessment is very important before the examination.

2.1.10   Examination Techniques

Examination is the principal aspect of assessment for every student. This will unveil to the student, the depth and breath of his knowledge in a given study area or course. It is therefore pertinent

for the student to prepare well for the examination. With this state of preparedness, the Student should approach the said examination with confidence. He should read the question paper carefully (both the instructions and the questions). While answering the questions, he should attempt the easier questions first and attend to the more difficult ones later. While answering the easier questions, he should still keep a good mental picture of the difficult ones thereby trying to formulate ideas in related areas that may assist him when he finally settles down to attempt those difficult questions. It is also advisable that the student should interpret the key words in each question to determine what is required from their answers. The meanings of these keywords and what they entail which are found in Maddox's How to Study (1967) cited in Okereke (1998:70) are presented below.

Compare: Look for similarities and differences between

Contrast: Set in opposition in order to bring out differences

Criticize: Give your judgment about the merit theories or opinions or about the truth of facts, and back your judgment by a discussion of the evidence.

Define: Set down the precise meaning of a word or phrase. Show that the distinctions implied in the definition are necessary

Describe: Give a detailed or graphic account of

Discuss: Investigate or examine by argument, sift and debate, giving reasons pro and con.

Evaluate: Make an appraisal of the worth of something, in the light of its truth of utility, include to a lesser degree, your personal opinion.

Explain: To make plain, to interpret and to account for.

Illustrate: Use a figure or diagram to explain or clarify, or make clear by the use of concrete examples.

Interpret: Expand the meaning of, make clear and explicit; usually giving your own judgment also.

Justify: Show adequate grounds for decision or conclusions.

Outline: Give the main features or general principles of a subject omitting minor details, and emphasizing structure and arrangement.

Relate: (a) To narrate, more usually, in examinations
(b) Show how things are connected to each other, and to what extent they are alike, or affect each other.

Review: To make a survey of, examining the subject critically.

State: Present in brief, clear, form.

Summarize: Give concise account of the chief points or substance of matter, omitting details and examples.

Trace: Follow the development or history of topicfrom some point of origin.

Finally, it should also be mentioned that students should be ontinuously involved in reading, rather than the last minute rush uring examination. This implies that while approaching the actual eriod of the examination, only revision should be done and not fresh

reading of new subject areas or topics in order not to over load the brain without favourable retention of the topics that have been read.

If the questions are essay in nature, always develop outline for the answers before full answers without wasting much time than necessary. Apart from these factors that enhance effective study skills, one should not lose sight of bad study habits. These are examined in the next part of this chapter.

2.2 Identifying Bad Study Habits

Bad study habits are factors that will certainly prevent the student from realizing his dream of excelling in his chosen career. The bad study habits as identified by Okereke (1998:51) include 'hazy goals, wrong choice of place of study, energy draining activities and bad reading habits'. These are discussed fully below.

2.2.1 Hazy Goals

It is the place of a well-motivated student to define his goal and objectives and aim at achieving them without drifting lazily around. On the other hand, if a student is not well-focused and purposeful in his academic pursuit, his goals are hazy and studies will not be highly interesting to him. He will no doubt have poor performance in his academic activities.

2.2.2 Wrong Place of Study

If the student decides to choose a wrong place of study, this will certainly not help him positively to attain excellence in his academic endeavour.

2.2.3 Energy - Draining Activities

Apart from extracurricular activities, energy-draining activities that bring physical stress to the student certainly impact negatively on the student. Such activities like distraction due to music, mind wondering, etc will not encourage the student to organize his studies well.

2.2.4 Bad Reading Habits

Bad reading habits include: regression which means wondering back over what has been read; reading aloud; moving one's head while reading, unfavourable slow reading with less comprehension, etc. Generally, any reading habit that slows down the silent reading speed and comprehension should be discouraged. Details of good reading habits are found in reading skills examined in the next chapter. In addition to these factors recorded by Okereke, one should also note that factors like:

*   the inability or refusal of students to acquire academic material;
*   failure to attend lectures on the part of the student;
*   lack of continuous reading on daily basis in order to prepare for examination in advance;
*   failure on the part of the student to study for knowledge and not merely to perform well in examinations which creates a severe knowledge gab after the said examination among other factors constitute bad study habits

In conclusion, one can comfortably remark that if students should discard the bad study habits and adopt the effective study skills, acquisition of knowledge will be enhanced more positively

(i) **Vocal Fillers:** em, er, etc.

(i) **Paralanguage:** Pitch - high, low, moderate.
Speed - rapid, slow etc
Quality - pleasant, harsh, etc
Volume - soft, loud, etc.

(iii) **Kinesics or Body Movement:**
Facial expression or emblems
eye contact, emotional tears
(head nodding, hand gestures,
Illustrators, etc.).

(iv) **Proxemics or Spatial Proximity:**
Intimate distance - 0-8 inch
Personal distance —8 inches - 4ft
Social distance — 4ft - 12ft
public distance — 12ft -25ft

Focus will now be made on speech sounds examining the speech production process through different organs of speech, presenting the basic speech sounds and proffering ways of pronouncing them through transcription (i.e. the graphic representation of each so through sound symbols).

3.1.1 The Speech Production Process and Organs of Speech

This section seeks to examine the speech production process, describe the organs of speech and explain their functions.

3.1.2 The Production of Speech Sounds

As examined by Clerk and Clinton, 1994:67:

the first stage takes place in your chest. Your lungs rest on a powerful curved muscle called the diaphragm. As you inhale, your diaphragm moves downward, drawing air into the lungs. At the same time, your rib cage expands to make room for the air. As you exhale, or when you speak, the diaphragm moves upward, forcing air out of the lungs.

the second stage of speech takes place in the throat. Air moves up and out of your lungs through the trachea, or windpipe. At the top of trachea, the air passes through the larynx (also called the voice box or Adam's apple). The vocal cords are a pair of muscular folds across the centre of the larynx (fig. 1)

In addition to this Eka and Udofot, 1996: 40 have also noted that, in terms of respiratory and phonatory stages:

when air leaves the lungs (where it is normally stored), it moves through the trachea to the larynx, which covers and encloses the vocal lips. At the center of the vocal lips there is a space (the glottis). When this space is closed the vocal lips are brought together through the action of elastic membranes. This closure of the vocal lips naturally lead to a building up of pressure below them, a situation that results in the air forcing itself through the vocal lips in periodic puffs.. the vocal lips contribute in one respect to the important distinction which exists between vowels and consonants: there is always a vibration of the vocal lips during the production of vowel sounds in

practically all natural languages since vowel sounds are generally voiced.

On the other hand, there is a constant adjustment of the vocal lips during the production of consonant sounds since consonants in practically all natural languages are either voiced or voiceless.

In terms of the articulatory stage, the same source still reveal that:

from the vocal lips the air passes through the pharynx... the brain directs the soft palate (also known as the velum) particularly the uvula which is the pendulous end of the relum, on what to do: the uvula will either be lowered to block the oral cavity or raised to the back wall of the throat to block the nasal cavity.

It is interesting to note that, when the oral cavity is blocke nasal or nasalized sounds are produced and when the nasal cavity blocked oral sounds are produced. Moreover, **nasal sounds** are thos sounds which pass through the nasal cavity; **oral sounds** are thos which pass through the mouth cavity, **nasalized sounds** are thos sounds which should normally pass through the oral cavity but a compelled to pass through the nasal cavity (Eka, 1996).
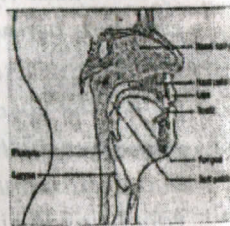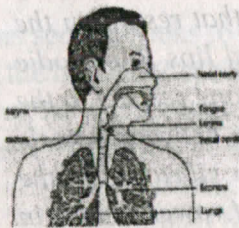
Fig. 1: Organs of Speech (Culled from Clark and Clinton)

3.1.3 Organs of Speech and Their Functions

While examining the different organs of speech, it is clearly obvious that some of the organs are relatively movable while others are reasonably fixed. Organs like, the teeth, the teeth ridge (alveolar ridge or gums), and the hard palate are clearly seen as being fixed since they remain in the same position all through in spite of the sound produced. The functions of the different organs of speech are examined below:

(a) **Mouth Cavity**
This is the outlet for all sounds, which do not pass through the nose cavity.

(b) **The Tongue**
The tongue is situated within the oral cavity. It contributes immensely to the realization of various sounds using its different parts: the tip, the blade, the front and the back.

(c) **The Lips**
The lips are responsible for the opening of the mouth for oral sounds and the closing of it for others (like the nasal sounds). The lips aid the production of labial sounds like [p, b} involving two lips and labio-dental [f,v] involving the lower lip and the upper front teeth.

(d) **The Teeth**
The teeth are used in the production of dental sounds/inter-dental sounds, i.e. when the tip of the tongue is placed between the two rows of the teeth as in [θ,ð]

(e) **Alveolar Ridge (Teeth Ridge)**
When the tip of the tongue comes in contact with the alveolar

ridge, sounds like [t, d, l, n, r, s, z] are realized.

(f) **Alveolar Ridge and Hard Palate**
When the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge and the hard palate simultaneously, sounds like [ʃ,ʒ, tʃ, dʒ] are realized.

(g) **Uvula**
This aids the realization of either oral sounds or nasal sounds since it is flexible.

(h) **Larynx, Vocal Cords and Glottis**
The Larynx houses the vocal cords being the elastic membrane with an opening in the middle known as glottis which determines when a sound is voiced or voiceless. The sound [h] is realized at the glottis when the lips are open and the air from the lungs passes through without vibration.

(i) **The Palate and the Velum**
The sound [j] is a palatal sound- realized as the tongue touches the hard palate while [k, g] are velar sounds realized as the back of the tongue touches the soft palate.

Fig.2: Presented below highlights further the organs of speech examined above

soft Palate (velum)
Upper Lip
Lower Lip
pharynx
Larynx
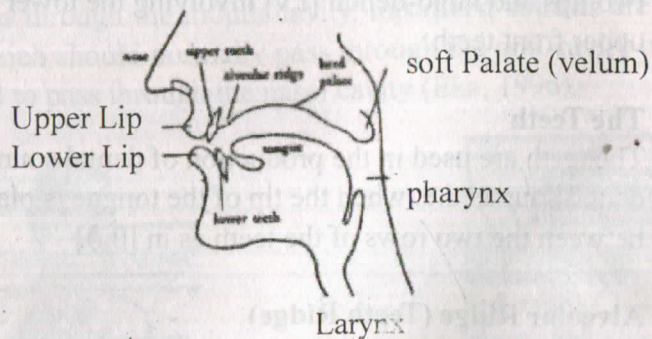
Fig 2:   The Articulators   **(Culled from Roach, P).**

3.1.4   Basic Sounds

In English language and other natural languages, speech sounds are generally divided into vowels and consonants. The two classes of sounds will be examined differently starting with vowel sounds.

3.1.41.   English Vowel Sounds

In their effort to explain what a vowel is, Eka and Udofot, 1996: 81 have reasoned that, 'the commonest view is that a vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any audible obstruction of the air as it passes from the lungs through the larynx to the lips on its way out'. It could be understood to mean that vowel sounds are generally voiced. Moreover, vowel sounds produce the melody of speech, as they are generally present in every syllable. There are twelve (12) pure vowels (monophthongs) and eight diphthongs also known as glides. Of the twelve pure vowels, five are long while seven are short vowels.

3.1.4.1.1   Vowel Description/Grouping: Pure Vowels

The grouping can be done based on duration, part of the tongue raised and extent of raising of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth as examined below.

(a)   Duration
In terms of duration, two groups are identified: long and short ones. The long vowels have dots after them while the short ones do not have the dots.

Pure Vowels

Long   Short

i: a: ɔ: u: ɜ: i   e   æ   ɒ   u   ʌ   ə
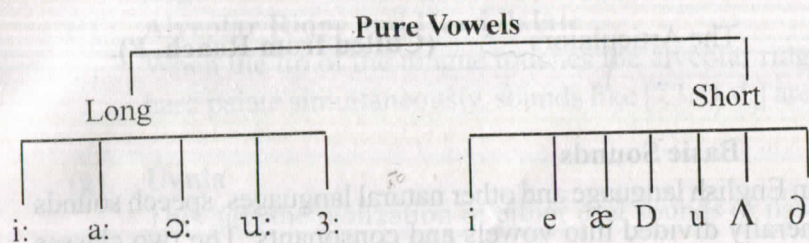
Fig. 3: Grouping of English Pure Vowels

(b)   Part of the Tongue Raised

(i)   Front vowels -   when the tongue is stretched towards the front of the oral cavity as in /i:, I, e, æ /

(ii)   Central Vowels - here the tongue is in a central position as in /ʌ , ɜ; ə /

(iii)   Back Vowels -   when the tongue is drawn backwards as in / ɒ, ɔ: u, u:/

Based on the model presented by Eka 1996:2, grouping of vowels can be done based on the pärt of th tongue raised as seen below:

Pure vowels

Front

i: I e æ

Back

ɒ, ɔ: u, u:

Central

ʌ , ɜ;ə

Nearer back than front

a:
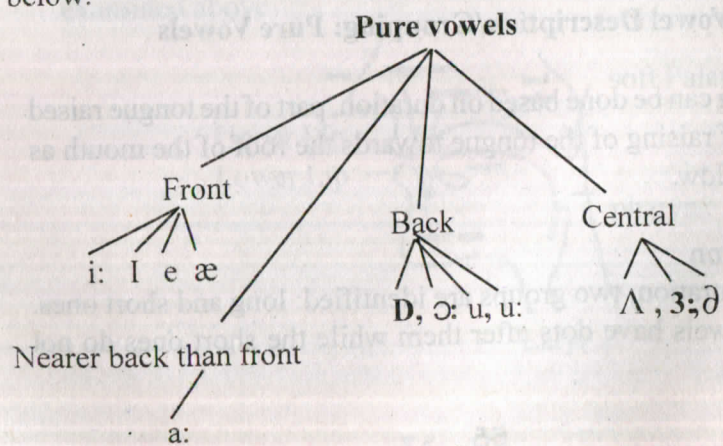
Fig. 4: Grouping of English Pure Vowels

(c)   Classification based on the extent of raising of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth.

According to Eka, 1996:2 1, four subtypes are identified being:

(i)   Those which are approximately close i.e. those during the production of which the jaws are held close together and the tongue is raised right up in the mouth;

(ii)   Those that are half-close;

(iii)   Those that are half-open;

(iv)   Those that are open;

Examples:

Close   /i:, u:/

Half-close   /i, u/

Half-open   /ʌ /

Between half-close and half open /e, ɜ; ə /

Open /a, ɒ/

Between half-open and open /æ , ɔ:/

Pure Volels

Close (high)   Half-close (mid. 1)   Half-open (mid. 2)   Open (low)

i: u: I   u   Λ   a: D

between half close and half open   between half open and open

e   3:   ∂   æ   ɔ:
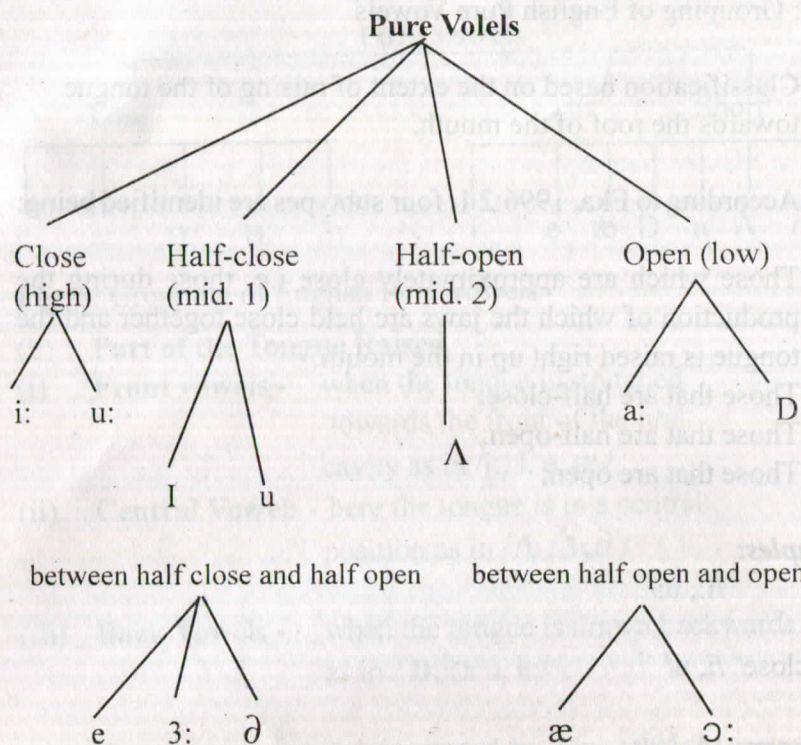
Fig. 5: Grouping based on extent of the tongue raised

3.1.4.1.2 Vowel Grouping: Dip hthongs

There are eight (8) diphthongs in English examined under two subgroups:

(i) Closing Diphtbongs and (ii) Centering Diphthongs

There are five closing diphthongs:
  /eI, a1, ɔI, ∂v, av/

The centering diphthongs are:
  /I∂, e∂, u∂/

It is also worthy of note to mention here that, there are five triphthongs among the vowel sounds which are made up of the five closing diphthongs with the Schwa added to them. Eka and Udofot (1996) have described triphthongs thus:

the glide is from the first vowel sound to the second and to the third... it is only the slow and careful English speaker whose speech can feature these complex vowels. In rapid or normal speech triphthongs are often reduced to long vowels and diphthongs with the middle vowel heard only slightly or not at all

The Five triphthongs are:

[eI]	+	[∂]	...	...	...	[eI∂]
[aI]	+	[∂]	...	...	...	[aI∂]
[ɔI]	+	[∂]	...	...	...	[ɔI∂]
[∂u]	+	[∂]	...	...	...	[∂u∂]
[au]	+	[∂]	...	...	...	[au∂]

3.1.4.2 English Consonant Sounds

The English consonant sounds which are twenty four (24) in number are realized through a partial or total obstruction of the air passage and are described by Eka and Udofot (1996:68) as 'showing greater constriction of the vocal tract and less sonorous, less prominent than their counterpart-the vowels'. The consonant sounds are listed below with their examples:

[p]	-------	-------	-------	pat
[b]	-------	-------	-------	book
[t]	-------	-------	-------	teach
[dl	-------	-------	-------	do

[k]	-------	-------	-------	come
[g]	-------	-------	-------	go
[f]	-------	-------	-------	farm
[v]	-------	-------	-------	revive
[0]	-------	-------	-------	thief
[ð]	-------	-------	-------	then
[s]	-------	-------	-------	sing
[z]	-------	-------	-------	zoo
[ʃ]	-------	-------	-------	shoe
[3]	-------	-------	-------	measure
[h]	-------	-------	-------	hotel
[ts]	-------	-------	-------	church
[d3]	-------	-------	-------	judge
[m]	-------	-------	-------	man
[n]	-------	-------	-------	son
[ŋ]	-------	-------	-------	song
[1]	-------	-------	-------	love
[r]	-------	-------	-------	run
[w]	-------	-------	-------	woman
[j]	-------	-------	-------	yellow

3.1.4.2.1 Description of English Consonants

Description of English consonants can be made in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and nature of voicing (whether voiced or voiceless) as done below:

(a) Description Based on Place of Articulation

(i)	**Bilabial**	-	between two lips [p, m]
(ii)	**Labio - dental**	-	lower lip and upper front teeth
(iii)	**Dental**	-	tip of the tongue betweent rows of teeth [θ, ð]
(iv)	**Alveolar**	-	tip of the tongue against the teeth ridge as in [t, d, z]

(vi)	**Palatal**	-	the tongue touching the hard palate as in [j]
(vii)	**Velar**	-	back of the tongue touching soft palate [k, g]
(viii)	**Glottal**	-	realized through the glottis (h)

(b) Description Based on Manner of Articulation

(i)	**Plosives**	-	organs brought together then sudden release [p, b, t]
(ii)	**Fricatives**	-	narrowing of space between organs filtering through of sound [f, v, s]
(iii)	**Affricates**	-	organs brought together, then less sudden release than for plosive [tʃ, **d₃**]
(iv)	**Nasals**	-	soft palate lowered, air allowed to pass through the nose [n m, ŋ]
(v)	**Approximants/liquid**	-	tip of the tongue touching (then repeatedly) the teeth ridge [r, 1, w, j]

(c) Description Based on Nature of voicing

Voiced [b, d, g, v, 6, z, 3, d₃]
Voiceless [p t, k, f, 0, s, ʃ, h, tʃ]

3.1.4.3 Related Phonological Terms/Concepts

3.1.4.3 1. Syllable

From a specific, functional viewpoint, the syllable is that unit of phonological description, which comes between the phoneme and

the foot. It may be made up of one or more phonemes, while the foot is made up of more syllables (Eka, 1996). Moreover, in the view of Crystal, 1991 :339, in an attempt to view syllable from the specific functional viewpoint, based on structure he has reasoned that,

> *the syllable is the linking of vowels and*
> *consonants with the vowels generally forming*
> *the nucleus or central part of the syllable, then*
> *basic terms become outstanding; the onset (the*
> *opening segment of a syllable) the centre or*
> *nucleus (the central segment of the syllable), and*
> *the coda (the closing or arresting) segment of*
> *the syllable.*

In terms of structure then, an English syllable can be made up of a vowel alone as in 'air' /e ∂ /while a consonant cannot prominent feature alone in English. It is possible to have a maximum of three initial consonants: ccc and a maximum of four final consonants-cccc in English syllable as revealed through studies in English phonotactic (Eka, 1996:106).

