DIRECTORATE OF GENERAL STUDIES
GOMBE STATE UNIVERSITY

GSTS 111

COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH

A PRODUCTION OF THE DIRECTORATE OF GENERAL STUDIES

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COURSE CODE: **GSTS 111**

COURSE TITLE: **Communication in English**

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DIRECTORATE OF GENERAL STUDIES
GOMBE STATE UNIVERSITY
2023/2024 FIRST SEMESTER CONTINUES
ASSESSMENT EXAMINATION (I)
GSTS 111 (Communication in English)

REG. NO.:_____DEPT: _____
Instruction: Attempt All Questions

1. Explain the Minutes of a meeting, outline and explain briefly it's basic features

2. Explain English sounds system

3. As a secretary of your association, write the minutes of meeting which addresses issues of funding and rebranding for your association.

COMPUTER BASED TEST (CBT) DEMOSTRATION

Congratulations for taking your test successfully and good luck

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xi. Do not make your opening too formal.

9.6.2 How to Close a Talk?
i. Summarize your points briefly
ii. Appeal for action
iii. Give sincere compliments to the audience for giving you a listening ear.
iv. A humorous close
v. Closing with a poetical or philosophical quotation.

9.6.3 Improve Your Diction
We are evaluated and classified by four things: by what we do, by how we look, by what we say, and how we say it. How often we are judged by the language we use. Your diction will be very largely a reflection of the company you keep. A sound use of language signifies power and respect. To be a good speaker, always try to:

i. Give your time to the reading of some enduring books, carry them in your pocket, and read them at odd moments during the day.
ii. Read with a dictionary by your side. Look up the unfamiliar word. Try to find a use for it so that you may fix it in your memory.
iii. Study the derivative of the words you use.
iv. Do not use clichés. Be precise, exact, in your meaning.
v. Do not use trite companions such as "cool as a cucumber". Strive for freshness; create similes of your own. Have the courage to be distinctive.

brooding, recalling, selecting the ideas that appeal to you most, polishing them, and working them into a pattern of your own. In preparing a speech these are suggested steps to take:

  i. Choose the subject in advance so that you will have enough time to think over it.
 ii. Ask yourself every possible question about the subject.
iii. Do not talk about abstract issues that bore your audience
 iv. While preparing, study your audience. Think of their wants and their wishes.
  v. In preparing some topics, it is very advisable to do some reading, to discover what others have thought, what others have said on the same subject. But do not read until you have first exhausted all your thoughts.

9.6 Learn to use Different Pitches or Tones

When you are out to deliver, some of the features of natural speaking are to be employed in your conversation, use them as consciously as you digested your dinner and this comes only by practice. First, stress important words, and subordinate unimportant ones. Second, change your pitch, the pitch of your voices in conversation flows up and down the scale from high to low and back again, never resting, but always s shifting like the face of the sea. Third, vary your rate of speaking; it is, in fact, one of the very best of all possible ways to make an idea stand out prominently. Fourth, pause before and after important ideas.

9.6.1 How to Open a Talk?

  i. Beware of opening with a so-called humorous story
 ii. Do not begin with an apology
iii. Arouse curiosity
 iv. Use anecdotes, begin with a story; we especially like to hear a speaker relate narratives from his own experiences.
  v. Begin with a specific illustration
 vi. Use an exhibit
vii. Ask a question
viii. Try a striking quotation from a famous man
 ix. Tie your topic up to the vital interests of your audience
  x. Starting with shocking facts

MODULE THREE
VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

MODULE FOUR
SENTENCE TYPES AND FUNCTIONS

9.4 The Practice of Oral Presentation

Oral communication operates with words of the mouth. It could be discursive, analysing issues in details, informative, descriptive, argumentative, narrative, explanatory, persuasive and the likes. These functions require the speaker to be equipped with self- confidence, practical techniques, and further suggested ideas added to those rules that will help everyone to meet people as individuals or groups, and to talk to them effectively. Below is a summary of the requirements on how to develop confidence and influence people through oral presentation.

