

## **GNS 101: USE OF ENGLISH I**

### **COURSE OUTLINES**

1. Four skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing
2. Parts of speech
3. Units of Grammar: morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence
4. Tense and aspect
5. Concord
6. Mechanics of writing or uses of punctuation marks
7. Sounds of English: vowels and consonants

### **Four Skills of Language**

Good understanding of language skills improves study skills. Acquisition of these skills and effective use of them make note taking and note making easy. The skills are four: listening, speaking, reading and writing. When we learn a language, these are the four skills needed for complete communication. We learn to listen first, then to speak, then to read and finally to write. These four skills are called 'macro skills'. These are in contrast to the 'micro skills' which are grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Listening and reading are known as **receptive skills** while speaking and writing are known as **productive skills**. They are explained below:

1. Listening is receiving language through ears.

#### **How to Achieve Effective Communication**

- a. Stop talking; Do not interrupt.
  - b. Prepare yourself to listen.
  - c. Remove distraction.
  - d. Try to understand the speaker's point of view.
  - e. Be patient with the speaker.
  - f. Avoid personal prejudice.
  - g. Listen to the tone of the speaker
  - h. Listen for ideas, not just words.
  - i. Wait and watch for non-verbal communication of the speaker.
  - j. Put the speaker to feel free to speak.
2. Speaking is the act of conveying information, ideas, emotions, feelings in speech. It is the act of delivering a language through mouth.

#### **How to improve speaking?**

- a. Developing your skills will involve gaining fluency in spoken interactions with others, as well as practising your pronunciation.
- b. Take it step by step; learn a few important phrases first and how to pronounce them. After mastering these few, go ahead to learn more.
- c. Don't say much
- d. Practice makes perfect.

- e. Keep it simple: Make your sentences short and grammatically simple. This would make you avoid unnecessary mistakes.
  - f. Use every way you can to communicate: You can use gestures to support your utterances.
  - g. Listen and watch; watch and listen to better speakers.
  - h. Record yourself: Record yourself so that you can discover your lapses.
  - i. Don't speak too fast: Try to speak at normal speed even if you are nervous.
  - j. Don't give up: When you find it difficult to get words or expressions that you need, continue to try.
  - k. You can practise pronunciation by reading aloud or repeating after a recorded text, try to reproduce the pronunciation and intonation of the original.
  - l. Accept help from other people: Be ready to take corrections from other people, especially those who speak better. Ask them questions.
3. Reading is a complex, cognitive (intellectual or mental) process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning. It is a means of language acquisition, communication and sharing information and ideas.
- The five main types of reading are the following: skimming, scanning, intensive, extensive and critical reading.
- It is important for students to know these reading techniques and deduce when best to apply them, especially under exam conditions when there is time constraints and they must make decisions on time availability and the importance of the task at hand. They are explained below:
- i. Skimming: Skimming is also referred to as gist reading. This is to know what a text is basically all about. A student does this when he goes through the title of a book, titles of chapters, pictures to know what the textbook is about.
  - ii. Scanning: This is the act of quickly getting one's eyes to scuttle (move quickly) across sentence to get just a simple piece of information like dates, places, names or page numbers. It also involves paying attention to the introduction and conclusion of a print.
  - iii. Intensive (Vocabulary or Word Attack) Reading: This consumes time more than skimming and scanning. This is done when a reader wants to chronologically and completely get the messages or events in a print. This helps students to acquire more vocabulary and their meanings in certain contexts. It also helps students to have long-term memory of the messages or events they have read. Engaging in intensive reading is not advisable just before an exam because it makes students forget things read immediately after the exam.
  - iv. Extensive or Comprehensive Reading: Extensive reading is reading for pleasure. It involves the ability of the reader to predict the writer; it involves smooth understanding of a print. It happens when a text is not too difficult for such a reader. Consulting a dictionary many times to look up the meanings of many difficult words remove pleasure from extensive reading.
  - v. Critical Reading: This is the act of reading to see the relationship of ideas and use these ideas in reading with meaning and fluency. This involves questioning the opinions of a writer. A critical reader has the right to agree or disagree with a writer.

### **How to Achieve Effective Reading**

Reading is necessary for students to be able to do the following:

- i. Prepare for lectures.
- ii. Participate in tutorials or group discussions.

- iii. Do their assignments.

Many materials are to be read. Students can do the following to alleviate their burdens:

- i. Reading with a purpose
- ii. Being selective about what you read
- iii. Focusing on the question/task
- iv. Before reading, establishing what you already know
- v. Breaking reading into manageable sizes/segments
- iv. Keeping track of what you read.

- 4. Writing is the inscription or recording of signs and symbols for the purpose of communication.

### **Tips on how to Improve English Writing**

- i. Keep all your writings in one place
- ii. Practice writing in English daily.
- iii. Pick a topic and write.
- iv. Write more than one draft.
- v. Use online resources to correct your grammar. You can also consult your dictionary to check your spelling and grammar in English.
- vi. Think outside the box or lines. Don't write about the same thing every day or you will get bored.
- vii. Have a friend/teacher/expert edit your writing.
- viii. Find the best place for you to write.

### **Part of speech**

A part of speech (POS) is a category of words or lexical items which have similar grammatical properties. They seem to undergo inflection for similar properties in the structure of sentences and morphology.

Nine parts of speech are commonly listed:

- 1. Noun
- 2. Pronoun
- 3. Verb
- 4. Adjective
- 5. Adverb
- 6. Preposition\
- 7. Conjunction
- 8. Interjection
- 9. Article or Determiner

- 1. **Noun:** Noun names. They are called naming words. In other words, this part of speech refers to words that are used to name persons, things, animals, places, ideas or events (birthday). It is a word or

lexical item denoting any abstract, quality or idea (happiness) or thing or concrete entity (stone), a person (Olu) and place (Ipetumodu)

There are different types of nouns namely;

- i. Proper Nouns: These always start with capital letters and refer to specific names of persons or places, e.g., Ade, Ifon.
- ii. Common Nouns: These are the opposites of proper nouns. These are just generic names of persons, things or places, e.g., boy, man, house, pizza.
- iii. Concrete Nouns: These refer to nouns which can be seen, touched or perceived through the five senses, e.g., stick, fan.
- iv. Abstract Nouns: Unlike concrete nouns, abstract nouns are those which cannot be seen, touched or perceived through the five senses. Examples: happiness, intimidation, anger.
- v. Count/Countable Nouns: These refer to things that are countable and have singular and plural form, e.g., stone, chair, cup.
- vi. Mass/Uncountable Nouns: These are the opposites of count nouns. Examples: water, beans, rice, flour, garter, furniture, advice, mail, news, equipment, luggage, work, coffee, information. Tables, chairs, cupboards etc. are grouped under the mass noun, furniture. Plates, saucers, cups and bowls are grouped under the mass noun crockery. Knives, forks, spoons etc. are grouped under the mass noun cutlery.

When you are travelling, suitcases, bags etc. are grouped under the mass noun luggage / baggage. You cannot make uncountable nouns plural by adding '-s' because they only have a singular form. Uncountable nouns do not take the article a/an or a number in front of them. However, they can be made countable through

- i. a or any number+ a unit of measurement or quantifier, such as, bowl, grain, lump, cup, can, piece, sachet, herd, meter etc. + of + the uncountable noun. Examples:

- a. A bowl of rice.
- b. A grain of sand.
- c. A lump of sugar.
- d. two cups of water.
- e. A piece of information
- g. Three grains of sand.
- h. A pane of glass.
- i. 10 litres of coffee.
- j. 2 kilos of salt.