Examples are shown in Table 5 below

Word Entry	Constant (onset)	Vowel (nucleus)	Consonant (coda)
Strengths	CCC	V	CCC
Prompt	CC	V	CCCC
Cart/kat/	C	V	C
Car/ka:/or/karf	C	V	C

3.1.4.3.2   Sounds

As viewed by Eka and Udofot, 1996: 14, 'speech common perceived' as a string of noises, which can be broken down into ti

significant bits called sounds. Symbols are used to represent sounds. Sounds heard while letters are used in the written medium of any language. Sounds and letters are related because letters are the marks with which sounds are represented on paper. Notably, in languages that are not phonetic (such as English), sounds and letters do not always correspond as seen in the English alphabet, 'A' which takes different sounds in different words:

manage [æ]   [I]

calm [a:]

again [∂] [eɪ]

Notably, lack of correspondence between sounds and letters is contributory to reasons for the development of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) in 1886 by the International phonetic Association, as led by Paul Passy (Eka and Udofot, 1996: 24).

3.1.4.3.3   The Phoneme

It is important to observe here that each unit of sound is a segment and when segments are put together they form words and utterances as seen in the English word 'purse' which is made up of three sound segments [P, 3:, S]. Moreover, if the middle sound [3:] is replaced with any other segment like [e, I , ʊ] one can have words like 'pen', 'pin' and 'put'

Hyman, 1975:59 as quoted in Eka and Udofot, 1996:25, defines phoneme as 'a minimal unit of sound capable of distinguishing words of different meanings'. The sounds [r] and [s] are phonemes in English since they are basically responsible for the differences in meaning between the English words 'run' and 'sun'. In the same vein, the segments [e, I, u] are phonemes in English since the substitution of one for the other can bring about a change in meaning in the words, 'pen', 'pin' and 'put'. The phoneme then is the smallest unit of speech in a particular language. It should also be noted that a phoneme can

be in free variation whereby, it is chosen by a speaker as an alterative to another one equally open to him. This does not indicate a change in the meaning of a given word.

Example:

Vehicle   (i)   /ˈvɪ ə kl/

          (ii)   /ˈviːIkI/

Moreover, sounds can occur initially, medically and finally.

3.1.4.3.4   Allophones

Allophones simply account for the different phonetic realizations of the phoneme. As noted by Eka and Udofot. 1996:26

> the words 'peak', 'speak' and 'reap' each contains
> the sound /P/ but whereas the [pʰ] in the initial
> position is aspirated (said with a puff of air), the
> /P/ in 'speak' is unaspirated while the final [p] is
> of ten unreleased. Yet to an English speaker the
> phoneme he hears in the three words is /p/ The
> aspirated, unaspirated and unreleased [p] in peak
> 'speak' and 'reap' are variant realizations of the
> phoneme /p/ and therefore allophones of the
> phoneme /p/ One can therefore say that the
> difference in quality here is due to the position
> where they occur in the word.

3.1.4.3.5   Proper Pronunciation/Transcription

Eka and Udofot (1996) define transcription as: 'a graphic representation of speech sounds (of languages) in an unambiguous manner. the means of such a representation being sound symbols.' In line with the above explication, there are many systems of transcription but more relevant to this study are: Gimson's, Jone's

Abercrombie's and Halliday's systems particularly as they affect vowels as shown in table 6 below:

No.s	Gimson's system	Jones system	Abercrombie's system	Halliday's system	Examples
1.	[i]	[i]	[i]	[i]	Key
2.	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]	Fit
3.	[e]	[e]	[ɛ]	[ɛ]	Fed
4.	[æ]	[a]	[a]	[aa]	Back
5.	[a]	[ɑ]	[ɑ]	[ɑ]	Calm
6.	[ɔ]	[ɔ]	[ɔ]	[ɔ]	Want
7.	[u]	[u]	[o]	[ʊ]	Storm
8.	[uː]	[uː]	[ʉ]	[uu]	Took
9.	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	Too
10.	[ɔ]	[ɔ]	[ɜ]	[ʌ]	Cut
11.	[ə]	[ə]	[ə]	[ə]	Bird
12.	[eɪ]	[eɪ]	[eɪ]	[eɪ]	Bother
13.	[əʊ]	[əʊ]	[əɪ]	[eɪ]	Day
14.	[aɪ]	[ou]	[ɘ]	[ɘ]	Know
15.	[aʊ]	[ai]	[ʉə]	[aɪ]	My
16.	[ɔɪ]	[au]	[əʊ]	[aɔ]	Now
17.	[ɪə]	[ɔi]	[ɔʉ]	[ɔ̈]	Boy
18.	[eə]	[iə]	[ɪə]	[ɪə]	Here
19.	[ʊə]	[ɛə]	[ɛə]	[ɛə]	There
20.	[ʊə]	[uə]	[ɵə]	[♡ʊ]	Poor

Examples of Words Transcribed for Proper Pronunciation.

1. Village / ˈvɪlɪ d_3l

2. Purse /p3:S/

3. Wednesday /ˈwenzdeɪ, -dI/

4. Resignation /rezigˈneiʃn/

5. Favourite /ˈfeivðrit/

6. Plumber /ˈplʌmðə/

Other related issues are examined below.

3.1.4.3.6   Intonation

This simply means the sound pattern of phrases and sentences produced by pitch variation in the voice

3.1.4.3.7   Pitch

This is the quality of a voice especially how high or low it is.

3.1.4.3.8   Stress

From the perceptual point of view, all syllables have one characteristic in common, and that is prominence (Roach, 2000:94). This implies that certain words or syllables are pronounced louder than others in a sentence. Stress can be described in terms of primary, secondary and a third level being unstressed.

Primary Stress is the prominence which results from pitch movement or tone which gives the strongest type of stress with a high mark (ˈ).

Secondary Stress is weaker than the primary stress represented with a low mark (ˌ). Finally, an unstressed syllable is clearly the absence of any recognizable amount of prominence.

Example:
Photographic /ˌfə vtə ˈgræ fik/

3.1.4.3.8.1 Placement of Stress within a Word

In order to decide on stress placement, it is necessary to make use of some or all of the following:

(i)   Whether the word is morphologically simple or whether it is complex as a result of either containing one or more affixes

(that is, prefixes or suffixes) or of being a compound word.

(ii)   What the grammatical category of the word is (noun, verb, adjective, etc).

(iii)   How many syllables the word has.

(iv)   What the phonological structure of those syllables is.

In terms of single-syllable words there appears to be no problem since the whole syllable is stressed at the primary level if pronounced in isolation. Considering the phonological structure of the syllable, whether it is a strong or weak syllable, it should be noted that weak syllables are always unstressed.

In two-syllable words it is either the first or the second syllable that will be stressed but not both. The rules are as follows:

Verbs
The basic rule is that if the second syllable of the verb is a strong syllable then that second syllable is stressed.

Examples:

apply / ∂ˈplai/

assist / ∂ˈsist /

But if the final syllable is weak, then the first syllable is stressed as in,

enter /ˈent∂/
open /ˈ∂up∂h/

Adjectives

Two-syllable simple adjectives are stressed according to the same rule in verbs.

Nouns

Nouns require a different rule: if the second syllable contains short vowel, then the stress will usually come on the first syllable in,

Money /'mʌni/

Product /'prɒdʌkt/

Other two — syllable words like adverbs and prepositions tend to behave like verbs and adjectives.

Three Syllable Words

In verbs if the final syllable is strong, then it will be stressed as in, entertain /entə'tein/

(For detail, read Roach, P.2000, English Phonetics and Phonology

3.1.4.3.9   Nucleus

This is a strongly stressed syllable, which marks a major change of pitch direction. This is where the pitch goes up or down.

3.1.4.3.10   English Intonation Patterns and their Functions

A tone is the type of pitch change that takes place on the nucleus Considering the English intonation, the pitch movement may involve no change of direction on the tonic syllable thereby seen as simple and unidirectional as in the fall, the rise and the level. The pitch movement can also involve change of direction on the tonic syllable as in being bi-directional seen as the fall-rise and the rise-fall (Eka

1996:88). The different patterns and functions are:

(i)   The Falling Pattern

Here, the pitch of the voice falls at the end of an utterance or on a tonic syllable. The falling tone signals finality as in statements without implication, commands, questions requiring information, etc. as in: James is a Nigerian.\

(ii)   The Rising Pattern

Here the pitch of the voice rises at the end of an utterance or at a tonic syllable. A rising tone signals nonfinality as seen in questions, which require a 'yes' or 'no' answer, in request and statements with implication as in: Is James a Nigerian?/

(iii) The Falling-Rising Pattern

This combines the qualities of the falling and the rising patterns as in:
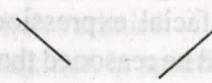
This is not my signature.

Notably, there are quite a lot of ideas the different patterns can further express. As reasoned by Eka, 1996: 84,

'Thank You'

When realized on a falling tone, it tends to express true gratitude. When it is realized on a rising tone, it suggests a casual acknowledgment of something done or given. Also the words:

'Good morning' could be said on different tones. When said with a falling tone, it suggests formal greeting which ordinarily, would need a reply. When said with a rising pattern, it tends towards phatic communion (a cursory and casual exchange of greetings), which may

be replied to in an equally casual vein or may be ignored with no effect on the social situation.

3.1.5 Speech Delivery

3.1.5.1   Oral Communication

Communication is simply the process of transmitting messages from a source to a receiver using a signaling system. The basic aim here is for the source and the receiver to share information for mutual understanding. Communication can be verbal and it can also be non-verbal. At the verbal level it can be oral or written while non-verbal does not make use of words. The medium is rather symbolic and it occurs in the forms of body language, paralanguage, etc.

Oral communication is expressed by the word of mouth. It encourages feedback, which is necessary for the improvement of the communication process (Ogbulogo, 2004:13). Oral Communication is reinforced with gestures, facial expression and other forms of emotional indications. It could be reasoned that oral communication offers an opportunity for message clarification, which ensures that distortion is highly avoided as it builds a lot of interpersonal relationship, which reduces tension and conflicts but it is possible to accommodate many errors, which can make the message imprecise thereby creating the problem of misinterpretation. Oral communication has limited audience and scope.

3.1.5.2   Effective Speaking Voice

It is obvious that an effective speaker conveys meaning with his voice in a clear manner. This is strongly captured by Ogbulogo, 2004:169 thus:

the speed of speech should be adopted to the type of material and the sophistication of the audience... the speech should be audible enough for everybody to hear. There must be vocal variety for effective presentation. The pronunciation of words should be accurate. Words should be properly stressed and utterances produced with appropriate intonation patterns.

The above consideration can be examined in detail for clarification, under different headings. In the views of Lesikar, Pettit and Flatley, 1999:459 'the voice should not hinder the listener's concentration on the message... it should not detract attention from the message'. Voices that cause such difficulties generally fall into these areas of fault:

- Lack of pitch variation
- Lack of variation in speed
- Lack of vocal element
- Unpleasant voice quality

In terms of **lack of pitch variation,** speakers who talk in monotones are not likely to hold the interest of their listeners for long. Speakers should therefore vary pitch as the need arises since most voices are capable of wide variations.

On **lack of variation in speaking speed,** one is advised to present the easy parts of one's message at a fairly fast rate and the hard parts one wants to emphasize at a slower rate. The reason is simply that, a slow presentation of easy information is irritating and hard information presented fast may be difficult to understand. The most outstanding problem here is the incorrect use of pauses. Properly

used, pauses emphasize upcoming subject matter and are effective means of gaining attention. Frequent pauses for no reason on the other hand are irritating and break the listeners' concentration especially when the speaker fills them in with hesitation fillers like uh, you know, etc.

With a close look at lack of vocal emphasis one can rightly say that the secret of good speaking, is most often realized by giving words their proper emphasis by varying the manner of speaking. Apart from varying the pitch of one's voice or varying the pace of one's presentation, one should not lose sight of varying the volume of one's voice. There is need to talk loudly enough for the entire audience to hear but not too loudly. In this respect, the voice volume for a large audience should be greater than that for a small audience. Moreover, variety in voice volume is good for interest and emphasis. It is therefore incorrect to think that the only way to show emphasis is to get louder while speaking.

It is obvious that some voices are more pleasant than others. Notably, most voices are raspy and unpleasant. There is need for improvement.

3.1.5.3   Other Ways of Overcoming Voice Faults

One can principally improve one's speaking voice through self-analysis and imitation. One can improve one's presentation skills by watching others. Watch your instructors, your peers, television personnel, professional speakers, etc. There is need to analyze these speakers to determine what works for them and what does not, imitate the good techniques and avoid the bad ones.

3.1.5.4   Speech Subject, Purpose, Organization and Composition

The topic that is chosen for the speech would certainly reflect the speech subject and purpose. The topic should be significant and interesting to the audience. If the speech is meant to inform although such a speech may sometimes influence the opinions of your audience, the main purpose is to present factual information in a way that will be the most understandable and memorable to that particular audience.

In speeches that are meant to persuade one is required to strengthen, change, influence or confirm the attitudes, beliefs or actions of one's audience. A candidate, giving a campaign speech, may highlight his own identification with the audience and the response of their emotional needs, but voters will also be listening for the facts, statistics, expert opinions, etc that support his positions on issues.

In most cases the primary purpose of many speeches is not to persuade but to fulfill a social need or engage in a social ceremony - to promote a feeling of cohesion or unity among the audience. In such speeches one may have to entertain, inspire or comfort one's listeners or to remind them of what they have in common.

If one has not been assigned a topic then **choose a topic**. The choice of topic should reflect one's **background and knowledge**. This should therefore be within one's areas of proficiency. The next factor is the interest of one's audience and the occasion of the speech.

While one is organizing the speech one should gather information for the speech either by searching through one's mind for experiences or ideas, conducting research in a library or in company files, etc. In organizing the speech one should follow the time - honored order of a speech: **introduction, body, and conclusion.**

Although not really part of the speech, the first words usually spoken are the greeting. The greeting should fit the audience. 'Ladies and Gentleman' is appropriate for a mixed audience while 'Gentlemen' fits an all-male audience. Most speakers avoid the greeting and begin with the speech, especially in more informal and technical presentations.

Introduction

The introduction of a speech arouses interest. If interest is not aroused at the beginning, the speech is likely to fail. The speaker has to work to gain and hold the attention of his audience. There are many opening possibilities: **human-interest story, humour, quotations, questions**, etc.

By quoting someone the audience would know and view as credible, the speaker is building interest in his topic. One can ask **rhetorical questions**. Another way is through **startling statement**, which presents facts, and ideas that awaken the mind. The opening should set up your subject by telling the subject of your speech.

Body

In the body of the speech you will take the whole and divide it into comparable parts. You also take those parts and divide them as far as it is practical to do so since your presentation is likely to be built around issues and questions that are sub-topics of the subject. There is need to emphasize the transitions between the divisions because, unlike the reader who can see them the listener may miss them if they are not stressed adequately.

Conclusion

Conclusion can be achieved by restating the subject, summarizing the key points and drawing conclusion through a statement of the conclusion (the main message). Bringing the speech to a climatic close by making the conclusion the high point of the speech is quite effective. Present the concluding message in strong Language - using words that gain attention and that will be remembered. One can use appropriate quotation, humour, and call for action.

In terms of **sequence**, the speech can take a chronological pattern, spatial pattern, topical pattern, problem- solution pattern or the cause-effect pattern.

A **Chronological** pattern presents the parts of a speaker's information in terms of when they occur in time. This is useful while explaining and demonstrating.

A **spatial** pattern presents the parts of the information in terms of where they occur in physical space.

A **topical** pattern presents information in subdivisions of the topic of the speech, discussing the significant people, ideas or events associated with each subdivision.

Considering **problem**-solution pattern and cause-effect pattern, if a doctor is to speak on sports injuries, he may use any of these two patterns. If he considers shin splints and minor fractures as medical conditions for which he wants to recommend current treatments, the problem - solution pattern becomes handy. On the other hand if the doctor is concerned about over-training and unnecessary roughness in sports he might discus sports injuries as products of these conditions thereby using the cause- effect pattern.

While organizing the work, there is need for one to develop

main ideas. Main ideas can be developed through definitions, examples, comparison or contrast, anecdotes and other narratives, testimony by authorities and statistics (Dark and Clinton, 1994:247).

In terms of **Composition**, this can be **argumentative** in nature, **descriptive**, **narrative** or **expository**. As reasoned by Eko, 1999:126, an argument is, 'controversial discussion that suggests the bringing forth of facts to support or refute an assertion'. This involves a more complex process of reasoning, of drawing conclusions from evidence or presumed facts.

A **descriptive** work is merely a word picture of a given concept or a particular situation. The description may be **technical** or **scientific** and **sensory**.

Narration is a process of telling any kind of story-biographies, experiences, factual stories and fairy-tales. Events take place in chronological order, because one thing happens before another and seconds melt into minutes, hours, days and years.

Finally, **exposition** explains. It offers basic answers to basic questions about the world around us. Exposition presents, analyses, classifies, evaluates and compares and contrasts facts.

3.1.5.5   Audience Analysis

One requirement of good speech making is to know your audience. The audience should be studied both before and during the presentation.

Preliminary Analysis

Analyzing one's audience before the presentation requires one to size it up — by searching for audience characteristics that could

affect how one should present the speech. The size of the audience is likely to influence how formal or informal one's speech should be since large audiences generally require more formality. Personal characteristics of one's audience such as: age, sex, education, experience, and knowledge of subject matter also matter a great deal.

They should affect the words, illustrations, and level, of detail one uses. Like writing, speeches should be adopted to the audience with every consideration given to good business etiquette being that the more the audience is known, the better one will adopt one's presentation to improve them.

Analysis During Presentation

The audience analysis should continue as one continues to make the speech. **Feedback** is information about how one's listeners are receiving one's words. Armed with this information, one can adjust one's presentation to improve the communication result. Using one's eyes and ears will certainly help in this direction by watching out for facial expressions such as smiles, blank stares, etc, Which is an indication of whether, they understand, agree with, or accept it.

3.1.5.6   Self Analysis

A preliminary to good speechmaking is to **analyse oneself** as a speaker since the members of the audience take in not only the words one communicates but also what is seen in somebody. What they see in the speaker significantly affects the meanings that develop in their minds. The speaker should do whatever he can do to overcome shortcomings and sharpen his strengths. Areas that affect the speaker in this regard are: **confidence, sincerity, thoroughness, friendliness**, etc. Having confidence in oneself is important just like having the confidence of one's audience. The speaker should therefore **earn the confidence of his audience, project the right image and talk**

in a strong clear voice.