Overcoming Nervousness, Developing Courage and Self Confidence

Stage fright or nervousness is simply shyness that relates to formal public appearances. Signs of Stage fright include nausea, dizziness, clammy hands and weakness. Nervousness could be due to lack of exposure to big audiences, shyness, and inferiority complex and in some case it could be natural. The following steps can be used to overcome stage fright:

1. Prepare very well for your speech. Know thoroughly what you are going to talk about unless you plan or thought out what you are about to say, you can't feel very comfortable when you face your audience.
2. Concentrate on the subject of your talk
2. Believe you can do it
3. Have an acceptable degree of verbal fluency
4. Act confident: Before you start and walk on the stage, take and deep breath, then a second one unknown to the audience after which you greet eminent personalities seated as well as audience.
5. Try to maintain eye contact.
6. Practice- this is emphatically the most important. The best way to develop self- confidence in speaking is to speak.

9.5 Self-Confidence Through Preparation

Preparing a speech and presenting it involves a high degree of self-confidence. Preparation means the assembling of your thoughts, your ideas and your convictions. In essence, preparation refers to thinking,

must be a receiver {who listens, comprehends, interpret and analyze the message through critical listening}, also the source, the speaker or sender of the message. For communication to be successful the sender and the receiver must share similar communicative situations.

The various communication situations can be classified into two broad categories:

9.3.1 Formal and Informal situations.

9.3.1.1 Formal situation has an important characteristic feature which is "the presence of a planned discourse". In such situation "scripted text has been thought out, planned and organized prior to the presentation. This preparation may be for court sessions, sermons, conference and other functions that one is called upon to present a speech. It is expected that audience "have a shared situational knowledge".

9.3.1.2 The informal situation

In informal situation, it is characterized by the use of an "unscripted text, casual, spontaneous and without organisation". Also called Impromptu speeches, this type of speech is presented without any earlier preparation such as a welcome address at a send forth party, vote of thanks at weddings, birthdays, condolences and soon.

9.3.2 Correct use of language

This is another important factor for a successful oral communication is the ability of the sender to code the message in such a way that the receiver will be able to decode it easily. This refers to the correct use of language, the medium which covers the message. Accuracy in speech makes understanding a reality. But defective punctuation, poor pronunciation, and erroneous sentences or misuse of words can hinder communication. The correctness of language is a very essential factor in oral communication.

9.3.3 Feedback

It is equally an essential element for "oral communication. When the speaker addresses, it is expected that the audience "responds in one or more ways, depending on the demand of the message". The feedback is the evidence that the audience has understood the message or not.

MODULE EIGHT
READING COMPREHENSION

MODULE NINE
PUBLIC SPEAKING, LISTENING & ORAL PRESENTATION

COURSE CONTENTS

Sound patterns in English Language (vowels and consonants, phonetics and phonology). English word classes (lexical and grammatical words, definitions, forms, functions, usages, collocations). Sentence in English (types: structural and functional, simple and complex). Grammar and Usage (tense, mood, modality and concord, aspects of language use in everyday life). Logical and Critical Thinking and Reasoning Methods (Logic and Syllogism, Inductive and Deductive Argument and Reasoning Methods, Analogy, Generalisation and Explanations). Ethical considerations, Copyright Rules and Infringements. Writing Activities: (Pre-writing , Writing, Post writing, Editing and Proofreading; Brainstorming, outlining, Paragraphing, Types of writing, Summary, Essays, Letter, Curriculum Vitae, Report writing, Note making etc. Mechanics of writing). Comprehension Strategies: (Reading and types of Reading, Comprehension Skills, 3RsQ). Information and Communication Technology in modern Language Learning. Language skills for effective communication. Major word formation processes. Writing and reading comprehension strategies. Logical and critical reasoning for meaningful presentations. Art of public speaking and listening. Report writing.