- ii. the use of 'some', 'any', 'much', 'little', 'a lot of', 'no' etc. Examples:

- a. I always drink some water early in the morning.
- b. Do not put any salt in the soup.
- c. I don't usually drink much coffee.
- d. Little petrol remains in the tank.
- e. A lot of water is drunk in Nigeria.

d. No wine is drunk in Kenya.

vi. Collective Nouns: These refer to a group of persons, animals, or things. Examples: family, jury, class, fleet, pride (group of lions)

### Plurality of Simple Nouns

A simple noun can be pluralised in the following ways:

i. By addition of letter 's', 'es' or 'ies' depending on the letter that ends the simple noun, e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Boy	Boys
Mango	Mangoes
Lorry	Lorries

ii. By changing letter 'f' or 'fe' to 'ves', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Thief	Thieves
Leaf	Leaves
Wife	Wives

There are exceptions to this rule. Some words in the category above take only 's' to form their plurals, e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Chief	Chiefs
Strife	Strifes

3. By addition of letters 'ice' when the noun ends with 'ouse', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Mouse	Mice
Louse	Lice

4. By addition of letters '-ia' to nouns ending with 'ium', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Stadium	Stadia
Medium	Media

5. By the addition of letters '-a' to nouns ending with 'ion', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Criterion	Criteria
Phenomenon	Phenomena

6. By addition of letters '-es' to nouns ending with '-is', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
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Basis  
Analysis

Bases  
Analyses

7. By addition of letter 'i' to words ending with '-us', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Radius	Radii
Focus	Foci
Locus	Loci

8. By addition of letter 'x' to words ending with '-eau', e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Bureau	Bureaux
Portmanteau	Portmanteaux
Plateau	Plateaux

9. Some simple nouns change the vowel elements in them to show their plurals, e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Foot	Feet
Goose	Geese
Man	Men

10. By addition of '-ren' or '-en' to some simple nouns, e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Child	Children
Ox	Oxen
Brother	Brethren

11. Some simple nouns retain their forms for their plurals, e.g.,

Singular	Plural
Sheep	Sheep
News	News
Furniture	Furniture
Equipment	Equipment
Information	Information

### Plurality of Compound Nouns

A compound noun is made up of two or more words joined by a hyphen. Some are not joined by a hyphen. These two words are usually an adjective and a noun, e.g., Accountant-general, Director-general, Managing Director, Chief Executive etc.

It is conventional to pluralise the noun element and not the adjective, e.g., Accountants-general, Managing Directors, Chief Executives, Major Generals, sons-in-law, bye-laws, commanders-in-chief.

However, if the compound word is used as an adjective, e.g., Macbeth is a five-act play ('five-act' is not pluralised since an adjective is not pluralised).

More examples are:

- a. She belongs to the three-member panel.
- b. A three-bedroom flat is needed by the man.
- c. I love six-room apartments.

It should be noted that the article 'a', 'an' or 'the' usually precedes the compound adjective and the noun it qualifies. When rendered, it becomes a singular entity.

2. **Pronoun:** Pronoun replaces a noun or noun phrase. It is a substitute for a noun or noun phrase (she, he). Pronouns make sentences shorter and clearer. Examples of pronouns: I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, her etc. Consider:

- a. Ade loves football.  
He loves it
- b. The boys beat the girl  
They beat her

In (a), 'Ade' and 'football' are nouns and are replaced by the pronouns, 'he' and 'it' respectively. In (b), 'the boys' and 'the girl' are noun phrases and are replaced by the pronouns, 'they' and 'her' respectively. Therefore, pronouns, like it has been said earlier, can replace both noun and noun phrase.

### Types of Pronoun

- i. Personal Pronouns: Personal pronouns represent people or things. The personal pronouns are arranged thus:

Person	Subject	Complement
<b>Singular</b>		
First	I	Me
Second	You	You
Third	He/she/it	him/her/it
<b>Plural</b>		
First	We	Us
Second	You	You
Third	They	Them

- ii. Demonstrative Pronoun: A demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that shows which person or thing is meant and separates from others. It makes the person or thing one means clear. Demonstrative pronouns point to things. The demonstrative pronouns are:

Singular	Plural
This	These
That	Those.

Use ‘this’ to talk about **a thing** that is near in space or in time. Use ‘these’ to talk about **things** that are near in space or in time.

Use ‘that’ to talk about **a thing** that is farther away in space or time. Use ‘those’ to talk about **things** that are farther away in space or time.

Examples:

- a. This pen does not write well.
- b. That girl was my classmate.
- c. Bring me that bottle
- d. Bring me those bottles

It should be noted that they can be used without nouns or noun phrases after them, e.g., this is beautiful, that is a good idea.

iii. Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are: who, whom, which, what, when, why etc, e.g.,

- a. Who did it?
- b. When did the person do it?

iv. Possessive Pronouns show ownership. Possessive pronouns indicate that something belongs to somebody/something. They are:

Subject	Object
My	Mine
Your	Yours
His/her/its	His/hers/its
Our	Ours
Your	Yours
Their	Theirs

Examples:

- a. This is my purse.
- b. The purse is mine.
- c. The pen is hers while the pencil is ours.
- d. Their books are cherished by her teachers.

iv. Relative Pronouns: They are pronouns that link different parts of a sentence.

Relative pronouns are ‘who’, ‘which’, ‘that,’ ‘whom’ and ‘whose’.

- a. Who: This is used to refer to the subject (that is, the doer of an action), e.g.,
  - i. The man who owns the car is my mentor.
  - ii. This is the man who read the news last week.



In (i) and (ii), ‘who’ refers to ‘the man’ and ‘the girl’ respectively, the performers of the actions. Even when ‘who’ is used interrogatively, it refers to the subject, e.g.,

- i. Who took the plate?
- ii. Mariam took the plate.
- b. Which: It is used for non-human beings either as subject or object, e.g.,
  - i. The stone which he threw was taken by me (subject).
  - ii. This is the car which belongs to me (object).
- c. That: This can be used for both human and non-human beings either as subject or object, e.g.,
  - i. The man that saw me came here a minute ago.
  - ii. This is the school that I attended.
- d. Whom: It is used refer to human beings either as the object or the receiver of an action in a sentence). Examples:

- i. This is the brother whom I go out with.
- ii. I saw the girl whom he insulted.

In (a) and (b), ‘whom’ refers to ‘the brother’ and ‘the girl’ respectively; they are the receivers of the actions. The doer of the actions is ‘I’. It should be noted that when ‘whom’ is used interrogatively, it still refers to the object, e.g.,

- i. Whom are you staying with?
- ii. It is Ade.
- e. Whose: This is used to show comparison between two objects and it shows ownership. It can be used for both human and non-human beings. Examples:
  - i. The boy whose parents live in Nigeria is here.
  - ii. The motorcycle whose brake is costly is loved by Indians.

It should be noted that ‘who’ is used for human being. ‘Which’ is used for non-human being while ‘that’ can be used for both. ‘Whom’ is used if the receiver of an action comes first. When this happens, the doer comes after ‘whom’.

v. Reflexive Pronouns: Reflexive pronouns show that the action affects the person who performs it. They end in ‘-self’ (singular) or ‘-selves’ (plural). They include: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves. Examples:

- a. She harmed herself.
- b. I took myself to the farm.
- c. We must assist ourselves.
- d. They hate themselves.

vi. Intensive Pronouns: Intensive pronouns are pronouns used for emphasis. In other words, intensive pronouns emphasise the subject of the sentence. They are written exactly the same way as the reflexive pronouns but their function is different.