On the other hand, sincerity is vital. One can therefore convey the image of sincerity by being sincere. Thoroughness is simply giving one's listeners all they need which in turn helps the speaker's image without losing sight of the image of friendliness, which helps the speaker's communication effort.

3.1.5.7   Types of Delivery

If the speech is already organized there is need to decide on the method of presentation whether to present the speech extemporaneously, to memorize it, to read it or through impromptu method.

Extemporaneous presentation is practised by first of all thoroughly preparing one's speech then prepare notes and present the speech from them. Usually, one will have to rehearse ensuring that one has all the parts clearly in mind without necessarily memorizing.

The **memorizing** method appears to be the most difficult because it is hard to memorize a long succession of words.

Reading from a prepared text is required when the exact wording is imperative as in official proclamations, judicial pronouncements and professional papers.

Impromptu speech is delivered at a very short notice, It is usually a very short speech presented at a meeting or conference. The speed of delivery is usually slower since the speaker has to compose the speech almost spontaneously. There is a high use of conversational style

3.1.5.8   Stage Conduct

Good etiquette requires that one should use one's appearance.

physical actions, and physical context to meet the communication needs of one's audience. Issues involved are examined below.

The Communication Environment

More of what the audience sees are the physical things that surround the speaker as he speaks - being the stage, lighting, background, etc. These things tend to create general impression so they should be well managed

Personal Appearance

The speaker's personal appearance is part of the message the audience receives. One should therefore dress in a manner appropriate for the audience and occasion. One should be clean and well gloomed.

Posture

The Speaker should keep his body erect without appearing stiff. One should be poised, alert, and communicative naturally, bearing in mind that the great danger with posture is an **appearance of artificiality**.

Walking

Notably, the speaker's manner of walking before the audience is quite significant. A strong, sure walk to the speaker's position conveys an impression of confidence. Walking during presentation can be good or bad since too much walking attracts attention and detracts from the message. The speaker should only walk when he is reasonably sure that this will have effect he wants without walking away from the microphone.

Facial Expression

In most cases speakers use facial expressions unconsciously convey unintended meanings. In this **regard, smile, a grimace, an a puzzled frown** all convey clear messages. **Eye contact** is importa since the eyes provide most listeners with information about t speaker's sincerity, goodwill, and flexibility.

Gestures

Gestures however have vague meanings but they communica Even though they have vague meanings they are strong, natural he to speaking so they should be properly managed.

3.1.5.9   How to Judge a Good Speech

Considering the qualities of good speeches, one can righ say that every good speech develops from a wise selection of t topic, commitment on the part of the speaker, active audien participation, appropriateness of the speech design and skill in t language of presentation (Ogbulogo, 2004:168)

After listening to a particular speech one would then

(i)   How is the purpose of the speech reflected?

(ii)   Why is the purpose well adapted to the audience

(iii)   Has the speaker made some attempt to analyse knowled needs and interest of his audience adapt to them?

(iv)   How suitable is the topic to the audience?

(v)   How does the speaker capture the audience's interest?

(vi)   Is the thesis of the speech clearly stated?

3.1.6   Classical Theory

3.1.6.1   The Origin of Rhetoric

The Origin of Rhetoric dates back to the third and forth centuries B. C. The names of Greek writers that are outstanding in this regard are: Plato, Marcus Tulluis Ceciro, Quintillion, St. Augustine and Aristotle - who is an acclaimed father of rhetoric (Onukaogu, 1997:116).

Rhetoric as one of the liberal arts at that time was seen as a means of developing good communication skills for public speaking. The development of rhetoric has been mostly encouraged by the **need for the public speaker to present a particular issue persuasively** apart from its **previous use in mostly litigations**. Efficient speakers were therefore judged based on their **persuasive ability.** Later on certain scholars began to offer some forms of systematic instruction in rhetoric as a form of persuasive communication who claimed expertise in rhetoric and named themselves the '**sophists**'.

3.1.6.2   The Meaning of Rhetoric

Rhetoric is generally seen as the logic of grammar but it is also understood to embrace a persuasive means of communication which focuses on ways of bringing about a change in the thinking of the listener as desired by the persuader (Onukaogu, 1997:117).

For one to have a peaceful reaction and direct thoughts of the

ceremonial occasions like funerals, triumphs, dedications and anniversaries.

Finally, rhetoric is not without underlying principles just as other professions. The principles which are often referred to as ethos (appeals) are: logical appeal, ethical appeal and emotional appeal.

Logic simply implies reasoning correctly while **ethiccal** appeal concerns the perception of the audience about the speaker. The word ethos (ethics) is used to describe the influence of the personality of the speaker on the audience, while emotional appeal borders on how the speech appeal to the emotion of the audience. This can be done or achieved by relating the speaker's proposition to the needs and values of the audience. On the whole, one should avoid rhetorical fallacies. Apart from speaking skills, the next language skill of prime importance is listening skills which the next unit seeks to examine.

Listening Skills

The preoccupation of this unit is mostly to define listening, examine the nature of listening and how effective listening skills can be developed.

3.23.1 Striving to Define Listening

It is the submission of Nta (1998:74) that:

listening is a complex of linguistic skill, cognitive skill, social skill and non-linguistic judgment by the listener. Listening involves propositional identification, inference and interpretation of illocutionary force, and activation of real world knowledge... a lot still needs to be done in

listening pedagogy..

Listening is believed to be a receptive skill involves cognitive processing. Listening activity embraces interpretative component which involves extra-linguistic variables like speaker, setting, shared knowledge and background knowledge that in turn lead to comprehension. In this respect, listening is different from hearing since effective listening involves comprehension.

In the view of Anderson (1980), 'Comprehension is in a sense recursive, rather than a linear process; and involves perceptual processing, passing and utilization.' Apart from the above view on comprehension which is tightly linked to listening, in an attempt to shed more light on psychological cognitive approach to listening, Nta (1998:72) remarks, that,

perceptual processing of salient aspects of the verbal input is essential before the information can be decoded and Summarized during passing. At the utilization phase of this comprehension framework, background and world knowledge that is, schematic knowledge is simultaneously involved with bottom-up processing to effect modification, synthesis or transformation of information..

This goes without saying that the listener in this respect is reasonably involved in meaning construction. Based on 'Relevance Theory', Communication is a collaborative process that involves ostension (production of signals by a speaker) and inference (contextualizing those signals by a hearer) (Rost 1990). In this respect, a listener's ability to understand what the speaker presents depends on the listener's ability to find relevant links between the speaker's message and what the speaker himself means based on the listener's

background knowledge. The said links will further depend on dimensions of meaning.

If listening is to be successful, the listener certainly has roles to play since a listener's involvement in the verbal interaction in most cases determines how well one listens. The listener can be a participant, an addressee, an auditor or audience member, an overhearer and a judge (Mc Gregor, 1986).

One is a participant if one is being spoken to directly without equal speaking rights in the discourse. The addressee is a person that is being spoken to directly but without the total right to respond while an auditor is a member of an audience addressed directly but not usually expected to respond.

The **over-hearer** is not addressed per se but is within ear shots though he is not expected to respond. Finally the judge listens and reacts through pronouncements. The various roles of a listener make for a collaborative discourse as in a verbal context. One listens based on a given purpose and the said purpose corresponds to a particular type of listening, as examined in the next unit.

3.2.2 Types of Listening

Four types of listening and a corresponding purpose to each have been identified by Rost (1990) being:

(i)   **Transactional Listening** - for the purpose of learning new information.

(ii)   **Interactional Listening** - meant to recognize personal components of the message.

(iii) **Critical Listening** - evaluating reasoning and evidence.

(iv) **Recreational Listening** - appreciating random or integrated

information.

Notably, the above forms are not mutually exclusive since each of them can still be incorporated within any other.

In academic discourse listening appears tedious. Academic discourse can be through lecture, seminar, etc. During lectures, information is clearly condensed while the listener has the task of processing such information, thereby involving transactional and critical listening. For the listener to participate meaningfully, he must seek clarification and check his understanding of the subject by resorting to appropriate query and repair.

A query provides an avenue for indicating lack of understanding through the use of questions, statements and non-verbal gestures. This may lead to repair in the form of elaboration, re-statement and exemplification (Nta, 1998: 75). Listening is influenced by many factors. The next part of this chapter will examine some of the factors.

3.2.3 Factors that Hinder Effective Listeiling

Factors that affect or hinder effective listening range from linguistic factors, stylistic considerations, information organization, Speaker/Listener-referent relationship, content knowledge, inference to psychological factors (Nta, 1998: *75-77).*

In view of linguistic factors, features of language such as phonological code which has to do with speech sounds, syntactic code — dealing with word classes, word order, etc, and semantic code which borders on cultural meaning, idiomatic meaning, etc should be taken seriously because if not well applied, listening will be impaired

Considering stylistic issues, style pertains to the way or manner in which a particular person uses the language or presents his message. It could be in terms of rate of speaking, accent, idiosyncratic errors,

use of ungrammatical forms, etc. The listener may find it difficult to adjust to speaker's idiolect.

In terms of information organization, the organizational structure in question may dwell on a narrative text, scientific or literary presentation. During delivery, if the sequencing of the text (formal schemata) does not promote effective listening attitude in the listener, then the exercise is bound to fail. The speaker may disrupt the sequence by introducing a digression of high diction which may also impede comprehension. In this sense, the absence of visual aids, maps, etc where necessary will certainly not promote good organization of the text.

Speaker/listener-referent relationship borders on the positions displayed by the speaker and the listener during activities that involve speaking and listening. In different academic listening contexts, the positions may be static, dynamic and abstract. When it is static, it means the relationship is just fixed or unitary. A dynamic relationship allows for creativity and involvement in the exercise while an abstract relationship calls for evaluation, and analysis of some other person's ideas. On the whole, the way the said relationship is handled also determines the outcome of the listening activity/Communication.

Content knowledge is simply how familiar one is with the subject matter at hand. Inadequate content knowledge in a related area based on previous knowledge may reduce comprehension. This directly leads to inference which is the ability to make Connections between what one hears and what one knows. Where there is an unfavourable knowledge gab or difficulty in establishing such connection, the exercise also becomes difficult.

Psychological factors affect listening in terms of the listener being tired or the listener's state of preparedness not being quite favourable.

Generally viewed, apart from the above mentioned factors, since the noise element in the communication process is anything that distorts meaning or affects the reception of a given message,

one can clearly reason that factors that affect listening could be said as being holistic since the decoder, code, encoder, social setting, and medium are all involved in the noise factor. The next part of this chapter will focus on possible ways of encouraging or enhancing listening.

3.2.4 Different Ways of Enhancing Listening

Listening is usually seen to run across three stages: activities that pertain to listening before the actual listening exercise; the active listening period and activities that follow the actual listening period in the form of post listening activities. For a result-oriented listening exercise, the listener must conduct himself in a manner that will enhance effective listening.

Before the actual listening exercise where there is verbal text, there are pre-listening activities like, brainstorming where the listener is expected to share the previous knowledge or background knowledge. The listener should also prepare his mind for onset-questions as he will be given questions on title or topic for answers to be elicited. There should be a direct listening- thinking activity by giving the listener predetermined areas of the listening text to hear and predict how they will developed and later made to measure such predictions know if they are correct.

There should be good auditory sensitization by listening attentively with reasonable concentration in order to recognize the phonological differences between Nigerian languages and the English language even as he prepares to interpret the verbal text. The listener should endeavour to master the application of stress, intonation and tones in the language. During the active listening period, the listener should 'tune in' when important information or new points are given and 'tune off' during digression.

During listening, effective note-taking strategies should be

adopted by the listener. Here, one should make use of discourse markers that signal contrast, emphasis, etc without losing sight of good supportive evidence established through illustration, explanation, etc. The listener should also follow the thematic development and focus through specific lexical items and narrative sequence prediction. Topic sentences, headings and subheadings will also guide the listener in thematic development.

After the actual listening period, post-listening activities should be carried out in form of questions or summary exercises to assess the effectiveness of the listening exercise.

In conclusion, listening is seen here as the ability to interpret a given verbal text meaningfully with great reliance on the listener's background knowledge, inferences, etc. It is hoped that the listening skills discussed here if well applied, would raise the student to the next rung of the ladder in learning in view of his quest to develop result -driven study skills. The next section is designated for writing skills.

3.3 Writing Skills

Writing is an important aspect of language skills. As earlier mentioned, language is dual in nature (expressed **phonically** - through speech sounds and **graphically**-through letters of the alphabet). This implies that language involves speech and writing. Since speech is conducted in a manner that conforms to laid down rules like articulating the speech sounds properly: by observing stress, intonation, etc, writing should also be made to conform to set rules that will make a given piece of writing meaningful or readable. In the light of this, qualities of good writing organization and other aspects of writing will be examined in this section of the work.

3.3.1 The Qualities of Good Writing

Apart from legibility in writing, correct spelling of words, good grammatical order in the light of correct tenses and sentences construction, semantic appropriateness, the actual qualities of any good piece of writing centre on economy, clarity and simplicity as examined below:

3.3.1.1. Economy

In the words of struck and white as cited in Eko, 1991:1 on economy,

a sentence should contain no unnecessary words, for the same reason that a drawing should have no unnecessary lines and a machine no unnecessary parts. This requires that the writer makes all his sentences short or that he avoids all detail... but that every word tells.

Good economical is therefore likened to good writing since it does not place severe task on the reader and still provides reasonable information. To achieve this, wordiness should be avoided. Sense of form and good diction should be encouraged. Notably, economy should not take away meaning. Rather, one should present the message in an adequate number of words to convey one's meaning accurately and directly by being concise.

3.3.1.2. Clarity

In writing, ideas should be expressed or conveyed in a clear and orderly manner. The writer should avoid vagueness and obscurity.

If an expression is vague, it has no meaning. Why bother to express or present a vague message if the intention is to make the writing effective? Many ideas and materials are difficult to understand or interpret. If the writer does not present them in a clear manner then the more difficult it would be. Clarity enhances comprehension and makes the writing reasonably effective.

3.3.1.3   Simplicity

In terms of style, a good writer is not really associated with pompous or complex language. Inasmuch as one does not present bare-bone sentences, one should not be stiff in writing. Apart from the qualities of good writing, effective organization of any piece of writing deserves favourable attention. This is considered in the next section.

3.3.2 Organization/Paragraphing

The various parts of a given piece of writing should be well organized to achieve effectiveness. This is made possible through words, sentences and paragraphs. The outstanding issues to be examined here are: qualities of a good paragraph, paragraph development and types of paragraphs.

3.3.2.1   Qualities of a Good Paragraph

A good paragraph must have unity, emphasis, good length, coherence and should be well developed. In terms of unity, singleness of purpose or unity should be seen as an essential quality of a good paragraph and good writing. A paragraph should also be seen as a unit of thought around one main idea. In this regard, all examples, details and illustrations in a given paragraph must be directly related to that one idea.

In line with emphasis, the sentence in a paragraph which expresses the controlling idea is known as the topic sentence. It is

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advisable for the sentence to be placed at the beginning of the paragraph to provide a focus or guideline that will prevent the writer from wandering off the topic. In the words of Pink and Thomas, 1981: 109 on emphasis they claim that:

> *just as emphasis is necessary to bring out the point of a sentence, it must also be secured in the building up of a paragraph. The most important part of a paragraph, the topic sentence, must be stressed, and its position in the 'paragraph is, therefore, the first consideration. It will gain emphasis if placed at the beginning, for it can then be developed through out the rest of the paragraph.*

One has to be careful in the handling of emphasis here which is mostly controlled by the topic sentence. Prolific writers present the topic sentence in the middle or end of the paragraph but this may not favour less mature writers.

On the length of the paragraph, Eko, 1999:15 has argued that 'there is no rule about the length of a paragraph. The subject at hand determines the length of the material. It is good practice to vary the length of your paragraph for change of pace, emphasis and simple variety'. Beginners are advised to avoid very long paragraphs since they may find difficulty in keeping the main idea clearly before the reader, thereby violating the principle of unity. In the same vein, there is need to guard against writing a series of very short paragraphs.

In terms of **coherence**, one is considering smooth progression of thought from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph and from one idea to the other. For one to achieve coherence, one's material should be arranged logically with appropriate transitional words and phrases (examined under essay writing). Transitional words and phrases link sentences, paragraphs and ideas. Moreover, there should be consistency of tone and point of view throughout the

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writing. For the writing to be efficient, the paragraphs must be well developed. This is examined fully in the next part.

3.3.2.2 Paragraph Development

A good paragraph not only sticks to one subject but develops it sufficiently to create a rounded and reasonably complete picture for the reader. This can be done through specific examples; specific details; specific illustrations; and specific reasons (Eko, 1999:15). Paragraph can also be developed through comparison and contrast, definition, cause and effect technique, classification, etc. (Eyo, 2000:83).

Examples in sufficient quantity help to prove a point or support a statement thereby serving as factual illustrations. Paragraphs can therefore be developed through examples.

Details also account for proper consideration of paragraph development as they fill in a picture. They add meaning to the strings of ideas expressed in the writing as they make up the whole in terms of data and enumeration.

Illustrations which are mostly in the form of anecdotes or examples of factual happenings supporting a general statement are more effective in narrative and descriptive writings.

In an argumentative writing, reasons and factual evidence supported by statistics and logic also help to make an argument convincing. Reasons, which answer the 'why' of statements must be founded on facts in order to be valid in arguments.

Comparison and contrast as one of the methods of paragraph development is quite relevant to argument and to examinations demanding such tasks as 'compare and contrast'. 'Compare' no doubt focuses on points of similarities while 'contrast' borders on points of differences. Paragraph development through definition appears

to be most appropriate for introductory paragraphs where the title need to be defined. Moreover, certain concepts and terms that form a crucial part of the paragraph may also be defined (whether it is in line with sentence definition or expanded definition).

Cause and **effect** method of paragraph development is most suitable for areas that demand one to discuss the causes and effects of a particular phenomenon. In this case, after the topic sentence, there is need to present the causes of the event and the effects in the last part of the paragraph.

Finally, development through classification demands grouping items in their natural classes especially in the description of a process such as manufacturing, building, etc. It is of immense benefit to have a fair knowledge of the different types of paragraphs. They are examined in the next part of the work.

3.3.2.3 Types of Paragraphs

Paragraphs can be classified based on obvious functions they perform and form, structure/physical outlook as examined below.

Function: Based on function as seen in an essay, there must be an introductory paragraph that states clearly the purpose of the essay and rouses the interest of the reader. Apart from the introductory paragraph, subsequent paragraphs constitute the body of the writing which will elaborate on the thesis of the essay or the message. Finally, there must be a concluding paragraph to summarize the points raised in the body.

Form/Physical outlook: The form or physical outlook of a paragraph can be viewed in terms of: Indented, hanging and blocked.

(a) **The Indented Paragraph**
In an indented paragraph, the first word of the line is indented

to the right. This is the commonest one as compared to others.

(b) The Hanging Paragraph

In a hanging paragraph, the first line of the Paragraph projects against the indented type (starting from the margin) while the remaining lines are indented. Though it is mostly used in official letters, it is not as popular as the other two.

(c) The Blocked paragraph

In a blocked paragraph, the first line and all subsequent lines start at the same point. This is mostly fashionable in business correspondence but one clear line spacing should be observed between paragraphs in the blocked paragraph.

Examples:

(a) Indented Paragraph

Dramatic technique is the manner in which the series of conversations forming a play are arranged.
Poetic devices involve personae analogue and omniscient technique as major devices.

(b) Hanging paragraph

Dramatic technique is the manner in which the series of conversations forming a play are arranged.
Poetic devices involve personae, analogue and omniscient technique as major devices.

(c) Blocked Paragraph

Dramatic technique is the manner in which the series of conversations forming a play are arranged.
Poetic devices involve personae, analogue and omniscient technique as major devices.