9.2 General Principles while giving Public Speeches

1. Physical appearance

There is the need to be properly dressed because it will certainly project your image or personality. Such a dress should suit the occasion.

2. Brevity of speech

Always be precise.

1. Adjust your speed of delivery to run in the line with the expectation or desires of the audience. Not for fast or too slow so that the people may understand you.
2. Always make your speech lively by attracting the attention of the audience. This means the idea of putting life into the speech to attract the audience and prevent them from sleeping while the message is going on.
3. Let there be adequate projection. You should make sure you are audible enough to the hearing of the audience. Avoid shouting and murmuring.
4. Try to make pauses between sentences, never use insensitive words especially for avoidance of irritation.
5. Know the sex, religious affiliation and educational background of your audience i.e. determining the audience.
6. Be careful and quick to read indicators and signals from the audience such as yawning, hisses etc. These indicate that majority of the audience is tired, dissatisfied, saturated, uninterested etc.
7. Always summarize the main point of your speech before concluding your messages but always resist the temptation of repeating the speech.

9.3 Oral Presentation

In its simplest form 'oral' refers to 'spoken' rather than 'written'. In order for oral communication to function successfully, there are three basic requirements. One of these requirements is the shared situational knowledge, which forms the base line of communication. Communication involves the process of speech act or interaction between two or more persons to share knowledge, interests, attitudes, opinions, feelings and ideas. For an interaction to be meaningful, there

normally do in a written paper. This will save time. You can as well use a timer to time your presentation when rehearsing it.

2. Choosing a Topic

You must be familiar with the subject of your speech and try to arrange that logically. The points to note in public speech include: use facts, figures and illustrations, begin with subject matter with which there is agreement, determine the exact subject clearly in your mind, think through the whole subject, formulate your own ideas, know the subject thoroughly, tell a story that is related to the subject or situation at hand, ask challenging questions, and lastly, your speech should be educative, thought provoking and inspiring.

3. Determining the purpose of the speech

Public speaking includes, among others lectures, sermons, political campaign speeches, rally speeches, public lectures, and evangelical campaign speeches. Thus, it can range from the telling of stories, transmission of information, to inciting people to do something by, for instance, instilling feelings in them or stroking their emotions.

4. Gathering Information

If your speech involves giving much information or data, you will need to do some research through observing the subject matter, use of library or electronic sources and interview with experts.

5. Organizing Content

Good speeches are organized in three parts, basically the introduction, body of the speech and the conclusion. To be able to persuade your audience effectively, you need to speak with conviction, in a way that will make your audience feel that you really believe in what you are saying. In other words, your presentation should have a logical progression from a clearly conceivable thesis statement (introduction) to strong supporting arguments in the form of accurate, up-to- date information (body) to a re-statement of the thesis or summary of the presented arguments (conclusion). In concluding your paper, do not start making another speech. You should end your speech by making an interesting remark related to your topic. That will leave your audience with a positive impression and a sense of completion. Rather than overstress your closing remarks, the required thing is to thank your audience and leave the stage.

MODULE ONE
MAJOR ETHNIC GROUPS IN NIGERIA

1.0   ENGLISH SOUND PATTERNS

1.1 Introduction to English Sound Symbols

Human beings, unlike animals can produce meaningful sounds which be considered as speech. Another means through human beings communicate is writing. Speech involves the use of the sounds of a language which are meaningful. In order to produce sounds, there are chains of sounds which are arranged in a sequence along with a morpheme. The combination of morphemes forms a word which is a building bricks for phrases, clauses and sentences.

1.2 Sounds of English

The process of speech production starts from the lungs which serves as the basis for air flows which takes place along the throat and to the mouth. Different sounds are produced with the help of the organs of speech: vocal cords, velum, hard palate, alveolar ridge, teeth and the tongue.