- a. I went there myself.
- b. The woman herself came here.
- c. We condemned them ourselves.

- d. The building itself is not strong.
- e. They did it themselves.

vii. Reciprocals: These pronouns express mutual action or relation. They refer to preceding subjects in sentences. They are 'each other', 'one another' and 'themselves'. They are closely related in usage. They are considered below:

a. Each other: 'Each other' means each of the two persons doing something to the other. The action of one person runs into the action of the other, e.g., Blessing and Ronke are talking to each other (Blessing is talking to Ronke while Ronke is replying Blessing). It would be wrong to use the above sentence if one of the parties, Ronke and Blessing is not talking.

b. One another: It refers to each of three or more persons doing something to the other, e.g., Samson, Toheeb and Paul are talking to one another (the three should be talking for this sentence to be correct).

c. Themselves: It refers to two or more people doing things on their own and suffer from the consequences of their actions, e.g., The students have themselves to blame for failing the examination.

viii. Indefinite Pronouns: Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that do not refer to any specific person or thing. Examples are: Anything, anybody, anyone, somebody, someone, something, everybody, everything, another, each, few, many, none, some.

Examples:

- a. Many have come and gone.
- b. Anybody can come.
- c. Everyone is around.
- d. Something can be done to help.

3. **Verb:** Verb states action or being. It is a word that denotes an action (go), occurrence (happen) or state of being (be, am, is, are, was and were). Without a verb, there cannot be a clause or sentence. So, it is the most important part of speech.

### Types of Verb

Verbs are mainly divided into two: main and auxiliary verbs.

A. Auxiliary/Helping Verbs: Auxiliary verbs are verbs that are used together with the main verb of a sentence to express the action or state. They are divided into two: primary or non-modal and secondary or modal auxiliary verbs. The main primary auxiliary verbs are be-verbs which are: be, am, is, are, was, were, being and been. 'Was' is the past tense form of 'am' and 'is'. 'Were' is the past tense of 'are'. 'Being' is the continuous form while 'been' is the past participle forms. Others are: do, does, did and have, has, had. 'Do' has 'does' as its singular form while 'did' is the past tense form. 'Has' is the singular form of 'have' while 'had' is the past tense form. Examples:

- a. I **am** sleeping.
- b. She **was** sitting.
- c. He **has** done it.

Note that when an auxiliary verb is not combined or supporting any main verb, it becomes a main verb itself, e.g., I **am** a man.

II. Modal/Secondary Auxiliary Verbs: The modal auxiliary verbs are the verbs that express more than one meaning. They are: ‘shall’, ‘should’, ‘will’, ‘would’, ‘may’, ‘might’, ‘can’, ‘could’, ‘ought to’, ‘used to’ and ‘must’. It should be noted that the negative form of must is ‘need not’ or ‘don’t have to’.

iii. Regular Verbs: Regular verbs are verbs that have ‘-ed’ or ‘-d’ as the marker of their past and past participle forms. Examples:

Present tense	Past tense	Past Participle
stop	stopped	stopped
bake	baked	baked
dress	dressed	dressed

iv. Irregular Verbs: They are verbs that do not follow the above rule, i.e. ‘-ed’ or ‘-d’ rule. Examples:

Present tense	past tense	past participle
Go	went	gone
Lie	lay	lain
Lie	laid	laid

v. Phrasal Verbs: A phrasal verb is a verb that is combined with an adverb or a preposition. The combination creates a new meaning. Examples:

- a. Run into = to meet someone by accident. (I ran into Sheun yesterday.)
- b. Make up = invent (a story, an excuse). (‘It never happened. He made the whole thing up!’)

4. **Adjective**: It describes or limits a noun. It is a modifier of a noun or pronoun. Examples are: handsome, stupid, serious. Consider the examples below:

- a. The man is a **serious** lecturer.
- b. He is **handsome**
- c. They are **neat** boys.

‘Serious’ describes the noun, ‘man’, ‘handsome’ describes the pronoun, ‘he’ while ‘neat’ also describes the noun, ‘boys’.

### Degree of Adjective

Adjective has three degrees: positive, comparative and superlative.

- i. Positive Degree: This is the adjective itself, e.g., small, handsome etc.
- ii. Comparative Degree: Comparative adjective shows which thing is better, worse, stronger, weaker and so forth. Examples: Better, worse, bigger, nicer, fatter, more dangerous.
- iii. Superlative Degree: Superlative adjectives: Superlative adjectives show which thing is of the highest degree, the best, the strongest and so forth. Examples: Best, worst, strongest, most expensive.

Study the sentences below:

- a. She is the fattest of them all.

- b. The product is the most expensive.
- c. This is the worst result I have ever got.

the two markers cannot be combined on an adjective. So, it is wrong to say ‘more better’, ‘most tallest’ etc.

**5. Adverb:** It modifies or limits. It is a modifier of an adjective, verb or other adverb. It is a word that gives more information about a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Adverbs make your writing more precise. Examples: very, quickly, slowly, e.t.c.

- a. An adverb modifies a verb, e.g., She walks slowly.
- b. An adverb modifies an adjective, e.g., He is so handsome.
- c. An adverb modifies another adverb, e.g., They write very legibly.

**6. Preposition:** Preposition relates. It is a word that relates words to each other in a phrase or sentence and aids in syntactic context. Prepositions show the relationship between a noun or a pronoun with another word in the sentence. The word ‘preposition’ comes from the Latin word *praeponere* (put before). So, it is a word that is used before a noun or a pronoun to connect it to another word in the sentence. It is usually used to show location, direction, time and so forth. Examples of Prepositions: in, on, of, inside, beside, beyond, upon etc. Study the sentences below:

- a. I sit **in** my room.
- b. The book is **on** the table.

The bold preposition in (a) shows a relationship between the pronoun, ‘I’ and ‘my room’ and also shows where ‘I’ sits. In (b), the preposition shows a relationship between ‘the book’ and ‘the table’ and also shows where the book is, which is ‘the table’.

**7. Conjunction:** Conjunction connects. The word, ‘conjunction’, comes from the Latin word *conjungere* (join together). It is a syntactic connector; links words, phrases or clauses. Conjunctions connect words or group of words. They are divided into two: coordinators and subordinators. Coordinators are just three (and, but, or). Examples of subordinators are: and, yet, for, nor, or, though, because, while etc. Study the sentences below:

- a. I love eba **and** drawing soup.
- b. She loves her husband **because** he is honest.

In (a), the conjunction, specifically the coordinator, ‘and’, joins ‘eba’ and ‘drawing soup’. In (b), the conjunction, specifically the subordinator, ‘because’ joins the first clause ‘She loves her husband’ and the second clause, ‘he is honest’.

**8. Interjection:** Interjection expresses feelings and emotions. It is an emotional greeting or exclamation. Interjections express strong feelings and emotions. This part of a speech refers to words

which express emotions. Since interjections are commonly used to convey strong emotions, they are usually followed by an exclamation mark. Examples of Interjections:

Sample Sentences:

- a. **Wow!** I have made it
- b. **Ouch!** I have hurt myself.
- c. **Hey!** It's enough!

The bold words attached to the main sentences above are some examples of interjections.

**9. Article or Determiner:** It describes or limits. It is a grammatical marker of definiteness (the) or indefiniteness (a, an).