To achieve effectiveness in any piece of writing the various rules on paragraphing should be adhered to. The last aspect of language skills being reading skills will be examined in the next part.

3.4 Reading Skills

Reading involves the acquisition of ideas by analyzing, anticipating, evaluating, comparing and contrasting based on mental alertness. When one reads, one should gather the meaning from what one has read. One should infer meaning from the material since reading is a thinking process. This will partly depend on the ability of the reader to appreciate the style of the writer and understand the language of the writer. To improve, one's different types of reading material should be selected and the reader should be encouraged to read them by adopting a given reading method that suits the purpose of reading. While reading, one should note the following:

(i) Avoid moving the head. Rather, only the eyes should rotate to recognise at least four words at each fixation. One should focus on the middle of the group of words and take in the rest of the words on both sides with peripheral vision.

(ii) Vocalization and sub vocalization should be applied as the need arises.

(iii) All principles governing good reading habits should be adopted especially in terms of reading speed.

(iv) Use linguistic clues and rely more on contextual meaning rather than the dictionary.

(v) The reader should increase his vocabulary in order to enhance the understanding of the material being read.

(vi) Adopt relevant reading skills like that of anticipation, utilizing information, referring to graphic conventions, illustration, diagrams, etc.

3.4.1 Types of Reading

Reading exercises can be described or categorized based on a given reading purpose. Moreover, a particular reading purpose calls for a favourable reading method and technique/skill to be adopted. Generally, one can discuss types of reading based on **intensive reading** which aims at an in-depth and detailed understanding of a given text which is usually done through somebody's guidance. One can also be involved in **extensive reading**, which aims at a wide and comprehensive form of reading. Other types of reading are: Scanning, skimming, Search reading, study reading, critical reading, receptive reading and creative (responsive reading).

Scanning is the skill used for finding specific information quickly, a word in the dictionary, the answer to a particular question, etc. It involves running the eyes over materials without reading it, until the item sought for is recognized.

Skimming is a way of rapid reading for understanding, though total comprehension may not really be necessary then.

Search reading is an advanced form of scanning. Here the reader does not know the exact wording or appearance of what he needs. He may not even know its location. This means that the reader does not have a good mental image of what he needs.

Study-Type reading is commonly applied in an ordinary sense when

the reader, apart from the general ideas, needs detailed information on the subject for assimilation, preservation and possible retrieval. Key points, supporting details and the general argument in the text should be noted.

Critical reading is evaluative in nature as it calls for the reader's ability to examine the writer's point of view and presentation of facts, know when the writer is expressing a mere opinion, examine the writer's source of information noting how reliable it is, examine how logical the writer is in his argument generally, etc. Moreover, reading can be **receptive** in nature when the reader actually covers accurately what the author has in mind to convey by examining properly important parts of the text while **responsive reading** is mostly understood in terms of the response that the message provokes in the reader. This is when the reader reads a particular novel and becomes emotionally involved in the experiences of a given character by putting himself in the position of the character.

In conclusion, one should note that, in practice, the different types of reading merge one with another and can be said to be used in combination in most cases. Apart from general reading skills which have formed the focus of this section of the book, reading comprehension which appears to be problematic to most students, will be examined in the next section.

3.4.2 Techniques of Reading Comprehension Passages

There is need for one to acquire the necessary techniques or skills in tackling a comprehension passage. The various steps or stages that are intended to equip the readers meaningfully for this exercise are examined below.

3.4.2.1 The Reader Should Determine the Reading Purpose

Apart from the fact that there is need for the reader to be mentally alert, he should determine the reading purpose. The reading purpose may be mainly for pleasure, general knowledge, evaluation etc. The reading purpose determines the reading method or skill and reading speed. It has already been stated in this work that, scanning is used in terms of finding specific information (which is already known), while skimming will likely present a general overview of the text by glancing over it.

3.4.2.2 The Passage Should be Previewed

The reader should familiarize himself with the passage by seeking to know if the topic is a familiar one, the questions he is expected to answer, if the sentences are lengthy and complex, if the diction is simple (in terms of choice of words), if there are visual aids to indicate print-types for main headings and sub-headings, topic sentences, etc.

3.4.2.3 Adapt an Appropriate Reading Technique to Read and Interpret the Text

Reading for details should be the approach at this level. In essence, the reader will establish the exact meanings of words, phrases and sentences. While reading, the reader should note the following:

(i)   He should read meaningful phrases by focusing on the middle of group of words and read such words and meaningful phrases that convey the meanings and ideas the writer seeks to present instead of relying on individual words.

(ii)   Appropriate linguistic clues should be used to enhance comprehension. Linguistic markers that show contrast, cause and

effect, emphasis, etc. should be meaningfully utilized. Moreover, there is need to have a favourable vocabulary. While reading, one should rely more on contextual meaning rather than denotative meaning since denotative meanings of words may differ from situational meaning implied in the passage. One should not refer to the dictionary while reading except as a last resort.

(iii)   While reading, one should endeavour to achieve **literal comprehension** by differentiating main points from sub-points without losing sight of supporting details. Brief notes should be taken in the course of doing this. Note that main points are usually presented through topic sentences.

(iv)   One should also be conscious of **critical comprehension** as the reader is expected to distinguish facts from opinion, bias, propaganda, etc.

(v)   **Aesthetic comprehension** should be achieved by showing proper understanding and appreciation of the style of the writer in terms of diction, figures of speech, etc.

(vi)   Interpretation of the text can also be done by:

(a)   Utilisation of non-text information
(b)   Word attack skills
(c)   Text attack skills
(d)   Questions.

3.4.2.4 Answering Questions Based on the Comprehension Passage.

In order to answer the questions correctly, one should interpret and understand the passage correctly. The following points should

be noted while answering the questions.

* Read the question and note the keywords to know what they demand from the reader.

* Search for the answer in the passage by reading thoughtfully and thoroughly.

* When the answers are found, recast the writer's ideas in your own words (reader's words) and avoid repeating the words of the passage because using the writer's words portrays deficiency in understanding the passage and lack of adequate vocabulary on the part of the reader.

  In the course of answering these questions, avoid vagueness. Rather, qualities of good writing should be adopted which include: economy, clarity and conciseness.

* Answers to comprehension passages should be based on the context or the passage and not the personal opinion of the reader except it is demanded.

  In conclusion, success in a given reading comprehension exercise depends largely on the reader's ability to read and interpret the passage correctly. This will be measured through the comprehension questions. While answering the questions, one should therefore read the passage thoroughly and answer the questions based on the passage except otherwise stated in the questions. Attention will be given to uses of the dictionary in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY SKILLS: USING THE DICTIONARY

Introduction

It is of immense benefit with regard to study skills for the student to know how to use the dictionary. The English dictionary provides entries through a list of words, it links words together, provides meanings of idioms and phrases, present foreign expressions used in English, etc. as examined below.

4.1. Entries

Words are arranged in alphabetical order in a dictionary. Each word is defined separately with illustrations through examples and cross references. Words are also classified into various parts of speech as well as being transcribed. The phonetic symbols provide suitable guidelines on how to pronounce each word. In this vein, every entry in the dictionary begins with a headword, followed by information on pronunciation (as the word is transcribed). The word is also classified based on parts of speech: if it is a noun, whether it is countable or uncountable; technical, formal or informal; based on language variety: British or American English, borrowed word from Latin, French, etc.

Examples:

Anaemia (Us anemia) /∂'n1:m1∂/n[U] (medical) a condition of the blood caused by a lack of red cells.

Anaemic (Us anemic) /∂'n1:m1K/adj.
(1) Sufferering from anaemia: She looks anaemic.
(2) Lacking force or requiring vigour; weak: an anaemic performance.

Anaerobic /ˌæ neðˈrɔub1k /adj (technical).
Not having or requiring oxygen: anaerobic bacteria.

4.2   Word Formation

Words are formed from simple (root) words through affixation, which is the addition of words to the root words before the root word (prefix) or the addition of words to the root words after such word (suffix).
Example:

Happy -   <u>Un</u>happy (prefix)
Unhappi<u>ness</u> (suffix)

4.3   Linking Words Together

To use a word correctly, one has to link it to other words. Apart from providing entries of words and defining them, the dictiona... also provides information on the syntax of the English language whic... simply means the way words are arranged to form sentences. Issu... like, compounds, collocation, intensifiers, etc are considered here.

(i) Compounds

A compound is a noun, an adjective or a verb that has be... created from two or more simple words. The second word of... compound may follow the first after a space, or it may be link... more closely to it with a hyphen.

Examples:
Car park,
Swimming - pool,
Daughter - in-law,

Middle - of - the - road,
Editor - in - chief.

Notably, it is common for a compound to be wrongly spelt: either being written as a single word or without space or hyphen. The dictionary provides the correct form of each compound.

(ii)   Collocation

This is the combination of words in phrases and sentences

Example:
Meals will be served outside on the terrace, weather allowing.
This means that meals will be served outside if the weather is quite clement or good. The collocation 'weather allowing' sounds odd to a native speaker of English since the combination is not 'weather allowing' but weather permitting'. In this case the native speaker knows because he has been reasonably exposed to it unlike the non-native speaker who has to learn with enormous task before discovering the correct collocation. Notably, permit and allow have similar meaning but only permit is appropriate in this context. Reference can also be made of:

A **thick forest** and a **dense forest**

The two expressions have the same meaning but the expression, 'dense hair' is wrong while 'thick hair' is correct because 'dense' does not collocate with hair.

It is also possible to analyze different texts through a computer to ascertain words that are typically used with others. This collection is known as corpus (corpora or corpuses for **plural**). Through a corpus, the computer will present a list of words used with hair such as: long, black, dark, brown, cut, grey, blonde, short, red, curly, dry, thick, etc. The corpus shows that the noun 'hair' combines with a

range of adjectives describing its colour, length and texture.

(iii) Intensifiers

These are words especially adjectives or adverbs which strengthen the meaning of other words. The most common intensifier is 'very' which is used before many adjectives. Notably, a specific intensifier collocates with a particular adjective as seen below:

Table 5: Intensifiers

S/N	Intensifiers	Adjectives
1	Vitally	important
2	acutely	aware
3	heartily	sick
4	deadly	serious
5	Supremely	confident
6	highly	successful

In order to use the language well, there is need to know the nouns that a particular adjective is used with; the verbs that are used with a particular noun; the adverbs that are used with a particular verb; the prepositions that are used with a particular verb, adjective etc.

Examples:

i.   Verbs and Nouns
     put on/apply/release the brake(s)

ii. Verbs and Adverbs
     To complain bitterly (not strongly)
     Prepositions and Nouns/Verbs

iii One gets compensation for something (not of **something**)
     To congratulate on (not for).

4.4   Idioms and Phrases

Dictionaries present the meanings of idioms as well as phrases. The dictionary helps us to use idioms as well as to understand them and shows us if we can add other words to an idiomatic expression. We can add either straight or right to the idiom **'hit somebody in the eye'** as we have in:

> Hit somebody **(straight/right)** in the eye.

This means to be very obvious or noticeable to somebody: **the mistake hit me straight in the eye**. The dictionary also shows us parts of an idiom we can change.

Example:

In the phrase **'any/every** Tom, Dick and Harry' which means an ordinary person, one can use either any or every, but cannot change the names or their order.

For more examples, consult Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms.

4.5   Foreign Expressions Used in English

The Dictionary also presents Latin and French expressions that are frequently used in the English language.

Examples: Latin

In loco	-	acting for or instead of a parent;
parentis	-	having the responsibility of a parent

French

En bloc	-	all together,
	-	all at the same time
Fiance	-	(male)
Fiancee	-	(female)

From these two words, 'fiance' refers to the man to whom a woman is engaged or has promised to marry, while 'fiancee' refers to the woman to whom a man is engaged to.

CHAPTER FIVE

ISSUES IN THE GRAMMAR AND MECHANICS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Introduction

This chapter seeks to examine topical issues associated with the grammar of the English language on the one hand and the mechanics of the English language on the other. Areas of concern are: parts of speech, the English sentence and concord (for grammar) while mechanics will emphasize punctuation marks.

5.1 Parts of Speech

Generally, sentences are made up of words. Words are later combined to form new sentences. Grammar describes how the combination is done. In the words of Eka, 1994:1-2,. 'grammar deals with the rules which govern combinations of words and groups of words to bring about meaningful sentences'. Each word in a sentence belongs to a particular set or class depending on how it is used. These classes are called parts of speech. There are eight traditional parts of speech as examined below.

A **noun** is a word that labels a thing or an idea.

Examples: table, beauty, etc.

Nouns are sometimes called naming words.

Pronouns are used when we do not feel the need to repeat the same noun in a sentence It therefore becomes a substitute for a i.

noun.

Example: The students are inquisitive and desperate so they asked their lecturer when their results would be published.

An **adjective** gives further information about a noun. Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words'

Example: A **beautiful** girl.

A **verb** informs us about an action or a state of being.

Examples: He **travels** to London every year (action)
Mary is a studious student (state of being)

An **adverb** gives information about the way an action is performed or when and where it takes place. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

Examples: The man chuckled softly.
The bread is **quite** nice.
Certainly the pain has been misplaced.

A **preposition** is a word placed before a noun or pronoun to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else (Wren and Martin, 2003:128).

A preposition gives information about position, time, movement, etc.

A preposition forms adverb - phrases or adjective phrases.

When used with a noun, a preposition combines with it to do the work of an adverb as in:

i. He is coming **in the evening**   adverb phrases
ii. I found him **near** the gates
iii. The captain **of the ship** alone survived (adjective pharses)

Notably, a preposition is always followed by a noun or a pronoun.

Examples:
He walked by
He looked up   adverbs

He walked by the river
He looked up the street   Prepositions

A **conjunction** joins two words or clauses togetehr.
Examples: and, but, because, etc

Finally, an **interjection** expresses an emotion such as o! etc.

5.1.1.   Identification of Parts of Speech in Context

1   2   3   4   5
I   was too old a traveller to complain   but
6   7   8   9   10
Forwith ascended by a ladder into a species of
          11   12   13   14
loft, tolerably large and nearly empty. I placed my cloak
15   16 17   18
beneath my head and lay down on the boards which I
19   20   21   22
preferred   to the straw for more reasons than one

1	Pronoun	(I)
2	Verb	(was)
3	Adverb	(too)
4	Adjective	(old)
5	Conjunction	(but)
6	Adverb	(forthwith)
7	Preposition	(by)
8	Preposition	(into)
9	Noun	(species)
10	Preposition	(of)
11	Adverbs	(tolerably)
12	Adjective	(large)
13	Verb	(placed)
14	Adjective	(my - qualifying cloak)
15	Preposition	(beneath)
16	Adverb	(down)
17	Preposition	(on)
18	Pronoun	(which - **standing for board**)
19	Verb	(preferred)
20	Preposition	(to)
21	Adjective	(more - qualifying reasons)
22	Pronoun	(one - standing for reason)

5.1.2 Specific Functions of Parts of Speech

(1)   Nouns

A noun serves as subject, object and complement in a sentence.

(a)   Subject of a sentence

<u>Joseph</u> is a doctor

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(b)   **Object of a sentence**
The hunter killed the <u>animal</u>

(c)   **Complement of subject**
Jeremiah and Janet are <u>students</u>

(d)   **Complement of object**
The Rotary Club appointed <u>Edet</u>   <u>President</u>
                                    object   Complement

(e)   **Complement of prepositions**
I drove the car   <u>to</u>   <u>Uyo</u>
             Preposition   Complement

(ii)   Adjectives

(a)   Adjectives can function attributively. This takes place when an adjective appears before the noun and pre-modifies the noun.

Example: The <u>Major</u> point of the argument emerged.

(b)   Adjectives can function predicatively if the adjective is in a post - verbal position.

Example: The student is <u>brilliant</u>

(c)   Adjectives can function as post-modifiers when they feature immediately after the noun or pronoun they modify. They therefore post-modify the nouns or pronouns.

Example:
The funds <u>available</u> will not be enough for the project.

(d)   Adjectives can serve as the head of a Noun phrase.

Example: <u>The rich</u> are usually unmindful of <u>the poor</u>

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(iii) Adverbs

(a)   They modify verbs

Example: He solved the problem <u>quickly</u>

(b)   They modify adjectives

Example: Mary is <u>very</u> brilliant

(c)   They modify other adverbs

Example: They played <u>exceedingly</u> well.

(d)   Adverbs also modify prepositional phrases.

Example: We are <u>quite</u>   <u>on time</u> for the lecture
           adv   prep. Phrase

(e)   They serve as Adjuncts

In this case they tell how, when, where, or to what extent the action of the verb is performed.

Examples: Fast, hard, quickly, slowly (how);
              Always, late, soon, yesterday (when);
              Away, here, outside (where);
              Badly, extremely, far, greatly (to what
              extent)

(f)   They serve as Disjuncts
      Here they express an attitude or viewpoint of the speaker.

Examples: Definitely, happily, honestly, possibly, seriously, etc.

(g)   As Conjuncts
These perform a connective function as they join two sentences or clauses together.

Example: Atim is poor, **yet** she is quite cheerful.

5.1.3 Classification of Parts of Speech

The various parts of speech that have more than one form are classified as follows:

Classification of Nouns

A word that is the name of a person, place, thing, quality, action, etc. Nouns are primarily of two kinds:

(a)   Proper Nouns,
(b)   Common Nouns

Proper Nouns:
Names of specific persons, places, things, events or the name of a particular thing distinguishing it from others of its class:

(i)   Persons   -   Peter, Mary, etc.

(ii)   Places   (a)   Continents - Africa, Asia, Europe.
                 (b)   Countries-Nigeria, Ghaña, Liberia.
                 (c)   Rivers-the Niger, the Benue, the Nile
                 (d)   Ministries/ Establishment -
                        Ministry of Health.

(e) Mountains — Everest, Kilimanjaro
(f) Institutions of learning - school of Nursing

(iii) Things: (a) Months of the year — Jan., March.
(b) Days of the week - Monday Tuesday, etc.
(c) Newspapers - the Daily Times, etc
(d) Names given to dogs/pets - Tiger, Rover, etc.

(iv) Events: (a) Festivals - Christmas, New year.
(b) General - Independence Day.

Common Nouns:

Names which apply generally: they do not specify the persons, objects or places they stand for.

Examples:

(a) Persons - man, boy, woman.
(b) Places - market, town, institution
(c) Objects (things) - crop, book, tree.
(d) Events - festival, concept, celebration.

Common nouns are of different kinds:
Concrete Nouns,
Collective nouns,
Abstract nouns.

A **concrete noun** is the name of something that we can see, hear, touch, smell, or taste.

A **collective noun** is the name of a collection of persons or things such as: crowd, flock, committee and staff.

An **abstract noun** is the name of a quality, state or action: goodness, childhood, flight, justice etc.
Abstract nouns therefore refer to qualities of thought or emotion. If an apple is good, we say that it has the quality of goodness.

Plurals of Compound Nouns: Words of two or more parts. In compound nouns, plurals are indicated in the last entry in most cases such as in the following:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Schoolmaster	Schoolmasters
Bedroom	Bedrooms
Fifty-naira note	Fifty-naira notes
Handful	Handfuls
Breakdown	Break downs
Grown-up	Grown-ups
Boyfriend	Boyfriend
Forget-me-not	Forget-me-nots

There are exceptions to the above -rules in other situations. For instance where there are two or more parts in a compound noun and one of the parts appears to be the operative - i.e. the more important or the most important part of the compound noun, the plural indicator goes with the operative as we have in:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Director- general	Directors-general
Attorney-general	Attorneys-general
Editor-in-chief	Editors-in-chief
Runner-up	Runners-up
Notary-public	Notaries-public
Grant-in-aid	Grants-in-aid
Commander-in-chief	Commanders-in-chief
Mother-in-law	Mothers-in-law
Father-in-law	Fathers-in-law

The last exception to the regular formation of plurals compound nouns has to do with the first and last parts. Thus, first and the final parts of the compound noun could have plur indicators mostly if the first part has the word man or woman.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Manservant	Menservants
Woman-doctor	Women - doctors
Man-nurse	Men-nurses
Gentleman-actor	Gentlemen-actors

Nouns can also be classified based on countable an uncountable as well as being described as a group noun.