There are forty-four (44) sound segments of English language which comprise of twenty (20) vowels and twenty four (24) consonants. The consonants differ from the vowel sounds in one important way. While the vowel sounds are produced with free flow of air from the lungs, the consonant sounds are produced with a considerable amount of obstructions caused by the organs of speech. The degree of the obstructions vary as some may be partial while others total. For example, the /p/ sound has a total obstruction by the lips while /f/ sound has a partial obstruction by the lower lip and the upper teeth.

The slash (//) is used to distinguish one sound from another.

1.3 Consonant Sounds with their Examples in Words

The twenty four (24) consonant sounds are divided in to 15 voiced and 9 voiceless consonants. Voiced consonants are produced with vibration of the vocal chords while voiceless consonants are articulated without

vibration. The sounds and examples of words may appear at the initial, media or final positions.

1.3.1 Voiced Consonants

1. /b/ as in bad, rubber, rub
2. /d/ as in dip, rider, hide
3. /g/ as in get, target, rag
4. /v/ as in van, river, live
5. /z/ as in zinc, razor, has
6. /l/ as in lock, follow, sell
7. /r/ as in run, borrow, _
8. /w/ as in win, rewind, _
9. /m/ as in man, remain, him
10. /n/ as in net, runner, rain
11. /ʒ/ as in genre, vision, garage
12. /j/ as in yes, you
13. /dʒ/ as in joy, rejoice, page
14. /ð / as in this, mother, breathe
15. /ŋ/ as in, singer, bang

1.3.2 Voiceless Consonants

16. /p/ as in pan, happy, nap
17. /t/ as in tea, heater, sit
18. /k/ as in come, marking, park
19. /f/ as in fork, suffer, cough
20. /s/ as in sip, racing, place
21. /h/ as in heart, behave,
22. /Ɵ/ as in think, anthem, both
23. /tʃ/ as in chip, richer, teach
24. /ʃ/ as in ship, lashes, fish

1.4 English Vowel Sounds with examples

Vowel sounds are divided into twelve (12) monothongs and eight (8) diphthongs. The monothongs are single vowels and they are divided into long and short vowels while the diphthongs are double vowel sounds with a glide of one vowel into the other. For instance, while producing the word 'boy', the articulation of the vowel starts from /ɔ/

articulation clear. It is also important to establish rapport with your audience. Vary the tone of your voice and dramatize if necessary. Where a microphone is available, your voice should be adjusted to it accordingly.

The use of body language can enhance your speech presentation. It is preferable to stand or move about and use appropriate hand gesture or facial expression rather than sit down or stand still with head down reading from a prepared speech. Use audio-visual aids for enhancement if appropriate and necessary. Master the use of presentation software such as PowerPoint well before your presentation.

As a presenter, you are not forbidden from taking occasional glances of your written speech, though the golden rule says 'do not read from your speech'. However, speaking loudly and clearly as well as sounding confident is a virtue. Correct any slips and errors and continue unapologetically.

Another skill to use is to make everyone in your audience feel involved by maintaining eye contact with individuals in the audience. That is, have direct eye contact with members of the audience and every now and then, glance at the whole audience while speaking. A popular technique is to look straight into the eyes of a person in the audience for about three (3) seconds at a time.

As you make your speech, do not carryon like a train without brakes. You should learn to occasionally pause and allow yourself and your audience a little time to reflect and think. To ward off boredom, especially when your topic is solemn, you can bring in a little humour whenever appropriate and possible.

This will keep the audience interested throughout your entire presentation. Remember that interesting speeches make time fly, but boring speeches are always long, however short they are. You can make your audience really follow your speech when you have handouts ready. In such a case, give them out at the appropriate time and inform the audience ahead of time that you will be giving out an outline of your presentation.