The three articles, 'a', 'an' and 'the' are a kind of adjective. 'The' is called the definite article because it usually precedes a specific or previously mentioned noun. 'A' and 'an' are called indefinite articles because they refer to no specific thing. These words are also listed among determiners because they are almost invariably followed by a noun or something else acting as a noun.

### Units of Grammar/Sentence Construction

For a student to be able to construct meaningful and standard sentences, he/she should have a good knowledge of morpheme, word and be able to construct meaningful phrases and clauses because they are the ones combined to construct sentences.

#### Morpheme

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. The field of study dedicated to morphemes is called *Morphology*. A morpheme is not identical to a word and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone while a word can stand alone. When it can stand alone, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g. morpheme *dog*) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an *affix* because it has a grammatical function (e.g. the *-s* in *dogs*) to indicate that it is plural). Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

#### Classification of Morphemes

1. **Free Morphemes:** Free morphemes can function independently as words.
2. **Bound Morphemes:** Bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes. For example, '*un*' appears only to be accompanied by other morphemes to form a word. Most bound morphemes in English are *affixes*, particularly *prefixes* and *suffixes*. Examples of suffixes are *-tion*, *-ble*, *-ing*, *-ness*. Bound morphemes can be further classified as
  - i. **Derivational Morphemes:** Derivational morphemes when combined with a root change either the meaning or part of speech of the affected word. For example, in the word, *sadness*, the addition of

the bound morpheme *-ness* to the root *sad* changes the word from adjective to noun *sadness*. In the word *irresponsible*, *ir* functions as a derivational morpheme because it changes the meaning of the word formed by the root, *responsible*. Generally, affixes used with root word are bound morphemes.

ii. **Inflectional Morpheme:** Morphemes modify a verb's tense, aspect, mood, person, or number or a noun's, pronoun's or adjective's number, gender or case, without affecting the word's meaning or class (part of speech). Examples of applying inflectional morphemes to words are adding *-s* to the root *house* to form *houses* and adding *-ed* to *borrow* to form *borrowed*. An inflectional morpheme only changes the form of a word.

### Morphological Analysis

**Study the morphological analysis of the following words:**

a. Goes b. seriousness c. developments d. morphology e. inflections

Word	Free Morpheme/Root	Bound Morpheme	
		Derivational Morpheme	Inflectional Morpheme
a. goes	go	-	-es
b. Seriousness	serious	-ness	-
c. developments	develop	-ment	-s
d. morphology	morpheme	-logy	-
e. inflections	inflection	-	-s

### Word

A word is a unit above the morpheme level and below the phrase level. In other words, it is a constituent at the phrase level. At least, two words make a phrase, e.g. a boy, in the kitchen, good house boy etc.

### Phrase/Group

A phrase is a group of words without a finite verb. It has the following types:

1. **Noun phrase:** This performs the function of a noun. It usually has a noun as its head word. element. It functions basically as;

i. Subject and complement of a verb, e.g.

a. *A beautiful girl* attracts attention of *a handsome man*.

2. **Adjectival phrase:** This qualifies a noun, e.g. The man is a *sound male* lecturer.

3. **Adverbial Phrase:** This modifies a predicator, e.g. I do it *very quickly*, He performed *extremely well indeed*, I saw him last week.  
I saw him *last/ week*.
4. **Prepositional Phrase:** This also modifies a predicator. It has preposition as compulsory element, e.g. It is *on my table*.
5. **Verbal Phrase:** This serves as the predicator of a subject or sentence. It has a or a group auxiliary verb and a lexical verb, e.g. He *is doing* it.

### Clause

Clause is group of word with a verb. The verb can be a finite or non-finite verb. A finite verb is a verb that is tied to the subject, e.g., He goes to school. If the subject, 'he' is changed to 'they', for instance, the verb, 'goes' becomes 'go'. Therefore, it is a finite verb. On the other hand, a non-finite verb is a verb that is not tied to the subject, e.g., Beaten by snake, he died. The verb, 'beaten' is a non-finite verb because it is not tied to any subject. Clause has the structure **SPCA**. **S** stands for **subject**, **P** stands for **predicator**, **C** stands for **complement** while **A** stands for **adjunct**. Only **P** is compulsory. So, the sentence, 'He eats eba always' is analysed thus:

S      P      C      A

He/ eats/ eba/ always.

Clause is divided into two according structure:

1. **Subordinate/Beta/Dependent Clause:** It is a clause that cannot stand on its own e.g. if you know me, you won't joke with me.

### Markers of Subordination

Any structure started with the markers below is rendered a subordinate clause:

- i. Absence of finite verbs in a clause, e.g., Going through an emotional trauma, he killed himself.
- ii. Presence of a subordinate or subordinating conjunction. These include: though, although, if, when, because, that, before, once, since etc. The above markers are called simple subordinators. There are also complex subordinators: as soon as, no sooner than, seeing that, so as to etc., e.g., **No sooner has the boy died** than the sister gave birth.
- iii. Presence of wh-elements such as what, how, where etc., e.g., **who he is** is still a mystery.
- iv. Subject-operator inversion where operator is 'were', 'had', 'should', e.g., **Had I known**, I wouldn't have gone.
- v. Unmarked subordinate clause, e.g.
  - a. That in clause that is ellipted, e.g., Ade said (**that**) he would not attend the party.
  - b. Comment clause as subordinate clause, e.g., He is poor, **I assume**

2. **Main/Independent/Alpha Clause:** This is a clause that cannot stand on its own e.g. go home before I slap you.

Subordinate Clause has the following types according to function:

1. **Noun Clause** e.g.
  - i. That Ade is a thief is no longer a secret.
  - ii. I saw the man I like.
  - iii. Why I am a debtor is none of your concern.

- iv. The truth is that Nigeria is a great country with many potentials.
- v. I gave her what she deserves.
- 2. Adjectival Clause e.g.
  - i. The man who saw me is here.
  - ii. The goat which ate my lunch has been hit by a car.
- v. Show me the boy whom he beats.
- 3. Relative Clause e.g.
  - i. The man, who saw me, is here.
  - ii. The goat, which ate my lunch, has been hit by a car.
- vi. Show me the boy, whom he beats.
- 4. Adverbial Clause e.g.
  - i. I will see you when I come back.
  - ii. Come here if you like.

Structures with more than one clause are divided thus:

- 1. I hate him// because he is a thief  
 $\alpha$   $\beta$
- 2. While I was going, // I met a man.  
 $\beta$   $\alpha$
- 3. I washed the plates, // cleaned the room // and took my bath // before my mum arrived.  
 $\alpha$   $\alpha$   $\alpha$   $\beta$
- 4. The man robbed, // duped // and gambled // until he met Jesus Christ // who  
 $\alpha$   $\alpha$   $\alpha$   $\beta$   
 assured him that the Holy Bible // which he does not read // contains God's  
 $\beta$   $\beta$   $\alpha$   
 messages // that can deliver him.  
 $\beta$
- 5. I came to school // and attend all my classes.  
 $\alpha$   $\alpha$

### Sentence

A sentence is a complete statement. It has a subject and a predicate. The subject is doer of an action while the predicate is the part that follows the subject. A predicate consists of the predicator, complement and adjunct. Examples:

Subject	Predicate
a. Sade	smiles a lot
b. I	like talking to people.
c. The man	comes to this school
d. It	is going to rain tonight
e. We love football	

Classification of Sentences According to Function



1. Declarative Sentence: This makes a statement or a declaration. Example: I love reading
2. Interrogative Sentence: This is a sentence that asks a question. It usually ends with the question mark. Example: What is your name?
3. Imperative sentence: This is a sentence that gives a command. Its subject is not always stated but understood. Example: Come here.
4. Exclamatory Sentence: This expresses a strong feeling of emotion, surprise, anger, fear, joy. It usually ends with the exclamation mark (!). Example: What a nice pair of shoes you've got!