Classification of Pronouns

Pronouns - Pronouns can be divided into about eig classes being:

(1) **Personal Pronouns**
Pronouns standing for the person speaking are said to be in th **first person** - I, me, we, us.

Pronouns standing for the person spoken to are said to be in the **second person** - you.
In the **third person** — he, him, she, her, it, they, them.

(2) Possessive Pronouns
These show ownership:

First Person	-	mine, ours
Second person	-	yours
Third Person	-	his, hers, its, theirs

Examples: That is mine, Was this hers? or this is hers

(3) **Emphasizing Pronouns**
The emphatic form of a person is realized by the addition of the suffix: - self (selves)
Example: The King himself was present

(4) **Reflexive Pronouns**
Pronouns under the reflexive also end in the surfix = self but quite distinguished from the emphatic use of it since the reflexive pronouns are used in the object.

Examples: He hurt himself.
He gained much honour for himself.

(5) **Demonstrative Pronouns**
Demonstrative pronouns point out the person or thing to which they refer. They are: this, these, that, those, such, same

Example: This is obvious

(6) **Interrogative Pronouns**
These are used in asking questions: who, whom, whose, which, what.

Examples: who is?

Whose is that?

What did he say?

What do you mean by that?

(7) Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns are: who (whom, whose) which, that, what.

Who indicates persons,

That indicates persons or things,

Which and **what** indicate things.

Examples:

(a) He is the only novelist of the time who will be remembered.

(b) The man to whom I was speaking with is the manager.

(c) He whose education is defective is handicapped in life.

(d) At the end of the drive was the house, which was very beautiful.

(e) This is the house that Jack built.

(f) What is done cannot be undone.

A relative pronoun acts both as a conjunction joining two clauses and a pronoun used as subject, object or after a preposition. It is called 'relative' because it relates to a noun or pronoun, which generally precedes it and which is called **the antecedent.**

The antecedents of the relative pronouns in sentences

(a) - (e) are:

(a) Novelist,

(b) Man,

(c) He,

(d) House,

(e) House,

(8) Pronouns of Number or Amount

These are:

(a) **Numerals** — one, two, etc.

Examples: Only one was found; He gave me four.

(b) **Vague Number** — any, all, each, few, much, many, etc.

Examples: All came to the meeting. Many are called, but few are chosen.

Classification of Verbs

A Transitive Verb:

This is a verb that denotes an action performed directly upon an object. The sense of a transitive verb is not complete without the object.

Examples:

(i) He built the house.

(ii) He strikes the boy

(iii) Ring the bell

(iv) He grows cabbages.

An Intransitive Verb

This denotes an action that is not performed upon an object and does not necessarily require an object for its meaning.

Examples:

(i) The clock strikes.

(ii) The bell rings.

An Auxiliary Verb

This is a verb that is not used alone but helps another verb to form a voice, tense or mood. They are: be, have, do, may, shall, will.

Examples:
(a)   I Shall write.
(b)   He may go.

A Finite Verb

A finite verb is capable of changing its form to show difference in time of event/tense form (whether present, ~ past, etc); nature of the verb in terms of singular or plural; subject (number of persons) etc.

Examples:
(1)   He works everyday.
(2)   They work everyday.
(3)   Now I work.
(4).   Yesterday I worked.

Non Finite Verb

This does not respond to changes seen in finite verbs. They are: **gerunds, Participles** and **Infinitives.**

(a)   Gerunds
They are marked by ing, serve as both verb and noun (verb noun).

Examples: (i)   **Gossiping** is her habit
(ii)   Ukeme likes **dancing**

(b)   **Participles**
These are -ing verb forms which serve as adjectives (verb adjectives)

xamples: (i) He is presenting a **fascinating** play.
(ii)   The story was very **interesting**.
(iii) He sang an **enticing** music.

(c)   **Infinitives**
These are verb forms functioning as nouns, adjectives or adverbs mostly preceded by to.

xamples: (i)   To dance is good.
(ii)   To pass examination is our goal.

Classification of Prepositions

Prepositions are classified based on the following:

i)   **Simple Prepositions:** at, by, for, from, in, of, off, on, out, through, till, to, up, with.

ii)   **Compound Prepositions** - generally formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun, an adjective or an 'adverb. They are: about, above, across, among, around, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, inside, outside, within.

(iii) **Phrase Prepositions** - group of words used with the force of a single preposition as in: according to, along with, by dint of, by virtue of, in lieu of, owing to etc.

Relations Expressed by Prepositions

(i)   Place: went <u>about</u> the city;
ran <u>across</u> the road;
leaned <u>against</u> a wall;
quarreled <u>among</u> themselves;
sat <u>beside</u> me;
marched <u>through</u> the town;
lay <u>under</u> the table; etc.

(ii) Time: from 10 October;

in the evening;

on Tuesday

through the night

within a month

by five o' clock, etc.

(iii) Agency, instrumentality:

sell goods at auction

send it by post

cut it with a knife

(iv) Manner: fought with courage

worked with eagerness;

won with ease

dying by inches

(v)   Cause, reason, purpose:

laboured for the good of humanity

died of fever

suffers from gout

(vi) Possession: no money on him

(vii) Measure, standard, rate, value:

charges interest at nine percent

cloth is sold, by the yard

(viii) Contrast, concession: in spite of

(ix) Inference, motive, source or origin:

his skill comes from practice.

Classification of Adjectives

Adjectives are classified into different classes sharing the nature of pronouns in most cases. The difference is that while an adjective is always used with a noun, a pronoun stands alone in place of a noun. They are examined below.

1. **Descriptive Adjectives**

They describe a person or thing.

Examples: good, beautiful, useful.

2. **Possessive Adjectives**

They show possession through words like: my, our, your, her, its, their, his.

Examples: Adjectives

(i)   This is my book.

(ii) I have found your coat.

(iii) Have you seen his book?

Example pronouns:

(i)   This is mine.

(ii) He said it was his.

(iii) Is that yours?

3. **Emphasizing Adjectives** - own and very.

Example:

The very dog shunned him.

4. **Demonstrative Adjectives** - this, that, these, those, such, same.

Examples:

(i)   He came to this town.

(ii) What are those marks?

Notably, demonstrative adjectives can be confused with demonstrative pronouns but they function differently in that while demonstrative pronouns point out the nouns they stand for, demonstrative adjectives point out the words they describe.

More examples:
(i)   That is the car I want (demonstrative pronoun)
(ii)   I want that car (demonstrative adjective)

5.   **Interrogative Adjectives**: what and which.
      Examples: **what** answer did you give?
                 which way did he go?

6.   **Relative Adjectives**: which and what are also used with nouns to introduce relative clauses.

Examples: Take which book you prefer (take that book which you   prefer).

7.   **Adjectives of Number or Amount** - including:
      (a)   Numerals.
      (b)   Indefinite Adjective.
Numerals:
      (i)   Cardinal Numerals: one boy, three men etc.
      (ii)   Ordinal numerals (denoting position in series)
             First place.
             Second place, etc.

Indefinite adjectives take the form of most indefinite pronouns.
Examples:
(i)   **Few** people were present.
(i)   **Other** people objected.

Classification of Adverbs

1.   **Simple Adverbs:** denoting time, place, manner, number, reason, degree, etc.
     Examples:
     *   He came late.
     *   They were working quietly there.
     *   He has run away once, etc.

2.   **Interrogative Adverbs:** used in asking questions.
     They are: where, when, how, why.
     Examples:
     1   Where did you see him?
     2   When will he come?
     3   How are you?
     4   Why do you say that?

3.   **Relative Adverbs:** They resemble relative pronouns in that they relate to an antecedent and also connect two clauses.

Examples:
     (i)   This is the town where he lived.
     (ii)   Tell me the reason why you act thus.

Classification of Conjunctions
Conjunctions are divided into two classes: Coordinating and Subordinating.

1.   **Coordinating Conjunction**
     This joins together clauses of equal rank.
     Examples: and, but, for, or, nor, also, either... or,
                 neither... nor.

Coordinating Conjunctions are of four kinds:

a. **Cumulative or Copulative**
This merely adds one statement to another.
Example: and

b. **Adversative**
This expresses opposition **or** contrast between two statements
Examples: but, still, only, etc.

c. **Disjunctive or Alternative**
This expresses a choice between two alternatives.
Examples: or, either, neither, etc.

d. **Illusive**
This expresses an inference.
Examples: for - as in, they did not take precaution, **for** I warned them.

Notably, any of the coordinating conjunctions, with the exception of or, and nor, may be omitted and its place taken by a comma, semi-colon or colon as in: Many are called, few are chosen.

2. Subordinating Conjunction

A Subordinating Conjunction joins a clause to another on which it depends for its meaning. This means it is a dependent clause that is joined to the main clause for the dependent clause to realize its meaning.

Examples: after, because, if, that, though, although, till, before, unless, as, when, where, while.

Subordinating Conjunctions are classified based on the following:

(i) Time
Many things have happened since then.

(ii) Cause or Reason
Since you wish it, it shall be done.

(iii) Purpose
We studied well so that we may pass.

(iv) Result or Consequence
He worked so hard that he was completely exhausted.

(e) Condition
We may attend the party if invited.

(f) Concession - using though or although

(g) Comparison - using than.

5.2 Concord
As reasoned by Eka, 1994:181, 'concord is generally used in English in the sense of agreement, harmony or cordial relationship.' The following steps should be noted considering the rules of concord:

1. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person. The verb should agree with its proper subject thereby avoiding error of proximity.

Example:
His knowledge of Nigerian languages is far beyond the ordinary.

2. Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by 'and' require a plural verb.

Examples:
(a) Fire and water **do** not agree.
(b) Ekaette and Ant **are** good students.

Notably, if the nouns suggest one idea to the mind, or refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular.

Examples:
(a) Time and tide **waits** for no man.
(b) The chairman and managing Director of the company **is** a responsible man.

3. Words joined to a singular subject by **with, as well as, etc** are parenthetical. The verb in this case remains singular.

Example
(a) The house, <u>with</u> its contents was insured.
(b) The chairman, <u>as well as</u> his councillors is to be honoured.

4. Two or more singular subjects that are joined by or <u>or</u> nor require a singular verb.

Examples:
(a) Neither the student nor the lecturer is to blame.
(b) Your failure or your success depends largely on your effort.

5. If one of the subjects joined by or or nor is plural, the verb should be plural, if the subject nearer it is plural.

Example: Neither the mother nor her children **are** happy.

6. Either, neither, each, everyone, and many a, must be followed by a singular verb.

Example
(a) Everyone is guilty
(b) Each of these substances is produced here.
(c) Many a man has done so.

7. Two nouns that are qualified by each or every, even when they are joined together by and, should be used with a singular verb.

Example: Every student and every lecturer **was** rewarded by the rector.

8. Nouns that are plural in nature but singular in meaning attracts singular verb.

Examples:
(a) The news is true.
(b) The wages of sin is death.

9. Pains and means take either singular or plural verb but where means is used in the sense of income, it attracts a plural verb.

Examples:
(a) The possible means **has/have** been tried.
(b) My means of livelihood **were** reduced.

Apart from subject and verb agreement, the agreement that affects a pronoun and its antecedent should also be taken into consideration. In this vein, a pronoun agrees with its antecedent involving 'one' and 'everybody' in the following ways:

- One should be mindful of **one's** dealings with people.
- <u>Everybody</u> is expected to hand **his** assignment script in by midday.

5.3   The Sentence

A sentence is a group of words that usually contains a subject and a verb, expresses a complete idea or asks a question and that, when written in English, begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop or any other relevant punctuation mark.

The sentence is the highest unit of grammatical structure. The study of word form and how the function of a word varies according to its form is also part of grammatical structure. Five grammatical units are involved: the **sentence,** the **clause,** the **phrase,** the **word and morpheme.**

The sentence consists of one or more clauses; the clause of one or more phrases; the phrase of one or more words; and the word of one or more morphemes. The morpheme is therefore the smallest meaningful unit of grammar in the language.

5.3.1 Sentence Elements

It is the view of Eka, 1994: 40 that:

a sentence in English, particularly a formal one, usually, has two or more elements: a subject and a predicate. The subject is usually the noun or the pronoun... but the subject can also be a noun phrase. It is the subject which is usually indicated as the focus of attention. The predicate is normally the remaining part of the sentence - the information about the subject.

The English sentence is capable of highlighting five (5) elements being: subject(s), verb(v), complement(c), object(o), and Adverbial (A). The subject as already mentioned is the focus of

attention in the sentence which the predicate gives information about.

Example

<u>Ikwo</u> is a good girl.

The **verb** element is a word which denotes an action or a state of being.

Examples:

(i)   Mary <u>is</u> a workaholic (state of being).

(ii)   I have just <u>drunk</u> a bottle of wine (action).

Complement is a word or a phrase especially a noun or an adjective that follows a verb and describes especially a noun or pronoun that comes before it. There are three types of complement being: the subjective complement; the objective complement; and the Adjectival Complement (Eyoh,2000:17).

The **Subjective Complement** is the noun or noun equivalent which follows a BE verb in a sentence thereby complementing the subject in the sentence.

Example:

Ndiana is <u>our group leader.</u>

The underlined part of the sentence complements the subject. Notably, the underlined part of the sentence can also take the place of the subject but it should be noted that since the BE verb has no action to offer this should not be regarded as the object of the sentence.

In the case of the **objective complement,** it is mostly possible where the sentence contains a transitive verb with its object which serves as the objective complement be it a noun or a noun equivalent.

Example:

Asuquo was appointed a <u>deputy group leader.</u>

(Objective complement)

The **adjectival complement** is realized in a situation where the complementing structure is an adjective qualifying the subject of a verb to BE in a sentence.
Example:
> The lecturer is <u>approachable</u>.

The **object** is the noun or noun equivalent either in the sense of something or somebody that receives or suffers the effect of the action expressed by the verb in a sentence. This action can be received directly (Direct Object or DO) and can be received indirectly (Indirect Object or 10).
Example:
> Edet bought <u>me</u> a <u>ruler</u>.
> (10) (DO)

In the example above, the object, 'me' is an indirect object while the object, 'ruler' is the direct object. It is possible to have an object of preposition where the noun that serves as object is preceded by a preposition as in:
> We all travelled to Uyo

'Uyo' here serves as the object of preposition, 'to' and not necessarily as object of the verb, 'travelled'.
> Finally, the Adjunct or Adverbial as a sentence element performs the function of an adverb in the sentence.
Example:
> He sang **well**.

5.3.2   Types of Sentences
Sentences are classified based on **structure** and **function**. In terms of structure, the sub-types that are identified are: simple, compound, complex, compound-complex and multiple sentences as examined below.

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(i)   **Simple Sentence**
·A simple sentence has one main clause without subordinate clause.
Example:
Ikwo bought a new textbook yesterday.

(ii)   **Compound Sentence**
A compound sentence has two main clauses but no subordinate clause.
Example:
Etim swept the floor and Ant washed the dishes.

(iii)   **Complex Sentence**
A complex sentence has one main clause and at least one subordinate clause.
Example:
Otu cut the grass while Akon raked up the grass cuttings.

(iv)   **Compound-Complex Sentence**
A compound-complex sentence has two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.
Example: Etim went to the restaurant and demanded food
because he was hungry.

(v)   **Multiple Sentence**
A multiple sentence has at least three main clauses without a subordinate clause.
Example: Asuquo gathered the brick, Etim gathered the sharp
sand and Idoreyin laid the bricks.

Based on **function**, the following sub-types are identified.
*   **Statements/Declarative sentences**
They simply state facts, give information or simply make

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declarations.

Example:

Driving on a slippery road is difficult/dangerous

* **Interrogative Sentences**

These are questions. They can be divided into WH-Questions, Yes/No, Polar and Tag Questions

(a) WH-Questions

These start with WH-words such as: what, who, when, why and where.

Example:

Who shut the door?

(b) Yes/No Questions

The answer is usually yes/no

(c) Polar Questions

In polar questions options are given one of which is expected to be the answer.

(d) Tag Questions

In tag questions, a statement is made and the questions comes in the tag.

Example:

Your sister hasn't come yet, has she?

* **Imperatives**

These are commands — being orders that are expected to be carried out. Imperatives could be mild, forceful, negative, etc.

A mild **imperative** could be introduced by the word 'please'.

Example:

Please get me some drinking water.

A **forceful imperative** suggests irritation and it is always accompanied by an exclamation mark as in:

Mop the floor immediately!

Finally, a **negative imperative** emphasizes what should not be done.

Example:

Don't play in the sun.

* **Exclamatory Sentences**

They express emotions such as surprise, wonder and gratitude, usually introduced by 'how' or 'what' and has the exclamation mark at the end.

Examples: What a studious student he is!

5.4 The Phrase

A phrase is a group of words, which performs the functions of parts of speech like noun, adjective and adverb.

5.4.1 Types of Phrases

Phrases can be formed or described in the following ways:

5.4.1.1 Adjective Phrases

Phrases serve as adjective in the following ways:

(a) The magistrate is a man <u>with a kind nature</u>.

(b) I like to see a face <u>with a smile on it</u>.

5.4.1.2 Adverb Phrases

An adverb phrase is a group of words that does the work of an adverb as illustrated below

(i)   James ran <u>with great speed</u> (how?).
(ii)   He answered <u>in a very rude manner</u> (how?).
(iii) No such diseases were known <u>in those days</u>.
(iv)   I will see you later <u>in the day</u>.

5.4.1.3 Noun Phrases

A Noun phrase is a group of words that does the work of a noun.

(i)   <u>To pass in flying</u> colours is my ambition.
(ii)   <u>Early to bed</u> is a good maxim.

5.4.1.4 Prepositional Phrases

These are introduced by prepositions such as at, from, in. etc as in:

The radio is <u>on the table</u>.

5.4.1.5   Gerundive phrases

These are phrases which are introduced by verbal nouns. or gerunds as in.

<u>Eating biscuit late</u> is what I do not cherish.

5.4.1.6   Infinitival Phrases

These are phrases, which are introduced with the word 'to' as in.

To win the best student award has been his dream.

5.5   The Clause

A clause is a group of words which contains a predicate and

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finite verb. It also does the work of parts of speech like noun, adjective and adverb.

5.5.1 Types of Clauses

Clauses are basically divided into two: main (independent clause) and subordinate (dependent clause). The main clause operates alone and still expresses complete meaning while the subordinate clause, depends on the main clause for its meaning since it cannot operate alone. The subordinate clause is further divided into three: noun clause, adjective clause and adverb clause which are discussed below.

5.5.1.1   Noun Clause

A noun clause is a subordinate clause, which does the work of a noun.

Examples:
As subject
i.   <u>That you should say so</u> surprises me.
ii.   <u>What he said</u> was true.

As object
i.   I hope <u>that it was true</u>.
ii.   I cannot tell <u>what has become of him</u>.
iii. Pay attention to <u>what I am about to say</u>.

As complement
Life is <u>what we make it</u>.

5.5.1.2   Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a subordinate clause, which does the work of an adjective by qualifying a noun or pronoun in the main clause.

An adjective clause is introduced by a relative pronoun or by a relative adverb.

Examples:

    i.   Uneasy lies the head <u>that wears a crown</u>.

    ii.   He is the man <u>whom we all respect</u>.

    iii.   The house <u>where the accident occurred</u> is nearby.

5.5.1 Adverb Clauses

An adverb clause is a subordinate clause, which does the work of an adverb. It modifies a verb, an adjective and an adverb in the main clause (Wren and Martin, 2003). Adverb clauses are classified as adverb clauses of:

Time, place, purpose, cause, condition, result, comparison and supposition or concession.

They are examined below

Adverb Clauses of Time

They are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *whenever, while, after, before, since, as* etc.

Examples:

    i.   <u>Just as he entered the room</u> the clock struck.

    ii.   There was silence <u>as the leader spoke</u>.