### **Sentence Classification According to Structure**

1. Simple Sentence: This is made up of just a main clause. It expresses a single thought. Example:
  - c. I love my mum.
2. Complex Sentence: This has only one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. Examples:
  - a. Nigeria is a great country because it is the largest economy in Africa.
  - b. I like eba when it is served with ewedu because it makes it pass smoothly.
  - c. If you misbehave, I will hand you over to the police.
3. Compound Sentence: This is made up of two main clauses. Examples:
  - a. I came to school and attended all my classes.
  - b. They went to the market but could not find what they wanted.
4. Compound Complex: This has two main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. Examples:
  - a. He came and did it when you were abroad.
  - b. He bought it but handed it over to me when you were away because he did not want you to know that he dashed it out.
5. Multiple Sentence: This is made up of three main clauses. Examples:
  - a. Come home, relax and sleep.
  - b. Buy it, keep it and give it to your child in future.
6. Multiple Complex Sentence: This has three main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses. Examples:
  - a. He read, played and prayed in order to pass his final exam which is ticket to travel abroad.
  - b. I washed the plates, cleaned the room and took my bath before my mum arrived.

### **Tense**

Tense is the change in the form of the predicator to indicate the change in the time of an action.

#### **Types of Tense**

Two types of tense: present and past are often recognised. Perfective and Progressive are recognised as types Aspect, which indicates whether an action is ongoing or completed.

For a wider coverage, the following types of tense are recognised:

1. Present Tense: This makes use of the present forms of the predicators and when the subject is singular or any of the third person singular pronouns: he/she/it, 's' or 'es' is added to the predicator, e.g., a boy goes to school, he *beats* me.

It is used to express the following:

- i. habitual action, e.g.
    - a. I go to school every day.
    - b. I read often.
  - ii. Universal truth, e.g.
    - a. Christians worship in Church.
    - b. Sun sets in the North.
  - iii. present action, e.g.
    - a. He sits on a chair.
    - b. The book is on the table.
  - iv. what is fixed, e.g.
    - a. The plane lands at 11: 00a.m.
    - b. The burial ceremony takes place next Saturday.
  - v. a certain capability, e.g.
    - a. My father speaks ten languages.
    - c. The white man understands Ikale.
2. Past Tense: This denotes any of the various tenses of the verb that is used to describe actions, events or states that have been started or completed at the time of utterance. It is used to express
- i. an action that was completed during some definite past time, e.g. He did it yesterday.
  - ii. a repeated or a habitual past action, e.g. Then, we respected our parents. ‘Would’ and ‘used to’ are also used to indicate a habitual past action, e.g.
    - a. While we were in primary school, by 7: 45 a.m., we would be on the assembly ground.
    - b. I used to abuse my parents.
3. Present and Past Futurity: Present Futurity is used to express an action that will take place in the future while Past Futurity is used to express a future action in the past. Present Futurity is expressed through the use of
- i. present modal auxiliary verbs, e.g., will, shall, must etc., e.g. I will do it.
  - ii. simple present tense, e.g. He does it soon.
  - iii. ‘be’ verb + going to, e.g. he is going to do it.
  - iv. continuous tense, e.g., He is doing it soon.
- Note: Past futurity is expressed through the following:
- i. the past forms of modal auxiliary verbs are used. They are: would, might, should, etc., e.g., He said he would come.
  - ii. past forms of ‘be’ verb which are ‘was’ and ‘were’ + going to, e.g., he promised that he was going to come.
  - iii. past continuous tense, e.g., he said he was coming.
4. Present and Past Perfect Tense: By these, we mean the action expressed in the verb is completed in the present or in the past. Note that only the past participle form of the verb is used here. ‘Have’ or ‘has’ is

used for Present Perfect Tense. 'Has' is used when the subject is singular. 'Had' is used for Past Perfective Tense, e.g.,

Present Perfect Tense	Past Perfective Tense
a. He has finished it.	He had finished it before we arrived
b. We have done it	They said they had done it.
c. I have written it	When he came I had written it.

5. Present and Past Continuous Tense: The present form indicates that an action is ongoing at the time of speaking while the past form indicates that an action was ongoing at the time of speaking in the past. Verb with 'ing' is used for this. The present form makes use of the present forms of the verb 'be' which are 'am', 'is' and 'are' while the past form makes use of 'was' and 'were', e.g.,

Present Continuous Tense	Past Continuous Tense
I am making noise .	I was making noise yesterday.
She is dancing	She was dancing when I saw her.
They are singing	They were singing when we were there.

6. Present and Past Future Continuous Tense: These have the structures below:

Present Future Tense

Past Future Tense

**Any past modal**

**auxiliary verb+ 'be'+ verb with 'ing'**

a. I will be travelling to Lagos tomorrow	He said he would be travelling to Lagos next day.
b. He may be leaving next month.	Sade thought he might be leaving next month.
c. They shall be serving the punishment soon.	He threatened that they should be serving the punishment soon.

7. Present and Past Future Perfect Tense: These have the structures below:

Present Future Perfect Tense

Past Future Perfect Tense

**Any modal auxiliary verb**

**Any modal auxiliary verb**

**in present form + have**

**in the past form + have**

**+ the past participle form of the verb**

**+ the past participle form of the verb**

a. He will have done it.	a. He would have done it if he had not been warned.
b. We may have made a mistake.	b. We might have made a mistake if we had not been corrected.
c. They shall have obeyed the Law.	c. They should have obeyed the law if they had not been backed by the Government.

8. Present and Past Future Perfect Continuous: These have the following structures:

Present Future Perfect Continuous	Past Future Perfect Continuous
<b>Any modal auxiliary verb in present form + have + been + verb with 'ing', e.g.,</b>	<b>Any modal auxiliary verb in past form + have + been + verb with 'ing', e.g.,</b>
a. She will have been doing it.	a. She would have been doing it if we had not been complaining.
b. She may have been complaining	b. She might have been complaining if they had not warned her.
c. She must have been attending the class.	c. She could have been attending the class if we had failed to warn her.

### Summary

Tense	Example
Present Tense	go goes
Past Tense	went
Present Future Tense	will go
Past Future Tense	would go
Present Continuous	am going is going are going
Past Continuous	was going were going
Present perfect Tense	have gone has gone
Past Perfect Tense	had gone
Present Future Perfect	will have gone
Past Future Perfect	would have gone
Present Future Continuous Tense	will be going
Past Future Continuous Tense	would be going
Present Future Perfect Continuous Tense	will have been going
Past Future Perfect Continuous Tense	would have been going

### Voice

Voice indicates whether the subject performs an action or an action is performed upon the subject. In other words, it refers to that form of the verb which shows whether the person or thing denoted by the subject acts or is acted on; the voice of a verb indicates whether the subject of a verb performs an action (doer) or suffers an action (victim). It has two types:

1. Active Voice
2. Passive Voice
1. Active Voice: This indicates that the subject performs an action. All the examples under Tense belong to this group. More examples are:
  - a. He loves the masses.
  - b. He loved the masses.
  - c. He is loving the masses.
  - d. He will love the masses.
  - e. He has loved the masses.
2. Passive Voice: This indicates that the action is performed upon the subject, e.g.,
  - a. The masses are loved by him.
  - b. The masses were loved by him.
  - c. The masses are being loved by him.
  - d. The masses will be loved by him.
  - e. The masses have been loved by him.

### CHANGING OF ACTIVE VOICE TO PASSIVE VOICE

To change Active Voice to Passive Voice, subject and object are interchanged. So, subject is made object while object is made subject. This changed subject is put after 'by'. Note that only the past participle form of the verb is used in Passive Voice. Some other changes are made to the verbal group. Consider:

#### 1. Present Tense

Study the table below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He beats me	I am beaten by him.
They like reading	Reading is liked by them.
She sweeps the floors	The floors are swept by her.

Note that to change a sentence in active voice and in present tense to passive voice, the present form of the verb 'be' which are 'am', 'is' and 'are' used. Any one to be used depends on the subject of such a passive structure.

#### 2. Present Tense

Study the table below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He beat me.	I was beaten by him.
They liked reading .	Reading was liked by them.
She sweeps the floors.	The floors were swept by her.

As in the table above, the past forms of the 'be' which are 'was' and 'were' are used depending on the subject.

#### 3. Present and Past Future Tense

Study the table below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He will/would beat me.	I will/ would be beaten by him.
They may/might like reading.	Reading may/might be liked by them.

Like in the table above, any modal auxiliary verb in present form should be used while for Past Future Tense, any modal auxiliary verb in the past form should be used. 'Be' should be added to any one used.

#### 4. Present and Past Continuous Tense

Study the examples below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He is/was beating me.	I am/was being beaten by him.
They are/were liking reading.	Reading is/was being liked by them.
The floors are/were being swept by her.	

As in the table above, the present forms of the verb 'be': 'am', 'is' and 'are' are used for Present Continuous Tense while its past forms: 'was' and 'were' are used for Past Continuous Tense. The continuous form of the verb 'be', 'being' is added to any one chosen.

#### 5. Present and Past Perfect Tense

Study the examples below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He has/had beaten me.	I have/had been beaten by him.
They have/had liked reading.	Reading has/had been liked by them.
She has/had swept the floors.	The floors have /had been swept by her.
As in the table above, for Present Perfect Tense, 'have' or 'has' should be used while 'had' should be used for Past Perfect Tense. Any one chosen should be combined with the past participle form of the verb 'be', 'been'.	

#### 6. Present and Past Future Perfect Tense

Study the examples below:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
He will/would have beaten me.	I will/would have been beaten by him.
They may/might have liked reading	Reading may/might have been liked by them.
She shall/should have swept the floors	The floors shall/should have been swept by her.

As seen in the table above, for Present Future Perfect Tense, any modal auxiliary verb in present form is used while for Past Future Tense, any modal auxiliary verb in the past form is used. Any one chosen should be followed by 'have' and 'been'.

### Summary

<b>Tense</b>	<b>Active Voice    Passive Voice</b>	
Present Tense	beat beats	am/is/are beaten
Past Tense	beat	was beaten Were beaten
Present/Past Future Tense	will/would beat	will/would be beaten
Present/Past Continuous Tense	am, is, are/ was, were beating	am, is, are/was, were being beaten
Present/Past Perfect Tense	have, has/had beaten	have, has/had been beaten
Present/Past Future	will/would have beaten	will/would have been beaten

### **ENGLISH CONCORD**

Concord means agreement. In English, it manifests itself in various ways:

1. Subject-Predicator Concord
2. Subject-Complement Concord
3. Tense Concord.

1. Subject-Predicator Concord: This is the agreement between the subject and the predicator. The predicator must agree with the subject for a sentence to be correct. The agreement between the subject and the predicator is usually at two levels:

- a. Person
- b. Number

A. Person: The person a subject is determines the type of predicator it takes. Basically, in English, there are three persons which are further subdivided into six, which constitute the subject in English:

Subject	Verb
I	go
We	go
You	go
You	go
He/She/It	goes
They	go

In the above table, the type of predicator each subject takes is shown; note that when the subject is he/she/it, 's' or 'es' is added to the predicator.

B. Number: There must also be concord of number in a sentence. Number in English is singular or plural. There are two broad rules governing the agreement between the subject and predicator at the level of number:

- i. If the subject is singular, the predicator must also be singular, e.g. the man *believes* in himself.
- ii. If the subject is plural, the predicator must also be plural, e.g. the men *believe* in themselves.

However, the problem is how to decide whether a subject is singular or plural. These are the rules that can guide you.

- a. When two singular subjects are connected by the coordinating conjunction 'and', the plural form of the predicator must be used, e.g. the man and his wife *go* out often.
- b. When two singular subjects joined by 'and' refers to one and the same object, singular form of the predicator is used, e.g. the founder and the Chancellor of Oduduwa University *is* here.
- c. When two singular subjects are joined by words or phrases like 'as', 'as well as', 'together with', 'in addition to', 'with', the singular form of the predicator is used, e.g. Mr. Yusuff with his students *has* been invited to the party.
- d. Indefinite pronouns usually take singular form of the predicator. Indefinite pronouns are: somebody, someone, something, everybody, everyone, everything, e.g. Everyone in this class *hates* me.
- e. Each and everyone when used as a subject usually takes the singular form of the predicator, e.g. each and every one *obeys* me.
- f. When two singular subjects are joined by either...or, neither...nor, not...but..., the singular form of the predicator is used, e.g. Neither Kike nor Muinat *loves* him.
- g. However, when one of the subjects joined by either...or, neither...nor, not...but... is singular and the other is plural, the predicator must agree with the subject nearer to it, e.g. Neither Olu nor his friends *look* serious.
- h. When collective nouns like the poor, jury, police, family, staff are considered as a unit, they usually take the singular form of the predicator, e.g. the family *meets* every day.
- i. On the other hand, when these collective nouns are not considered as a unit, they take the plural form of the predicator, e.g. the family *are* divided over the issue of inheritance.
- j. When words like number, part, rest are considered as a unit, they take the singular form of the predicator, e.g. a greater part of the work *has* been completed.
- k. When these words are considered as members of the unit, they take plural predicator, e.g. a greater part of the people *are* not serious.
- l. When relative pronouns intervene between the subject and the predicator, the predicator must agree with the noun that precedes it, e.g. one of the men who works in a bank *has* arrived.
- m. Plural number (of time) usually takes the singular predicator because it is a singular period of time e.g., Fifty hours *is* needed to complete the job.
- n. Plural number (of money) which indicates a sum or unit takes the singular predicator e.g. One million dollars *is* needed for the project.



- o. Percentages take singular predicator e.g. Thirty percent of Mass Com. students *likes* me.
- p. Certain nouns which are plural in form but singular in meaning: electronics, news, technics take singular predicator e.g. electronics *is* expensive in this country.

**2. Subject-Complement Concord:** There must be agreement between the subject and complement for a sentence to be grammatical. Consider:

- ai. Incorrect: My father *said* they *would* come
- iii. Correct: *My father* said *he* would come
- bi. Incorrect: *Sade* gave me *his* book.
- ii. Correct: *Sade* gave me *her* book.

The first instance is a transfer of mother tongue while the second one is due to carelessness. So, take your time to ensure that you display subject-complement concord when using the English Language.

**3. Tense Concord:** This is the agreement between the tense of a clause and another clause. There must be this agreement for an utterance to be grammatical. Examples:

- a. Sade said she would come.
- b. When I was coming, I saw Tolu.
- c. When they came, we had been doing it.
- d. She said she was travelling.
- e. I greet him when I see him.