Adverb Clauses of Place

They are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *where* or *wherever*.

Examples:

    i.   They can stay <u>where they are</u>.

    ii.   Let him be arrested <u>wherever he may be found</u>.

Adverb Clauses of Purpose

Adverb clauses of purpose are introduced by subordinating conjunctions such as: *so that, in order that* and *lest*.

Examples:

a.   We eat <u>so that we may live</u>.

b.   Sleep not <u>lest your Lord comes in the night</u>.

Adverb Clause of Cause or Reason

Adverb clauses of cause or reason are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *because, as, since,* and *that*.

Examples:

i.   <u>Since your brother is not at home,</u> I will ask you to take the message.

ii.   I did it <u>because I wanted to</u>.

Adverb Clauses of Condition

They are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *if, whether* or, *unless*.

Examples:

a.   <u>Unless you work harder</u> you will fail.

b.   <u>If it rains</u> we shall stay at home.

Adverb Clauses of Result or Consequence

They are introduced by: *that, so* or *such*.

Examples:

i.   They fought so bravely <u>that the enemies were driven off</u>.

ii.   Ngozi prepared so thoroughly <u>that she won the contest</u>

Adverb Clauses of Comparison

Adverb clauses of comparison are of two kinds:

i.   Comparison of Degree

ii.   Comparison of manner

They are examined separately below:

(a) Comparison of Degree

Introduced by the subordinating conjunction: *than*, or by the relative adverb: *as*

Example

i.   She is not so clever <u>as you think</u>.

ii.   It is later <u>than I thought</u>.

(b) Comparison of Manner

Introduced by the relative adverb: *as*

Example:

i.   <u>As you have made your bed</u> so you must lie on it

Adverb Clauses of Supposition or Concession

They are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions: *though, although, even if* etc.

Examples:

i.   He was promoted, <u>although his performance was weak</u>

ii.   <u>Even if it rains</u> I shall come.

5.6 Punctuation Marks

As observed by Eka (1994), 'the term is generally used to refer to a set of marks which constitute a system whereby breaks are introduced in the normal flow of speech or writing'. The marks are normally seen in writing but implied in speech. Punctuation marks can be examined through three broad categories: End-punctuation marks, Internal punctuation marks and Word-punctuation marks.

5.6.1 End-Punctuation Marks

The end-punctuation marks indicate the end of a sentence.

These are: the full-stop/period, question mark and exclamation mark.

5.6.1.1 The Full-Stop/Period (.)

a.   A full-stop is used at the end of sentences except direct question or exclamation.

b.   It is used at the end of the last item in any address, after initial or abbreviated words, etc.

Examples:

J. Bassey, Esq.,

P.M.B., R. S. V. P., etc.

5.6.1.2 The Question Mark (?)

It is used at the end of an interrogative sentence especially in direct questions.

Example:

What is your name?

5.6.1.3 The Exclamation(!)

This mark is used after exclamatory words, phrases and sentences.

Examples:

a.   How are the mighty fallen!

b.   Alas! he is gone

Notably, words that precede the mark should start in small letters except it is of a major word class like the name of a country or person.

5.6.2. Internal Punctuation Marks

5.6.2.1 The Comma (,)

(i)   It is used to separate items in a list or words, phrases, etc in a series. These words may form a multiple subject, predicate or

object

Example:

a.   Riffles, cartridges, bayonets, and spare parts of guns were lying about in heaps. (multiple subject);

b.   The speaker entered the Governor's office, advanced to the platform, and shook hands with the Governor (multiple predicate)

ii.   It is used to separate restrictive from non restrictive relative clauses.

Examples:

(a)   My cousin, who is a commissioner, was led to the alter yesterday (Nonrestrictive).

Here reference is made to one person who does not need to be isolated from others.

(b)   My cousin who is a commissioner was led to the alter yesterday. (Restrictive)

One can be seen to have restricted to one cousin out of many due to the absence of the commas.

iii.   The comma is also used to separate different items such as days from months; streets from towns; etc.

iv.   The comma is used between an initial utterance and a direct sentence; used to separate two things that are in contrast; used after the salutation and the complimentary close, in letter writing (written composition), etc.

Examples:

a.   The Registrar remarked, 'Dr. Essien is a renown scholar' (initial utterance and a direct sentence).

b.   James lives in Akwa Ibom State, not in Abia...

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(two things in contrast).

My dear brother, (salutation).

Yours faithfully, (Complimentary close).

It is however wrong to use comma to separate a subject from its verb as in:

The lecturer, rejected my script.

5.6.2 The Semi Colon (;)

The semi colon separates items of equal clause status: when they occur together and functions as an alternative to a coordinating conjunction.

Examples:

(a)   Man proposes; God disposes.

(b)   To his superiors he showed an appreciable humility; to his inferiors he became a boss.

5.6.2.3   The Colon (:)

(i)   It is used principally to provide an explanation to an earlier part of a sentence as in:

Examples:

a.   We did not enjoy the lecture: it was boring and confusing.

b.   There are two Departments in the Faculty of Arts: the Department of English and the Department of Linguistics.

(ii)   It is also used to introduce a quotation or direct speech.

Example:

Remember the Biblical injunction: 'thou shall not kill'

5.6.2.4   The Dash (-)

It is used to express an after thought or used before a repeated word as in: The. indirect and more serious consequence is the grave

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displeasure of parents - a consequence that inevitably follows among peoples civilized enough to regard theft as a crime. (Pink and Thomas 1981).

5.6.2.5   A Slash or Oblique (/)

(i)   It is used to separate alternative words or phrases.

Example: Single/married/divorced

            (delete as appropriate)

(ii)   It is also used to indicate the end of a line of poetry where the lines are not set separately.

Example: I wandered lonely as a cloud/ that floats on high (wordsworth)

5.6.2.6   Brackets ( ) or [ ]

1.   Round Brackets ( )

(i)   The round brackets are generally used to isolate supplementary information.

Example:

In the Department of English (many people know this) there is always a lot to do.

(ii)   They are also used with numbers or letters of the alphabet to enumerate subjects, sections, paragraphs, etc.

Example:

(a)   (a), (b), (c), (d); b.(i), (ii), (iii),

(b)   The square Brackets [ ],Slanting Lines / / and braces { }are used preferably in a more technical sense.

Examples:

a.   In phonetic transcription or variant forms of pronunciation as in peak [pi:k] and [pʰi:k].

b.   Slanting lines are used to indicate phonetic or reading transcription: Peak / pi:k/.

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5.6.2.7   Inverted Commas/ Quotation Marks (" ")

They indicate direct quotations or speeches.

Example:

'That is incredible', he remarked.

5.6.2.8   Ellipsis (...)

This shows that words have been omitted.

Example:

The guest speaker has just arrived...

Note that if the ellipsis features at the end of the sentence an additional full-stop should be added to make it four dots.

5.6.2.9   Caret (^)

This is more of an editorial mark to indicate that an item or a word is missing in a written work.

Example:

The Registrar ^ the Uyo City Polytechnic has been honoured.

5.6.3 Word-Punctuation Marks

The word-punctuation marks indicate difference between a word or a group of words in written works to present them as a unit. They are:

5.6.3.1   The Hyphen (-)

The hyphen is shorter than the dash. It is mostly used to form compound words and to show word split at the end of the line or divide words into syllables.

Examples:

a.   Mother-in-law (compound words).

b.   I intend to read medicine at the University of Calabar.

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5.6.3.2 Apostrophe (')

(i) it is used to show omission of letters especially in contraction.

Examples:

Don't, e'er, etc.

(ii) It is also used to show ownership or possession (Odiaka, 1997:31).

According to the above source, you can make the singular noun possessive by adding 's' e.g. the boy's ball but add (') or ('s) when the noun ends in 's' as in, Moses' hat or Moses's hat; James' book or James's book; St. Charles' College, or St. Charles's College.

To make plurals from possessive nouns:

(a) add ('s) to the plural if the word does not end in 's',

Examples:

singular	plural
a child's pen	children's pens
a man's shirt	men's shirts

(b) add only (') to the plural which ends in 's',

a boy's book   boys' books
a lady's watch   ladies' watches

In another contribution, it is the reasoning of Gibson, 2003:107 that, in singular nouns it is shown by 's,

Examples: Mary's, Keats's

Exception: it may however be shown by the apostrophe only (')
to avoid awkward-sounding double or treble 's' endings.

Examples: Moses' anger,
Jesus' words,
Aristophanes' comedies.

5.6.3.3 Capitalization

(i) Capital letters are used to begin the first word in each sentence.

Example:

This pen belongs to me.

(ii) They are also used to begin proper nouns or names.

Examples:

(a) James, Mary, Nigeria.

(b) Vice Chancellor, Registrar, Chairman, etc.
(names of specific offices)

(iii) They are used to begin important words in the title of a book or an article and to present headings and subheadings in a written work.

5.6.3.4 Italics and Underlining

Italics are special sets of printing type (usually sloping or wavy) used to draw the attention of a reader to specific words etc. Underlining is also used to draw the reader's attention to show emphasis. It could be a title of a book or a group of words. Italics in most cases are used to replace underlining in printing.

CHAPTER SIX

WRITTEN COMPOSITION AND SUMMARY

Introduction

Various aspects of written composition such as essay writing and letter writing are examined in this chapter beginning with guidelines on how to write an essay and how to assess a given piece of composition.

6.1   Guidelines

Essay writing which is **an** aspect of writing skills requires careful planning in order to arrive at a reasonable or good composition. This will cut across the various aspects of composition: narrative, argumentative, descriptive and expository works or writing. Notably, for one to present a good essay or composition of any magnitude there are factors to be considered.

Among these factors is as a matter of priority the audience. This implies that the writer should be conscious of his audience while writing the essay in order to choose the tone of the composition and adopt a good language variation strategy to suit the language level of his audience and what approach to adopt generally.

Before choosing a topic it is perhaps incumbent upon the writer to ruminate over the **subject matter** that the said topic demands - considering a particular area of study or profession the essay dwells on. To this extent the writer will know if he has fair knowledge of the subject matter before choosing a topic that borders on a particular area.

Apart from audience and subject matter, the goal of the composition should be determined before one commences the writing. Questions the writer will ask himself range from if the writing seeks

to educate, teach, criticize/evaluate, to entertaining, informing, etc. The determination of the goal or aim and purpose of the composition will definitely guide the writer while writing or developing the composition.

The writer being conscious of the aforementioned factors will now develop a good **outline** for the essay as part of essay plan. This will enable the writer to limit himself to the well developed ideas presented through the outline which are considered appropriate and relevant to the central theme of the composition.

An outline is simply a skeletal framework of the composition itself. This will be in the form of: A general **thesis statement** and **Sub-theses** (through topic sentences of different paragraphs).

Example:

Thesis Statement

Women politicians in Nigeria seem to demonstrate better leadership qualities than most of their male counterparts.

Sub-Thesis (in phrases)
i.   As mothers, they are less violent;
ii.   They are more accommodating
iii. They are more prudent in spending, etc.

Apart from the phrase sub-theses shown above, it is possible to have sentence and single words or points sub-theses but it should be borne in mind that the sub-theses will form the topic sentences of other paragraphs in the composition apart from the introductory paragraph which has the thesis statement and the concluding paragraph in which one may restate the thesis, summarize major points, etc. More advantages to be enjoyed through essay plan are:

(i)   It makes it possible for the writer to have the total picture of the essay at a glance.

(ii)   It makes it possible for the writer to arrange and rearrange the

sequence of the points in the overall essay in order to achieve the desired blend.

(iii) Through the essay plan the writer will ensure that each sub-thesis is in accord with the main thesis statement, etc.

With the essay plan concluded, while writing one should work towards establishing **Coherence** or the **Sticking together** of words, sentences, etc without loosing sight of a **complete unity** of the various paragraphs. Closely followed by coherence is the need for one to maintain **Consistency** and **focus** in the light of the content or subject matter which encompasses other elements like trend of argument. point of view, tone, etc.

An overwhelming consideration is the need to present the composition within **reasonable Conventions** and **grammar**. Conventions demand that the different types of essay should be written in line with laid down principles. This could be in the form of establishing a direction of an argument either in support or against. Moreover a report should be presented in the past tense as well as being written in line with grammar which presupposes the need for well constructed sentences and presenting the writing in line with all the rules that govern the language in question. A negation of this step will affect the quality of the composition.

There is need for a logical arrangement and proper presentation of facts and details based on the argument and proposition put forward in the essay. This can be done in different ways depending on the nature of the work presented.

A chronological arrangement of facts is quite suitable for a narrative work whereby events are accounted for as they occur while an argumentative essay will take an order of importance. In the same viewing, a description of an object will go with the spatial type: viewing it externally and internally, etc.

There should be reasonable **variety** in terms of diction (choice of words), sentence patterns, etc. in order to add colour and flavour.

This will be achieved through synonyms (both words and phrases) since a redundant use of a particular word or phrase will affect the quality of the composition.

Finally, the use of **transition makers** will facilitate a good flow or relationship of paragraphs and sentences by establishing unity. Thus to establish **similarity** one uses words and phrases like: in the same vein, similarly, etc. while conversely, on the other hand, etc are used to show **contrast**.

For **progressive sequence**, furthermore, in addition to, also, etc. are used while although, though, etc are accepted when **concession** is established. A careful examination of these steps will definitely bring about a well developed composition among other considerations. This is illustrated below:

S/N	Relationship	Expression
1.	Addition	And, also, in addition, moreover, further more, first, second, etc
2.	Contrast	But, however, yet, nevertheless, on the other hand, still, though, although, etc.
3.	Illustration	For example, for instance, that is, in other word, in particular, etc.
4.	Similarity	Likewise, in like manner, in the same way, similarly, etc.
5.	Conclusion/ Result	Therefore, consequently, thus, then, hence, in conclusion, etc.
6.	Emphasis	Indeed, in fact, certainly, really, etc.

(Culled from Report Writing for Polytechnics)

Wrong tense;

Wrong tense sequence;

Misuse of modal auxiliaries (may/might, etc);

Misuse or omission of articles, confusion between countable and uncountable nouns;

Misrelated participles; etc.

6.2.4.2   Punctuation Errors

Each full stop, question mark or exclamation mark omitted or wrongly used;

The misuse or omission of quotation marks (errors at the beginning and the end of a quotation).

With regard to quotation marks, both single and double quotation marks are accepted, but consistency is demanded. The use of a small letter for the personal pronoun 'I', the use of a small letter at the beginning of a proper noun or a sentence.

Abbreviations:

(a)   Initial letters. In conformity with modern practice, forms with or without the full-stop should be accepted.

Examples:

O.A.U or OAU

(b)   First and last letters:

DR or Dr, LTD or Ltd. etc.

6.2.4.3   Spelling Errors

Wrong spelling brings about poor composition. Notably. American spelling, if consistent, is still accepted. In order to achieve reasonable success in one's written works, there is an obvious need to adhere to the whole points of emphasis highlighted above regarding content organization, expression and mechanical accuracy, among other factors.

6.3   Essay Writing: Parts and Types of the Essay

6.3.1 Parts of the Essay

Apart from the general thesis statement and sub-theses of the essay, the organization of an essay involves three basic parts: the introduction, body and conclusion as discussed below.

6.3.1.1 The Introduction

The introduction as the beginning of an essay emphasizes the presentation of the purpose and thesis of the essay which will give the reader a focus and set the scope. An introduction may be presented through a quotation or question. This will however depend on the subject matter of the composition.

6.3.1.2   The Body

After the thesis statement has been presented through the introduction, the body of the essay presents and develops fully the sub-theses through topic sentences of each paragraph as contained in the writer's essay plan or outline.

There is need to adhere to the principles of paragraph development such as: coherence through a logical flow, etc. at this stage of writing. A paragraph requires a reasonable length without being too long but not with a single sentence. Each paragraph should exhaustively treat one point presented through the topic sentence and not more than one point). Strict compliance to this order will depict the skill and mastery of the writer.

6.3.1.3   The Conclusion

The essence of the conclusion is to ensure that the essay is not brought to an abrupt end. This could be done by summarizing the body of the essay (points presented) or restating the thesis. With a good conclusion given, the written composition should be read

through thoroughly to avoid errors arising from point of view of mechanical accuracy, etc.

6.3.2 Types of Essay

Essays are usually classified according to the purpose they are supposed to accomplish. Consequently an essay could be called: narrative, descriptive, argumentative and expository.

Furthermore, if the essay narrates or tells stories, it is narrative in nature; if it describes, it is descriptive; if it presents argument, it is argumentative but if it exposes or teaches, it is expository in nature (Onukaogu, A .ed. 1999). The aforementioned kinds of essay are discussed in detail below.

6.3.2.1   The Narrative Essay

A narrative essay is an essay that looks backwards in time to tell a story of something that took place in the past. Stories and accounts of events given for record keeping and instruction fall under this category of essays. A narrative essay does not necessarily have to depend solely on historical incidents but it calls for one's ability to be imaginative enough to invent details of incidents which could be used in the art of telling the story though such stories should be quite plausible.

6.3.2.1.1   Features of a Narrative Work

(i)   A narrative work should be written in the past tense since it presents an account of events that took place in the past.

(ii)   It is an organized synthesis of events. In this regard the plot must be creatively built to keep the readers' interest sustained to the end through the effective use of suspense.

(iii)   The facts should be presented in proper sequence-generally in

order of time, grouped into paragraphs according to the stages in the narrative. As already mentioned narrative essays include stories, diaries, reports, etc. The stories in question may be fictional or historical, still with the same principles. Diaries are records of incidents as they occur. Reports are also accounts of incidents that happened in the past.

Finally, it should be observed that even though narrating past events requires the use of past tense, when one wishes to give a vivid account, one can also use the present form but consistency is required as in:

The signal is given. The soldiers **dash** forward to the walls of the city and **place** their scaling-ladders in position. In spite of all opposition they **gain** a foothold and **drive** the enemy before them... (Pink and Thomas, 1981).

Similarly, in an account of the plot of a play, a novel or a poem, the present tense may be used but there is need for consistency.

6.3.2.2   The Descriptive Essay

The descriptive essay is an essay which paints pictures whereby the reader is made to see, feel, smell, hear and taste what the object described is like. The description could be technical involving scientific experiment, production process, etc. or sensory as it reflects the judgement, emotion or personal experience of the writer. This makes the writing to be subjective instead of being objective as the technical description is.

Basic Features

i.   Due to its nature, the descriptive essay dwells on comparisons whereby the writer uses similes, metaphors, etc to paint pictures that resemble the subject matter.

ii.   Adjectives and adverbs are also used as other features since they are picture painting devices.

iii.   Descriptive essays present the characteristics or features of the objects they talk about.

Steps Involved

(a)   There is need for proper observation.

(b)   The senses should be made use of taking note of well selected words in order to describe well.

(c)   The description should border on mostly the familiar part of the subject at hand to sustain the interest of the reader.

iv.   While the description is being done the size, shape, colour, taste, time, age, location and model of the object should be coherently specified - presenting the details in a logical order either from general to specific, well-known to the obscure, etc.

6.3.2.3   The Argumentative Essay

The aim of an argumentative essay is basically to appeal to the reasoning of the reader or audience in order to convince the reader. But it is always wrong for the writer to imagine that his audience is in position to accept whatever point the writer presents. The reasonableness of one's argument is mostly what the audience should seek in academics. An argument is a reasoning process presented in form of premises or sub-argument/sub-conclusion built in sequence of one coming logically after the other.

Types of Argument

There are two types of argument: the inductive argument and the deductive argument (Ayaegbunam, 1998:22). They are examined differently below.

The Inductive Argument

This process involves the use of particulars known as premises to make generalizations which are also the conclusion. The said premises are presented in form of facts, inferences, judgement or expert testimonies, as illustrated below.

(a)   With NI 000.00 worth of fuel I could drive BMW Car to Calabar and come back (this is a mere fact).

(b)   With the same amount of fuel in my brother's Mercedes 190 Car, the tank was empty when I got to Calabar (a mere fact).

(c)   BMW is more fuel efficient or Mercedes has a higher rate of fuel consumption (conclusion).

In the argument or reasoning presented above, there are possible assumptions. Notably, the reasoning assumes that the tanks in the two cars were either dried out, had the same quantity of fuel at the time of buying more fuel or are of the same size. It also assumes that the two cars took the same route and went to exactly the same places on getting to Calabar and that both cars are of the same age and in good condition with other things duly considered. Some of these assumptions can deflate one's arguments and render them hasty being one of the problems or faults in an inductive argument. On this note some of the faults associated with the inductive argument are duly examined below.

- **Samplings Presented as Evidence...**
  The samplings presented as evidence in order to draw conclusions, are sometimes too few to be reliable. This may lead to hasty conclusions.

Example:
Last month two students of the Uyo City Polytechnic fought This month another two have fought.

reasoning such as **non sequitur** - when a statement does not logically follow from what has been said; **hasty generalization** — which is based on insufficient evidence or biased evidence; **bandwagon** - which means joining the majority side even if they are wrong; **false analogy** — which is a false assumption that because things are alike, that they must be alike in every respect; **ad hominem** - by attacking one's personality; **begging the question** — when one presents a premise that needs to be proved; **oversimplification** — when a consequence of several factors is presented as if it arises from only one factor and fallacy of either/or — when only two alternatives are considered. With the above points duly taken into consideration one would have presented an argument that is logical and acceptable.

6.3.2.4   The Expository Essay

As the name suggests, the expository essay exposes or explains. Oyo (1994) defines it as: 'an essay that teaches or tries to explain the 'how' of anything'. This could be the nature of something, the preparation of one's favourite dish, etc. An expository essay is based on: What, why, where, when and how. '**What**' deals with the selection and definition of the subject or concept or topic to be exposed; '**why**' denotes explanation of the rationale behind the selection and the reason for the explanation/exposition; '**where**' locates the subject/event/topic in a setting while '**when**' defines the time frame with which the subject/event relates. '**How**' establishes the manner, method or way in which the subject or process is exposed or explained or how it works,' (Eyoh 2000).

6.3.2.4.1   Steps Involved

i.   There should be clear definition of terms and concepts, logical Presentation of information, instruction, device, etc. indicating order of priority.

ii.   All relevant points or steps should be employed or embraced.

iii.   There is need for comparison and contrast to reveal ideas and processes that are perhaps difficult to portray directly.

iv.   Apart from order of importance, the exposition may be presented through a classificatory method, recognizing the natural existence of the ideas and points while proper explanation should follow.

6.3.2.4.2   Features

i.   In an expository essay, the audience is presumed to be hungry to learn. The writer is therefore considered knowledgeable on the topic being discussed.

ii.   Since the writer is to instruct or teach, the method of exposition should be organized to adopt a mode of development which progresses from what the imagined audience knows to what he does not know.

iii.   Descriptions are also employed. When they are employed, the writer compares what the reader knows to what he is being taught in the essay so that from what he knows the picture of what he does not know will begin to unfold and render meaning to him.

iv   Narrative essays or stories can serve as expository when the primary intention of using it is in the sense of being didactic. In this case the author is teaching moral by telling stories from which the moral is drawn by analogy.

Remarkably, any essay requires a good outline and proper

adherence to the steps involved in the writing of a good essay without losing sight of inescapable rules which cut across the essay plan through introduction, body and conclusion within the consciousness of assessment or evaluation.

6.4   Letter Writing

Introduction

This is also a written piece of composition ranging from formal, informal to semi formal. Attention will be given to business letters (being mostly formal in nature) and in certain respects informal in nature.

6.4.1   Business Letters
6.4.1.1   Types of Business Letters

A leter is a piece of written communication. It could be external in nature (taking place between two organizations) or an organization relating with its external public. However, if the communication is within an organization being internal in nature it is better described as a 'memo', which is the short form of memorandum - an internal communication since it serves as a means of communication within the organization.

As rightly put by Ogbulogo, 2004: 107:

> there are a variety of occasions that require letter writing in business. Generally, letters are used to inform, advise, request, insist, acknowledge and advertise. However, these occasions can be conveniently grouped into information letters, goodwill letters, sales letters and problem letters.

The above classification of business letters can now be

examined in detail.

1.   **Information Letters**

These simply supply business information in terms of enquiries, orders, transmittal, quotations, estimates, tenders, appointment/termination letters, promotion letters, circulars and memoranda. *Letters of enquiry* seek information concerning the products and services available in the company.

letters of order are actually sent in response to quotations and in reply to the response by customers/clients to the offer of goods and services.

Transmittal letters accompany goods and services as they are delivered to those that ordered them in order to give details of the goods specifying their general conditions. They also accompany long and formal reports, highlighting the title, purpose, scope, problems encountered and the assistance got in the course of writing the report.

Letters of quotation follow responses to letters of enquiry to provide information on the range of products and services requested considering quantity and quality of products, prices and terms of delivery and payment.

Tenders letters are used to advertise contract jobs while **appointment letters** present or highlight the post to which one is appointed, the salary and other benefits, etc. Closely followed is **promotion letters** which state the position to which the recipient has been elevated, salary and other entitlements and responsibilities.

However, before the said appointment, there should be an application letter, which states the position being applied for and mostly accompanied by the curriculum vitae (CV) or Vice Versa.

Finally, **termination letters** convey the message of withdrawal of appointment. If it is written to an employee, it should state the

and complimentary ending are on the right hand side while the receiver's address, the reference numbers and salutation are on the left hand side though the use of letter headed paper in official letters renders the writing of the sender's address unnecessary.

Components (Parts) of a Business (Formal) Letter

The most outstanding parts of a business letter are:

(a)   The writer's Address
(b)   The date
(c)   Reference Numbers
(d)   The Recipient's Address
(e)   The salutation
(f)   The title
(g)   The body
(h)   The complimentary ending

As highlighted above, the first part of a business letter is the writer's address although most organizations may have letter headed material with address which will only require the writer to write the date and the recipient's address instead of repeating his own address without losing sight of reference numbers. The recipient's address comprises the official name of a representative of an organization or an individual as well as the place of contact. The salutation in a formal letter varies depending on the tone of the letter. 'Dear Sir/Madam' suggests a normal official relationship and relaxed tone while 'Sir/Madam' is strictly formal and reserved for subject matters like query, quit notice, suspension from work, employment, etc. (Eyoh,2000).

The title is a short summary of the content of the letter. Based on the title, letters are sorted accordingly and the subject matter or content is easily known. The body of the letter on the other hand contains the subject matter. It explains the message that has been sent and is divided into three parts being: introduction, middle and conclusion. The body is developed or presented in paragraphs.

Finally, the complimentary ending will have the subscription such as 'Yours faithfully' or 'Yours sincerely', depending on the salutation format used. This is followed by the writer's signature while the writer's name and designation come last.

6.5   Summary Writing

Summary is a brief and clear statement in a connected and readable shape from the original passage. It is the power to analyze a passage and synthesize through speaking or writing the central meaning of the passage without misrepresenting the author's ideas (Okon, 1998: 110-111).

Summary writing is also known as: résumé or précis writing but while summarizing, one should not add ideas not given by the author. It involves shortening the original passage to about one-third of its size.

6.5.1 Steps Involved in Summary Writing

(a)   One should skim through the material to find general statements
(b)   Extract main ideas, synthesize them and omit details.
(c)   Demonstrate the ability to extract and restate the central ideas (themes) in your own words though you may be permitted to use the author's words since they link ideas together.
(d)   Distinguish between the primary and the secondary ideas.
(e)   Know the author's trend of thought through words like: next, however, but, etc.

One should however note that, one's ability to read, understand and interpret the passage is paramount in the writing of a good summary. This therefore calls for intensive reading by applying the principles earlier discussed in reading comprehension skills.

Types of Summary Writing

Summaries can be through forms like blurbs, notices and advertisements. They can also be through telegrams, outlines, abstracts of articles or reports. These can be classified into three major types being: paragraph reduction, topic sentence and deductive summary.

In **paragraph reduction**, the question will likely be: in not less than two sentences summarize this passage... Words will be provided for you to begin the summary with. This is also seen as 'guided summary'.

In a **topic sentence** summary, one is expected to identify the main ideas in the paragraph. The main ideas are found in the topic sentence in a paragraph which introduces what the paragraph is about and summarizes the central point in the paragraph.

Finally, **deductive summary** demands that one should read the passage thoroughly with good understanding. Questions that measure the reader's understanding of the passage may include: provide an appropriate title to this passage.

One can therefore conclude by noting that a good summary, irrespective of the type, depends largely on one's understanding of the passage without losing sight of the principles which have been duly examined in this unit.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH METHODS: LIBRARY SKILLS

Introduction

A research is simply an investigative study which is carried out to arrive at findings intended to solve a particular problem. This chapter seeks to present some of the library skills that will further strengthen learning as examined below.

7.1 Meaning and Functions of Library

Library is a place where academic materials are stored for subsequent retrieval. There are collections like books, journals, documents, reports, bibliographies, abstracts, indexes and non-book materials such as slides, microfiche, microfilm, etc. Some of the library services provided are:

i. The library through the reference and information services unit of an academic library guides the reader in search of information. The needed information can be found in reference books like: Dictionaries, Encyclopedias, Almanacs, Atlases, Indexes, Bibliographies and Dictionaries.

ii. The library provides lending services since it has books that can be read within the library or borrowed to be used at home.

iii. It enables scholars to conduct research by providing the needed resources through bibliographic tools. The researcher will make use of abstracts, indexes, projects, dissertations and theses.

iv. The library provides a conducive atmosphere and reading space for studying and reading.

v.   It makes books available to students and other readers by supplementing the texts acquired by them since books in specialized areas like law, medicine, Engineering, etc. are quite expensive.

7.2 Types of Libraries

The various types of libraries are: school library, public library, special library, academic library, national library and personal library

The **School library** is found in primary and secondary schools. It is managed by the school authorities through the librarian.

Public library on the other hand belongs to the state government located at the local government area headquarters and the state Capital. This is funded by the State Government headed by a librarian.

The **Special library** is funded by corporate organizations to take care of the needs of workers in a given field of study. It is funded privately though it is also found in government establishments. Libraries of Research Institutions, professional societies and ministries are in this category without losing sight of the library for the handicapped which contains special items like Braille books, audio visual materials, etc. Media/broadcasting establishments have audio visual libraries with films, video tapes, music cassettes, gramophone records, etc.

The **Academic library** is found in tertiary institutions such as Universities, Colleges of Education, Polytechnics and other post secondary institutions. Academic library provides research, reading, instructional and recreational materials.

The **National library** belongs to the federation and is funded by the Federal Government. The national library preserves all that is published within the country and provides a comprehensive list of them. The national library also serves as a clearing house for exchange of library materials and a translation centre.

It is also necessary to mention the personal library one has at home. It is however the academic library that will be given due attention in this work.

7.3 Divisions / Sections of an Academic Library

The academic library has the following divisions or sections: Acquisition, Processing, Circulation, Researd Librarian, Departmental/Faculty, Reference Divisions, etc as examined below:

The **Acquisition Division** is the entry point for books in the library where books are acquired either through direct purchases, gift or exchange. Books are stamped here for the purpose of identification before they are taken to the next section.

The **Processing Division** involves the catalogue stage and the classification stage. To catalogue a book means to describe the book for readers in cards grouped under subject catalogue and Author / Title catalogue.

The subject catalogue highlights information on the subject, title of the text, summary of the text, publisher and place of publication, number of pages and call number. Author/Title catalogue on the other hand highlights title of the text, author's name, publisher and call number. The core features of a hypothetical card catalogue are presented below:

Card Catalogue

Author — Ekemini Johnson

Title — Use of English

Class Mark — DT 400 ——— Year of Publication

2006

DANISON

Place of Publication — Eket

Name of Publisher

iv,218p ——— Number of pages

DT 400 ——— Class Mark

J354 ——— Author Number

42 ——— Location Mark

+ ——— Size Mark
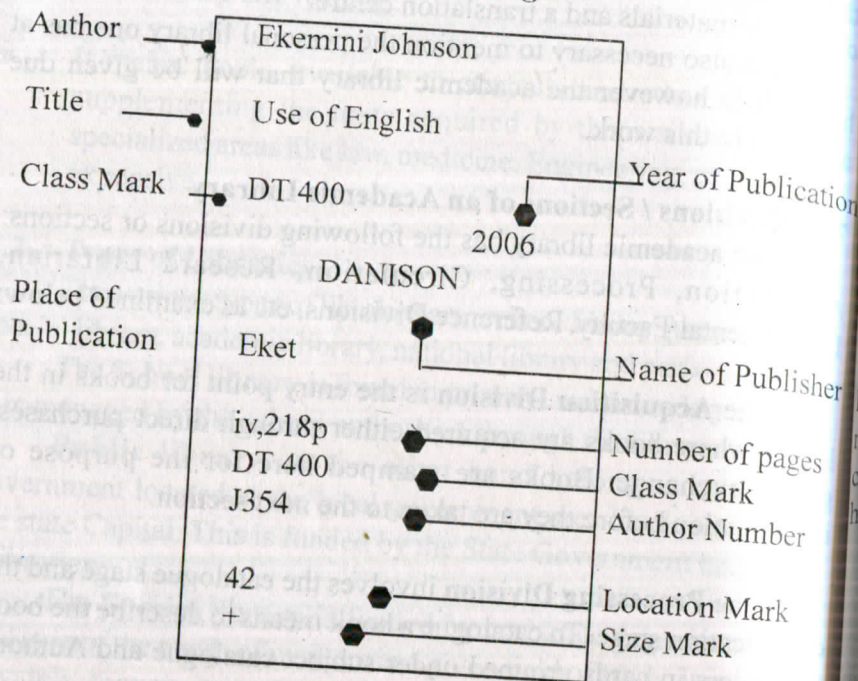
The **subject classification** mark is a number assigned to the subject which the library material treats.

The **author number** is a number assigned to the author being the first letter of the author's surname and the Arabic numbers which make up the author's identity for a text in the library.

The **location mark** is a number or symbol which shows in which part of the library a given material could be located.

Size mark is a symbol which helps to give the reader the picture of the size of the book before hand. The plus sign (+) is used when the book is of a large size while the division sign (-) indicates small books which could be difficult to locate in the midst of other books in the shelf. The four entries examined above make up the call number of the book.

The **call number** is a technical term used to refer to the number assigned to the library text or material to distinguish it from all other materials in the library.

Classification on the other hand means the sorting and putting of books in the subject areas that they belong. In the library, books are arranged in groups or in classes. This pattern entails, classifying books together in subject fields which make it easy for both readers and library personnel to locate on the shelves

Classification Systems

There are two common classification systems: the **Dewey Decimal Classification** and the **Library of Congress Scheme**. As noted by Okon, 1998:243 'the Dewey Decimal and Relative classification were developed by Melvil Dewey in 1876' This system has ten general classes being:

000	-	General works
100	-	Philosophy
200	-	Religion
300	-	Social Sciences
400	-	Physiology
500	-	Pure Sciences
600	-	Useful Arts
700	-	Fine Arts
800	-	Literature
900	-	History

The library of Congress Classification Scheme has the pattern below:

A	-	General Works
B	-	Philosophy / Religion
C	-	Auxiliary Sciences of History
D	-	Universal History

E-F	-	American History
C	-	Geography / Anthropology
H	-	Social sciences
J	-	Political sciences
K	-	Latin (in process)
L	-	Education
M	-	Music
N	-	Fine Arts
P	-	Language and literature
Q	-	Sciences
R	-	Medicine
S	-	Agriculture
I	-	Technology
U	-	Military Science
V	-	Naval science
Z	-	Bibliography and Library Science

Other classification systems not commonly used are: **A System of Bliss Bibliographic Classification and Ranganathan Colon Classification.**

The **Circulation Division** transfers the books to the readers' services section where they are kept on the shelves for use.

The **Research Division** houses classified information in periodicals such as journals, abstracts and indexes, newspapers and magazines. This section also has research projects, theses, dissertations, Africana, etc.

Africana involves books published by Africans or books published by Non Africans for / on Africa.

The **Librarian Division** is where the librarian is. One who serves as an administrator with the responsibility of ensuring effective and successful management of the facilities in the library (both the material and human resources).

The **Department/Faculty Division** involves the small units where books are stored based on Departments or Faculties.

Finally, the **Reference Section** provides material for reference purposes. This section has: Dictionaries, Encyclopedias, Atlases, etc.

7.4 Locating Material/Information in the Library

The ability to understand the sections of the library and the facilities within the library will assist readers to retrieve any piece of information from the library.

Readers should consult the subject catalogue and the Author catalogue first since they reflect entries in any section of the library. One is expected to note the call numbers or class marks on the cards which describe the books, before proceeding to the shelves quite conscious of the information contained in the catalogues.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESEARCH METHODS: THE TERM PAPER

Introduction

The term paper is an aspect of research meant to prepare the minds of students towards the actual research work in the course of their respective academic pursuits. This chapter is designed to examine what term paper is and how it is written.

8.1 Meaning and Significance

The term paper is simply a minor research exercise. It is usually not intensive as compared to project, thesis and dissertation. It is of huge significance since it prepares students for future academic challenges in the area of research or an independent study. As a research exercise, since the term paper is usually based on verifiable facts, it helps instill in students the academic culture of carrying out academic investigations or findings and acknowledging sources as expected of all academics.

8.2 How to Write the Term Paper

(i) Choice of Topic

The topic should be researchable. The researcher should therefore have a reasonable interest in the topic and the topic should be of academic relevance and public relevance. The topic should not be too broad or too narrow but should be within the physical realm where there is available literature that is authentic.

(ii) Developing an Outline/a Format

There is need for the researcher to develop an outline-which is a sketch or skeletal framework of what the entire research work will look like. This will certainly guide the researcher. Depending on the nature of the research work, one could have an outline such as:

(a) *Cover Page* - that highlights title, name of the student, registration number, department, faculty, name of lecturer (the work is to be submitted to) and details about the course lecturer like: department, faculty, etc. and date.

(b) The title Page

(c) Dedication

(d) Acknowledgements

(e) Table of contents

(f) Abstract

(g) Introduction

(h) Chapters/Main units

(i) Conclusion

(j) Recommendations

(k) Works cited/References/Bibliography

(l) Appendix or appendixes (Eyoh, 2000:137)

(iii) Wider Reading. Notes Taking and Formulation of Thesis Statement

Thesis statement is simply a categorical proposition on the topic of research, a proposition the investigation sets out to prove/confirm or rebut. There is need to read widely and take down meaningful notes before one can comfortably develop a thesis statement. Notably, the research does not necessarily have to confirm its thesis but there must be evidence to rebut or confirm its thesis.

(iv) Compiling a Working Bibliography

A working bibliography is a compilation of sources-books, journals, encyclopedias, etc in which information which appears to be useful exists. These sources are compiled on cards or slips or in paper of equal size and arranged in alphabetical compilation of sources one has consulted.

(v) Data Collection

Data is simply the corpus of materials a researcher intends to use in the course of the research. The sources could be basically primary and secondary though it is also possible to have a tertiary source.

(a) Primary Sources of Data Collection

Primary Data can be gathered through: Experimental design, Survey design or Memoranda. Experimental design involves experiment conducted to prove claims. In a survey design, the process of collecting data is through questionnaires - served with printed questions, face-to-face interview and even on telephone.

(b) Secondary Sources of Data Collection

The secondary sources of data are the already printed materials through textbooks, journals, magazines, newspapers, seminar papers, etc. One can also use reference sources such as:

(i) Encyclopedias like the One-Volume Columbia Encyclopedia or the Multi-Volume Encyclopedia Britannica or Encyclopedia Americana which will introduce the researcher to basic information on a topic and provide a brief bibliography for further research. For specific disciplines, specialized encyclopedias such as Encyclopedia of Psychology, Biological

Sciences, Unversal Encyclopedia of Mathematics, etc. are available on a CD-ROM (Compact Disk - Read Only on Memory), accessed from computer terminals.