## PUNCTUATION

### Capital Letters

To punctuate your sentences correctly, there are two questions you should ask yourself-where and which?

- 1. 'Where' in the sentences is punctuation needed?
- 2. 'Which' mark of punctuation should be used?

Capital letters are used in starting the following:

- 1. the first word of a sentence, e.g. we saw them.
- 2. the names of people, e.g. Ade, Adamu, Olu, Sehun, Uche, Emeka etc.
- 3. days of the week e.g. Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday.
- 4. months of the year, e.g. January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December.
- 5. titles, e.g. Chief, Alhaji, Reverend, Father, Mr., Mrs., Dr., Prof.,
- 6. names of places, towns, villages, streets e.g. Ipetumodu, Ife, Lagos, Osogbo, Orolu, Nigeria, Oduduwa Street, Ajegunle Street.

7. Names of oceans, rivers, mountains, e.g. Atlantic Ocean, River Niger, River Benue, Mount Kilimanjaro.
8. Names of nations and languages, e.g.
  - i. Nigeria was colonised by Britain, so, English is her official language.
  - ii. French is loved in France.
9. words connected with religion, e.g.
  - i. Nigerians love Christianity and Islam.
  - ii. The Pope attended the conference of Imams in Dubai to show the world that he didn't hate Muslims.
10. titles of books, magazines, newspapers, subjects, e.g.
  - i. Intensive English for Senior Secondary School 2 is the textbook I use often.
  - ii. I write in The Pen magazine.
  - iii. They love The Punch.
  - iv. As an Art Student, you must pass English Language, Literature-in-English, Government, Yoruba, Hausa or Igbo, and Christian Religious Studies or Islamic Religious Studies before you can get admission into any of the Nigerian universities.
11. names of government departments, political parties, important institutions and companies, e.g.
  - i. The Minister advised the people to always support the Ministry of Health in his bid to realise the agenda of the ruling People's Love Party.
  - ii. Oduduwa University is known to the staff of Unilever Press Plc.
12. the heads of institutions, departments, companies, ministries, e.g.
  - i. Our Vice Chancellor, the Registrar and the Provost met yesterday.
13. to start words like **Mother** and **Uncle** when each is used as a name or part of a name, e.g. I will see Uncle Yusuff tomorrow.

Note that they are started with small letters when they follow determiners, e.g. I love my mother.

### **Commas (,)**

Comma is used

1. in listing, e.g. I went to the market to buy books, fruits, vegetables, shirts, caps and phones.
2. They came, saw, fought and conquered.
3. in question tags and short forms, e.g. they come to school, don't they? Yes, they do.
4. after verbs introducing direct speeches, e.g. He said, 'go out', He shouted, 'come here'.
5. before the next word following the closing quotation marks of a direct speech, e.g.
  - i. 'I should have come yesterday', he regretted.
  - ii. Ade said, 'you don't eat', do you?' No, I don't', replied Uche.
6. to mark off a subordinate clause preceding the main clause, e.g. When we arrived, we were warmly received by our guests.
7. to separate words, phrases and clauses in a sentence, e.g. the lecture had not commenced when I arrived: students were in groups gossiping, each holding his books, playing in the classrooms, until the lecturer arrived.

8. to mark off the name of a person you are speaking to, e.g. Ade, be careful.
9. to mark off a noun in apposition, e.g. Emeka, my good friend, is now in America.
10. Before 'please' and 'thank you', e.g.
  - i. Get it for me, please.
  - ii. I got the letter, thank you.
11. after an introductory adverb, e.g. Moreover, Nigeria is a blessed country.
12. after or before or before and after the name of the person one is speaking to, e.g.
  - i. I know, Mr. Ade, that you did it.
  - ii. Please, Mr. Ojo, go out.
13. Before and after a name or nominal group in apposition, e.g. the man, the owner of the hotel, is a nice person.

### **Colon ( : )**

Colon is used

1. to introduce a list, e.g.
  - i. The problems of Nigeria are: corruption, insecurity and unemployment
  - ii. The subjects taught at the senior secondary school level include the following: Mathematics, English, Biology, Government, Civic Education
2. to separate the main clause from a phrase or clause that gives more information on it, e.g. He is a lecturer: he lectures GST 101.
3. after the names of dramatis persona e.g.
  - i. Seun: (frowning) gave him a knock on his head
  - ii. Ayo: (laughing) appreciated everybody present

### **Semicolon ( ; )**

Semicolon is used

1. After words like namely; for instance; such as; that mark off lists, e.g. the woman loves many things, namely; studying, playing, buying and selling.

### **Apostrophe ( ' )**

Apostrophe is used

1. to show possession. If the possessive noun is singular or a plural noun without 's', the apostrophe comes before 's' and after 's' if it is plural with 's', e.g. The boys' quarters are close to the man's company. So, it is people's choice.

Note that when two possessive nouns are joined by a conjunction, only the second noun takes the apostrophe, e.g. Ameen and Adam's books are here.

Also, note that where a single noun ends in 's', you can show possession by either putting apostrophe after that's' or an apostrophe followed by another 's', e.g. James' pen or James's pen writes well.

2. to show omissions, e.g. he's, didn't, she'd, '88 (he is, did not, she had or would, 1988)
3. to form the plural of a figure or a letter, e.g.
  - i. He was popular in the 70's.

- ii. Dot your i's and cross your t's.
- 4. after 'o' in 'o' clock' e.g. It is 10 o' clock

### **Full Stop (.)**

Full stop is the longest pause after a sentence. It is used

- 1. to show the end of a sentence which is neither an exclamation nor a question, e.g. He comes to school early.

Note that a word can be a sentence, e.g. go.

- 2. in abbreviations, e.g. p.m. (post meridian), etc. (et cetera), e.g. (exempligratia or for example), Jan. (January), Mr. (Mister), A.D.C. (aide-de-camp), Yusuff A.A.
- 3. in letter writing, the last word of the address is followed by full stop. Full stop is put at the end of the date too, e.g.

Oduduwa University,  
Ipetumodu,  
Ile-Ife,  
Osun State,  
Nigeria.  
14<sup>th</sup> of April, 2016.

### **Question Mark (?)**

Question mark is used

- 1. to show that a question is being asked directly or rhetorically, e.g.
  - i. Can I go, Sir?
  - ii. A great Nigeria, will I live to see it?
- 2. at the end of a question tag, e.g. He saw me, didn't he?
- 3. to express doubt, e.g. they came? last year

Note:

- i. the location of the question mark (?) when in doubt
- ii. that no other punctuation mark follows immediately after a question mark, e.g. (a) They asked, 'how is it done' or (b) 'How is it done?' they asked.

Full stop is not put at the end of example (a) above and comma is not put after 'she asked' in example (b).

- iii. that a sentence beginning with 'I hope' is not a question and should not have a question mark. Instead, full stop (.) is used, e.g. I hope you are alright.

### **Exclamation Mark (!)**

Exclamation mark is used to express strong feelings, such as; anger, shock, delight, astonishment, etc., e.g.

- i. What an intelligent girl! I like her.
- ii. God! You are wonderful.

iii. Go! Come! Fast!

Note that example (iii) is wrong. You can only use one in a sentence.

### **Hyphen (-)**

Hyphen is used

1. to form a compound from two or more words, e.g. I hate hit-and-miss programmes.
2. to form a compound of a prefix and a noun, e.g. Mr. Olu was the ex-principal of the college.
3. to write compound words from figures, e.g. I will meet his twenty three year old daughter next week.
4. to show a breakage of a word of more than one syllable at the end of a line, e.g. Sade went early in or-der to do her assignment in time.
5. to separate a prefix ending with the same vowel as the one starting the word it is added to, e.g. the man was co-opted into the committee.