(ii) Bibliographies

Bibliographies list books. Some bibliographies are annotated with description and brief critical evaluations and are available on specialized subjects like, Foreign Affairs Bibliography, Political Science Bibliography, Articles on Modern Languages and Literature.

(iii) Biographies

Reference books such as Who's Who and Dictionary of American Biography provide details about people's lives and works.

(iv) Almanacs, Atlases and Gazetteers

For current data on worldwide topics and events including population statistics and boundary changes, consult almanacs like the World Almanac and Facts on File, Atlases and Gazetteers (dictionaries of geographical locations).

(v) Government Documents

Government documents provide a wealth of information on population trends, demographics, education, employment, agriculture and economy.

(vi) Dictionaries

The most comprehensive dictionary of all, with derivations, word- history, and examples, is the multi-volume Oxford Dictionary now available online and on CD-ROM.

(vi) *Indexes*

Indexes, both in book form and, for more recent works, in electronic form, provide information about articles published in periodicals.

(vii) *Databases*

Many reference works are available in libraries in CD-ROM databases; a search for a topic by subject or keyword is relatively quick and easy. In addition, online services such as Dialog, BRS and Lexis provide access to a vast network of databases.

(vi) ***Appropriate Citation and Documentation Styles (APA, MLA, etc.)***

While embarking on a research exercise, plagiarism should be discouraged. Rather, there should be accurate documentation.

Plagiarism is the unwillingness to acknowledge a given source of information being used by the researcher which he has borrowed from other authorities.

Documentation implies proper entering of information which one has borrowed or specially obtained (Eyoh, 2000:125). Documentation could be done through End Notes, Foot Notes, In-Text Citation, Bibliography, References, and Works Cited.

End Notes are notes which come at the end. In this style of documentation, a quotation from a given source is assigned a number which explains the source of the quotation at the end of a chapter or the entire work.

Foot Notes are notes that are indicated at the foot of a page whereby a quotation is assigned a number and its source is explained at the foot of the page.

In Text Citation enables the source of information so quoted to be cited right in the text. This could take a variety of ways: presenting the surname of the author before the year of publication and page. This could also precede the quoted information and could also appear after the quotation.

Bibliography denotes a full list of all books and related materials consulted during the research exercise. Styles involved in writing bibliography include the MLA being, the style used by Modern Language Association of American and the APA being American Psychological Association.

Notably, in MLA, the date is the last item while in APA it is presented after the author's name as illustrated below:

MLA

Wren, P.C. and Martin, H. *High School English Grammar* and *Composition*.

New Delhi: S. Chand and Company Ltd. 2003.

APA

Wren, P.C. and Martin, H. 2003. *High School English Grammar* and *Composition*.

New Delhi: S. Chand and Company Ltd.

References present a list of books and related materials cited in a text using the APA style. Only works that have been cited in the text should be listed under references.

Works cited is a term which applies where MLA style is used. This is a list of works cited in a text where MLA documentation style is used. Such list excludes works that were merely consulted but not cited in the work (Eyoh, 2000: 128).

Notably, the listing of works should be done in alphabetical order of names of authors; the surname of the author should appear

and be marked off with a comma before the other names; if there are more than three authors for a particular text, the name of the first author should be written while the Latin words 'et al' should be used for the other authors, year of publication, title of the text, town/place of publication marked of with a colon before publishers. The appendix (appendices - plural) at the end of the work has to do with information, statistics, tables, diagrams or photographs attached to the research work after the bibliography, references or works cited. This will further authenticate the related information contained in the text. A cover page of the term paper is presented below.

A TERM PAPER ON:
EFFECTIVE STUDY SKILLS

BY

JOHNSON, EKEMINI SUNbAY
2006/ UGO/ 093
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
FACULTY OF ADMINISTRATION
UNIVERSITY OF UYO, UYO

SUBMITTED TO

NAME OF THE COURSE LECTURER...
COURSE TITLE
DEPARTMENT/ FACULTY
UNIVERSITY OF UYO, UYO

October, 2006

CHAPTER NINE

LITERARY APPRECIATION

Introduction

Literature principally involves written works, which are of artistic value or writings that are valued as works of art, especially fiction, drama and poetry. Literary appreciation is concerned with the acquisition of the artistic skills needed to react reasonably to any literary work in the various genres: poetry, prose and drama. Regardless of the genre, literary appreciation is a test of comprehension and analysis of the theme, subject matter, the use of figurative and non-figurative, as well as the structural features of a given text. The objective is to determine the total impact of the excerpt in question. A figure of speech is any departure from the literal (i.e. ordinary) use of a word or phrase.

Literary appreciation which is also known as literary criticism is the analysis and evaluation of a work of literature through a set of principles as well as the justification of the principles (Hunt, 1988). This implies that the reader will be engaged in the analysis and evaluation of a text guided by this set principles. Each literary genre has its peculiarities, which will make its evaluation slightly different from others. In analyzing a text, the title/author should be considered including the setting, plot, subject matter, theme, style, character and characterization and evaluation or judgment (which should take account of content, point of view, vision of the writer etc). Literary criticism will be discussed later in detail.

9.1 Functions of Literature

Studying literature mostly involves the study of the use of language in its highest or purest forms, literature having language as

its raw material which will further enrich the language power of any reader. Other benefits of reading literature are:

Literature Entertains

Through its manipulation of language and the reader's imagination, literature provides pleasure.

Literature Reflects Society

This is possible as it delves into social issues by commenting on the problems, weakness, strength, hope, fears of people, etc. as presented through characters.

Literature Promotes the Transmission of Culture

This is realized through the reading of literary texts based on the culture of different peoples as one gains knowledge of the traditions and customs of the peoples. Things Fall Apart and Arrow of God written by Chinua Achebe are good examples of novels based on the Ibo' traditions and customs.

Literature Broadens the Knowledge Base of the Reader

Since the contents of literary texts border on politics, philosophy, morality, business management, law, science, etc. the reading of these texts will enrich the reader's knowledge of these fields.

Literature is Used to Impart Moral Instruction

This is in terms of 'bestiary' which is a type of literature in which beast, bird, etc are used to impart moral lessons.

9.2 Genres of Literature

Literature is appreciated in two forms: Oral and written through three classes known as genres. They are: drama, prose and poetry as discussed below.

9.2.1 Drama

This is a literary work written in form of a dialogue or conversation intended to be read and acted as a play.

9.2.1.1   Types/Forms of Drama

(a)   Comedy

This is a drama with a generally light atmosphere leading to a happy ending. There may be problems within the plot but those problems are happily resolved at the end of the pay. The Lion and The Jewel by Wole Soyinka is a good example of comedy.

(b)   Tragedy

This is a drama with a generally serious or tense atmosphere leading to an unhappy ending. Here the story ends badly with bloodshed, irreparable loss or damage whereby, the leading character may lose his or her life or be unpleasantly humiliated and will either end up as a tragic hero/heroine or a victim of circumstance. A tragic hero will however fall mostly out of his or her mistakes known as tragic flaws as seen in Shakespeare's Macbeth.

(c)   Farce

This is a form of drama (mostly comedy), which makes people laugh as a result of the actions of ridiculous characters that are quite funny. Farce is therefore regarded as a lower kind of comedy in which belief is sacrificed for the main objective of exciting laughter as seen in Zulu Sofola's Wizard of Law

(d)   Melodrama

Just like a comic farce, this is a tragic farce in which belief is sacrificed for the sake of sensational action and producing the shock effect. In this respect, when tragedy becomes unrealistic

or unconvincing, it becomes melodramatic as seen in Thomas Kyd's' The Spanish Tragedy'

(e)   Tragi - Comedy

This is a play, which combines the salient features of comedy and tragedy and tends towards a happy ending though with a great sense of relief after much anxiety. Shakespeare's The Winter's Tale' is a good example of a tragi - Comedy.

9.2.1.2   Features of Drama and Theatre

(a)   Playwright

The writer of drama or a play.

(b)   Director

The theatre artist who directs the speech, movement and actions of the actors and actresses while presenting the play.

(c)   Cast/Dramatis Personae

Characters or actors in a play/drama.

(d)   Protagonist

The leading character in a play or novel also known as the hero or heroin.

(e)   Antagonist

This is the main opponent of the protagonist.

(f) Conflict

The opposition of persons or forces upon which the action depends.

(g) **Prologue and Epilogue**

A prologue is an introduction to a play while an epilogue being the opposite comes at the end of the play.

(h) **Climax**

The climax of a play is the moment of greatest tension as the conflict attains its peak.

(i) **Resolution/Denouement**

This is the point immediately after the climax as the conflict is resolved either in a comic or a tragic manner.

(j) **Flashback**

This is a literary technique by which previous actions or scenes are recalled as they affect the action at hand.

(k) **Suspense**

This is a state of anxious expectation or uncertainty usually brought about by keeping the reader or audience wondering or guessing what the outcome of the conflict will be.

(l) **Tragic Flaw**

This is the weakness or flaw associated with the hero especially the tragic hero.

(m) **Soliloquy**

This is a dramatic device which enables the audience to gain access to the innermost thoughts of a character as he talks to himself in the absence of any other character on stage.

(n) **Dramatic Irony**

When a character does something contrary to the real trend of action though the audience is aware of the true situation while

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other characters are not aware.

(o) **Chorus**

Singers and dancers in unison in a drama or play.

(p) **Costume**

A set of clothes for the theatre mostly used by actors etc.

9.2.2 Prose

This is probably the most popular form of literature, written in ordinary form like novels or short stories. The prose writer uses his power of creative imagination to present his story by probably presenting the feelings, thoughts, etc. of the characters to the reader.

9.2.2.1   Forms of a Prose Work

(a) **Fiction**

Fiction refers to writing that is based on imaginary events — created out of the imagination of the writer.

Example:

Thomas Hardy's The Mayor of Casterbridge.

(b) **Non-Fiction**

This refers to literary writing which is essentially based on true or real events achieved through: Biography- Emeka by Frederick Forsyth and Auto Biography: The Man Died by Wole Soyinka.

In terms of nature, a prose work may be descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative, technical or scientific.

9.2.2.2   Features of Prose

(a) **Paragraphs and Sentences**

Since Prose is written in an ordinary form, it uses sentences

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and paragraphs within the strict meaning and appreciation of these terms.

(b)   The Use of Idioms and Proverbs
There is a high use of idioms and proverbs to make the work rich by adding the desired flavour to it.

(c)   The use of slang words and narrative technique, etc.

9.2.3 Poetry

Poetry is a literary work presented in verse. This means that its writing is arranged in lines often with regular rhythm or rhyme scheme. It is therefore the art of rhythmical composition, written or spoken and designed to produce pleasure through elevated, imaginative or profound thoughts. It is generally a collection of poems which is a piece of creative writing inverse, expressing deep feelings. In poetry the use of figurative language is very high including other poetic devices.

9.2.3.1   Types of Poems

(a)   Sonnet
A poem which contains fourteen lines by convention (made up of an octave-eight lines and a sestet-six lines).

(b)   Elegy/ Dirge
A mournful song and lamentation of the dead.

(c)   Lyric
A poem which expresses the poet's personal emotions of love, sorrow, hate, joy, fulfilment, etc though in the form of a song but not sung.

(d)   Ode
This is a long poem addressed to a person or thing (by way of an apostrophe).

(e)   Ballad
A narrative poem which tells a story, designed for singing or oral recitation.

9.2.3.2   Features of Poetry

(a)   Tone
The inner voice in the poem which conveys the feelings of the poet to the reader in terms of anger, sorrow, happiness, contempt, etc which inspires a corresponding mood in the audience.

(b)   Atmosphere
This is the total impact of the tone and mood of the poem which generates a specific response in the reader.

(c)   Couplet
Two successive lines of verse which rhyme with each other.

(d)   Triplet
Three successive lines of verse.

(e)   Quatrain
Four successive lines of verse etc.

9.3   Literary Terms/Appreciation

Literary appreciation which is also known as literary criticism is an analysis and evaluation of a literary work through laid down principles. The points to be highlighted include:

(a)   Title and Author

These highlight the title of the text and the author's background

(b)   Setting

In literature, setting is a locale or period in which the action of a novel takes place. This embraces the background, event, time and space in a literary text. Setting is technically described Physically, Socially and Psychologically (Duduyemi 1994). From the above explication, physical Setting involves environmental features like forest, plain, etc; Social Setting refers to information such as time sequence like dawn, morning, dates (period) etc while psychological Setting involves specific emotional drives peculiar to each of the characters in a text.

(c)   Subject Matter

This refers to the issues raised in the works being the content of a poem, novel and play.

(d) Plot

The arrangement of events to achieve an intended effect. A plot is therefore a series of carefully devised and interrelated actions that progress through a struggle of opposing forces (conflict) to a climax and denouement. A plot is however diferent from a story line which is simply the presentation of the order of events as they occur (in a chronological order).

(e)   Theme

This is a central idea of a literary work. The theme of the work will present the concern of the author and thereby reflect the lesson to be imparted although a particular work may have many themes: major and minor ones.

(f)   Style

This is a peculiar manner in which a writer writes or present his works. In the appreciation of literature, style is quite vita since it determines the value of the work.

As observed by Abrams (1981), style as quoted in Onukaog et al (1998) is:

the manner of linguistic expression in prose or verse - it is how a writer presents his work... the style of a writer may be analyzed in terms of its diction (choice of words), its sentence structure and syntax; the density and types of its figurative language; the patterns of its rhythm, component sounds and other formal features (including its rhetorical aims and devices).

Style is therefore the umbrella term of describing the langua use of a writer. To examine the style of a writer, one has to determ the level of difficulty of words chosen, figurative language and effectiveness of the figures of speech used. Considering the differ genres of literature, style can be discussed as follows:

(i)   Dramatic technique ((drama)
(ii)   Narrative technique (Prose)
(iii)   Poetic Devices (Poetry)

Dramatic Technique is the manner in which the serie conversations forming a play are arranged. Features of dran technique are: dialogue, monologue, suspense, dramatic irony as already discussed.

Narrative Technique on the other hand involves the use of sty devices in the course of narrating a story. The writer may choc

use the first person narrator like an autobiographer telling the story of his life or as an omniscient narrator which involves all by creating fictional dialogue through life conversations among characters. The author may also make use of flashback, coincidence, catastrophe or contrast. Coincidence implies the occurrence of two events simultaneously during the narration of the story. Catastrophe is a calamity or disaster while contrast is the unlikeness or difference in two shades of views or characters. One is also expected to comment on the diction of the writer in that work in terms of words and expressions that are employed by the writer whether they are simple, difficult, appropriate, etc.

Poetic Devices/Poetic Technique can be viewed in terms of persona, analogue and omniscient technique as major devices. Persona is the use of 1st person singular pronouns like I, me, etc in the poem while analogue is simply the use of **analogy** to describe meanings that are alike. **Omniscient technique** is the use of third person pronouns whereby the poet is considered to be everywhere. Diction, tone, mood, rhyme, rhythm and figures of speech should also be examined.

Considering the three techniques discussed above the writer may adopt a particular point of view to suit him. Point of view here is simply the specific angle or perspective through which a writer presents or sees and examines problems confronting the society. This he does by using the first person or third person.

(g) **Characters and Characterization**
The human beings around whom events forming the plot of a literary work take place are called characters though more applicable to prose and poetry while in drama they are actors and actresses or dramatis personae. **Characterization** on the other hand is rather the creation of images in drama, novel, etc. In this case, the character of a person (which is shown or described as the mental or moral qualities that make up a person)

is presented.
Major characterization traits are indexed in the following dimensions namely: Villain, Antagonist, Protagonist, Victim of circumstance, tragic hero, clown, etc. **A Villain** is a person who betrays a common trust reposed in him by other characters. He constitutes an evil or unwholesome agency in the plot. A good example is seen in Shakespeare as Macbeth kills the King (Duncan) to become King against the expectation of the people of Scotland. **A Clown** is a character that is created to serve the purpose of making jests capable of producing comic relief to readers or audience.

h) **Evaluation/Judgment**
For the critical analysis of any literary piece to be complete, the critic must present the strengths and weaknesses of the work, since the cardinal objective of criticism is not only to explicate the text but to improve it equally. The critic should therefore be knowledgeable in what constitutes good or bad literature. The plot of a text may be weak or episodic; characters may be vaguely portrayed; language could be badly or inappropriately used, etc. In writing a literary appreciation of any work, the critic must make informed judgments about the quality of the work.

i) *A* **Legend** is simply a story from the past that may not be true.

j) **Myth** implies a story that many people believe, but which is not true: the myth of male superiority.

k) A **Folklore** is a long standing and traditional beliefs, legends and custom of a people while a Folktale on the other hand is a legend or narrative originating among people forming oral literature.

(l) **Catharsis** is a way of dealing with bad or strong feelings and emotions by expressing them through writing, talking, etc.

(m) A **Proverb** is a short well-known statement that contains advice about life in general.

9.4 Figures of Speech

(a) **Simile**

A simile is a figure of speech in which two things are likened because of certain qualities that are common to them using words like 'like' or 'as'.

Example:

The man fights like a lion

(b) **Metaphor**

A contracted simile whereby, the two dissimilar things or persons which are only similar in quality, are fully equated with one another without using words like 'like' or 'as'. This becomes a direct comparison. The two things compared should however not belong to the same class.

Example:

He is a lion

(c) **Irony**

A figure of speech in which the literal meaning of the word is more or less the opposite of what the speaker intends.

(d) **Paradox**

A statement which appears to be absurd or contradictory which on close examination, reveals an important truth.

Example:

Attack is the best form of defence.

Euphemism

A mild, indirect and more pleasant term used in place of a blunt or unpleasant one to conceal the real nature of the issue communicated

Example:

The old man has finally passed away (i.e. died).

Hyperbole

This involves the use of exaggeration for emphasis.

Example:

The whole world stood still to listen to him.

Oxymoron

Two words or phrases of opposite or contrasting meanings that are juxtaposed for rhetorical effect.

Example:

The woman wept for joy on being united with her baby.

Allegory

A work of art (prose, poetry and drama) whereby, a known story is presented under the guise of another which is similar.

Example:

Animal Farm by George Orwell.

Antithesis

Placing two contrasting phrases or statements together to create a balance.

Example:

Many are called, but few are chosen.

Symbolism

Using symbols to convey messages. The meaning goes beyond

the physical representation.
Examples:
(i) The cross (Christianity)
(ii) Drawing of a crescent and the moon placed in its centre (Muslim).

(k) Synecdoche/ Si'nekdeki/

This is simply to represent a whole with a part or vice versa.
Examples:

By the last head-count, Nigeria was said to be 88 million in population (human heads)

All hands must be on deck to ensure success (Mere hands...)

(1) Alliteration

This is the repetitive use of the same consonant sound at the beginning of two or more words on the same line.
Example:
Bouncing baby boy.

(m) Assonance

Similar vowel sounds mostly at the beginning of two or more words.
Example:
Nowhere is as absolute as the grave.

(n) Innuendo

For an unpleasant truth to be simply hinted without being bluntly stated.
Example:
The student claimed that the ruler he found in his friend bag resembles the one he lost the previous day.

(o) Litotes

Emphasizing an idea by a deliberate understatement using the narrative to express the opposite.
Example:
He contributed in no small measure...(immensly).

(p) Metonymy

Using an object or idea to stand for something closely associated with it.
Example:
He was invited to the table (i.e. the meal).

(r) Apostrophe

Addressing or appealing to a person that is not present there or a non-human object, especially in poetry.

(o) Parable

Like an allegory, a parable is a short story with an indirect meaning intended to impart a moral lesson, such as the parable of Jesus Christ.

(t) Consonance

Similar last consonant sounds in two or more words.
Example
Through the word in wild protest...

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Comprehensive Use of English and Basic Communication Skills deals with issues in the Use of English and principles that strengthen effective communication. The book is specifically designed to meet the needs to students in Universities, Polytechnic and Colleges of Education offering Use of English courses. It will also pep up their communication skills. Instructors and students will therefore find this book a handy tool for them.

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