### **Dash (—)**

Dash is longer than hyphen. It used

1. to show that what follows is a summary, e.g. The man beats his wife, doesn't feed her, doesn't pay his children's school fees, gambles around — he is an irresponsible man.
2. to separate a comment from the rest of the sentences, e.g. He is stupid — but I like him.

Note that colon, semicolon or bracket ( ) or [ ] can be used in example 2.

### **Slash**

Slash is mainly used

1. to show alternatives in words/phrases you can choose from, e.g.
  - i. A boy/girl is needed here.
  - ii. The entire family of Pa. Olanipekun invite Chief/Alh. /Mr. /Mrs. /Dr. \_\_\_\_\_ to the naming of their baby.
2. to separate lines of poems, when they are not quoted in their stanza form, e.g. Twinkle, twinkle little star/How I wonder what you are/Up above the world so high/like a diamond in the sky.

### **Ellipsis (...)**

Ellipsis is used

1. to indicate some omitted words in a quotation, e.g. ...is my name.
2. to create stammering (halting speech) especially in drama, due to fear or uncertainty e.g. I g... go t...to sch...school
3. to indicate an omission in a word/sentence, owing to sudden interruption of the speaker, e.g. go to the r...Ade, stop it.

Note that ellipsis is only three dots (...).

### **Bracket ( ) or [ ]**

Bracket is used

1. when a sentence is interrupted or something is added on to the end of it, e.g. I wish to go now (and so does my mum).
2. In place of dashes to mark off additional information in a sentence, e.g. he lectured us on 'Prevention of HIV/AIDS' (a deadly illness ravaging the country).
3. for numbering within a writing e.g. the procedure includes (1) boiling water, (2) cooling it and (3) filtering it.
4. to mark off cross references in a writing, e.g. the greatest virtue is showing love to others (see Sam 1:13).

### **Inverted Comma or Quotation Mark ‘ ’ or “ ”**

The single sign ‘ ’ is used in British English while the “ ” is used in American English.

Inverted comma is used

1. at the beginning and end of the actual words of the speaker, e.g.
  - a. 'Give me water to drink', said Obi.
  - b. He will not get away calling me 'a foolish man'.
2. to mark off titles of books, newspapers etc. where underlining is not used, e.g.
  - a. 'The Man of the People' is one of the Chinua Achebe's novels
  - b. 'The Guardian' is one of the national newspapers in Nigeria.
3. to show a speaker's disagreement with a description of someone/something e.g. I met the 'famous author' on my way to school.
4. To draw attention to slang/foreign word used in a sentence e.g.
  - a. They were quartered in a 'de luxe' hotel in Kaduna.
  - b. His boasting is all 'bullshit'.
  - c. 'Ese' is used for walking.

Note: Foreign words in sentences are better italicised where such facilities are not available.

### **Underlining/Italics**

These are used

1. to lay emphasis on certain word(s) in a sentence e.g. It is wrong to say more grease to your elbow, the correct expression is more power to your elbow.
2. to show that a word/phrase is foreign to English Language. The use of italics is better e.g. Go and get me *omi*.
3. to show titles of books, magazines, etc. in place of inverted comma, e.g. the lecturer recommended New Englishes for us.

N.B. Italics are better used in the above examples where facilities are unavailable for that.

## **THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH**

### **VOWEL SOUNDS**

A vowel sound is a sound produced without obstruction to the airstream coming from the lungs. It is classified according to two parameters, namely;

1. **Position of the tongue:** The position of the tongue can be front, back or central.

2. **Shape of the lips:** The shape of the lips can be rounded, spread or neutral.

English vowels are twenty-five (25) and are divided into three:

1. **Monophthongs or Pure Vowels:** The pure vowels or monophthongs are of one symbol only. They are divided into:

a. **Short Vowels:** These have no length mark of two dots (:). They are seven (7).

b. **Long Vowels:** These have length mark of two dots (:) and are always stressed in words or syllables.

They are arranged as follows:

1. /i:/ as in seat, beat, teeth
2. /ɪ/ as in sit, hit, village
3. /e/ as in said, bed, shed, kettle
4. /æ/ as in bad, sad, pad, man
5. /ɑ:/ as in start, part, cart
6. /ɒ/ as in cot, hot, pot
7. /ɔ:/ as in sword, cord, mother
8. /ʊ/ as in full, pull, put
9. /u:/ as in boom, loom, shoe
10. /ʌ/ as in blood, cut, love
11. /ɜ:/ as in bird, third, earth
12. /ə/ as in tailor, teacher, sailor

2. **Diphthongs:** The diphthongs are eight (8) and are produced with a glide from one vowel to another. Though diphthong connotes or means **double sounds** or **a union of two sounds**, it must be taken as a sound. The most important thing to note is that a diphthong changes its quality when it is produced. For instance, the diphthong in the word, **rice** is /aɪ/. Its production starts with /a/ and ends with /ɪ/. It should also be noted that the first part of every diphthong is much longer and stronger than the second part whenever it is articulated. The syllable or word that produces it must also be stressed. They are:

13. /eɪ/ as in day, pay, slay
14. /əʊ/ as in go, no, home
15. /aɪ/ as in child, high, lie
16. /aʊ/ as in now, cow, town,
17. /ɪə/ as in here, dear, beer, fear
18. /ɔɪ/ as in boy, coy, toy
19. /eə/ as in hair, fare, bare
20. /ʊə/ as in poor, fuel, moor

3. **Triphthongs:** These are five (5) and are produced with a glide from one vowel to another. The word ‘triphthong’ connotes **three sounds** or **a union of three sounds**. The first part of a triphthong is always longer and stronger than the other parts.

21. /eɪə/ as in prayer, player, layer
22. /əʊə/ as in goer, lower
23. /aɪə/ as in buyer, riot, pious
24. /aʊə/ as in bower, hour, tower
25. /ɔɪə/ as in loyal, lawyer,

## **Consonant**

A consonant is a sound produced with the obstruction or interruption of the airstream.

### CHART OF ENGLISH CONSONANT SOUNDS

Manner of Articulation	State of the Glottis		Place of Articulation		Examples
	<b>Voiceless</b>	<b>Voiced</b>			
Plosive	/p/	/b/	bilabial	pat, tap, pile	bad, bed, ban
	/t/	/d/	alveolar	tea, ten, tent	dog, dig, drag
	/k/	/g/	velar	keg, skirt, school	go, goat, great
Fricative	/f/	/v/	labiodental	fan, fast, free	van, fast, vet
	/θ/	/ð/	dental	thing, health, thick	father, that, the
	/s/	/z/	alveolar	sip, ice, rice	zip, eyes, rise
	/ʃ/	/ʒ/	palato-alveolar	shop, crash, ship	usual, measure, vision
	/h/		glottal	harm, heat, high	
Affricate	/tʃ/	/dʒ/	palato-alveolar	cheer, chest, batch	jest, gin, badge
Nasal		/m/	bilabial	music, mug, smoke	
		/n/	alveolar	name, gnaw, tiny	
		/ŋ/	velar	song, sing, slang	
Lateral Approximant		/l/	alveolar	flag, loot, lime	
		/w/	bilabial	wage, swim, twin	
		/r/	alveolar	ram, grow, marry	
		/j/	palatal	youth, yes, yet	