It is necessary to know when to stop talking. Time can be saved by avoiding the use of unnecessary words in your written paper; to end your presentation, summarize your main points in the same way as you

MODULE NINE
PUBLIC SPEAKING, LISTENING AND ORAL PRESENTATION

9.0 Introduction

This module introduces you to public speaking and the art of oral presentation. Public speaking has been defined in the Wikipedia as "the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence or entertain the listeners. Public speaking is the processor act of performing a presentation (a speech) focused around an individual directly speaking to a live audience in a structured, deliberate manner in other to inform, influence, or entertain them. Public speech is commonly understood as the formal, face-to-face talking to a single person or a group of listeners.

As in any of form communication, five basic elements that encapsulate speech are often expressed as "who is saying **what** to **whom** using what **medium** and with what **effect**?" While in its simplest form 'oral' refers to 'spoken' rather than 'written'.

9.1 Important Points to Note in Speaking

There are five basic steps in preparing a public speech

1. **Know your audience**

To prepare a public speech, you must know what your audience needs and ensure that what you have for them will satisfy those needs.. Give your audience their time's worth by making your speech captivating. In that way, their attention will be entirely on your speech. The saying that practice makes perfect applies aptly to speech making. Thus, a little rehearsal of your speech in front of a mirror, friends or colleagues can help put you at ease on the real speech occasion. You can make a tape recording of yourself and listen to the playback.

That will help you know where your strong and weak points are.

During the presentation, consider yourself as an actor with all eyes on you. You might be judged partially by the way you look; so present the desired image to your audience. One way to do this is to, as much as possible, dress appropriately. Be solemn if your topic is serious. Try to present a picture of someone pleasant, enthusiastic, confident and modest. You have to be, or pretend if possible, to be calm even if you feel nervous. The pace of your speech should be moderate and your

sound and it glides to end in /i/ sound slowly with the shape of the mouth changing from rounded to spread without a pause. Below are the examples of short and long vowels follows.

1.4.1 Short Monothongs
1. /i/ as in b<u>i</u>t, s<u>i</u>t
2. /e/ as in b<u>e</u>d, h<u>e</u>n
3. /u/ as in p<u>u</u>t, f<u>oo</u>t
4. /ɔ/ as in p<u>o</u>t, c<u>o</u>ck
5. /ʌ/ as in b<u>u</u>t, c<u>u</u>t
6. /æ/ as in c<u>a</u>t, p<u>a</u>t
7. /ə/ as in <u>a</u>kin, b<u>a</u>ker

1.4.2 Long Monotones
8. /i:/ as in b<u>ea</u>t, s<u>ea</u>t
9. /a:/ as in c<u>ar</u>d, p<u>ar</u>t
10. /ɔ:/ as in p<u>or</u>t, c<u>or</u>k
11. /u:/ as in t<u>wo</u>, w<u>oo</u>
12. /ɝ:/ as in b<u>ir</u>d, g<u>ir</u>l

1.4.3 Diphthongs
1. /ei/ as in p<u>ay</u> d<u>ay</u>
2. /əu/ as in g<u>o</u>, h<u>ome</u>
3. /ai/ as in r<u>i</u>de, k<u>ind</u>
4. /ɔi/ as in t<u>oy</u>, b<u>oy</u>
5. /iə/ as in e<u>ar</u>, h<u>ere</u>
6. /eə/ as in <u>air</u>, h<u>air</u>
7. /uə/ as in p<u>oor</u>, t<u>our</u>
8. /au/ as in c<u>ow</u>, h<u>ouse</u>

1.5 Stress and Intonation (Supra-segmental Features)
1.5.1 Stress

Stress is one of the features of speech that cannot be broken into individual units like the vowels and consonants. It is part of the supra-segmental features: tress, rhythm and intonation. They are called supra-segmental features because they function in a larger unit such as words, phrases and sentences. Stress is very important in speech. Failure to place it appropriately can affect the quality of the syllable which can alter the intended message.

During speech, we do not exert the same effort for the production of the sounds in the syllables. The effort we put determine whether the syllable is stressed or unstressed. Stressed syllables are produced with increase in pitch, longer duration, lauder, and quality of the peak will be different from the unstressed.

The increase in pitch means high or low related to the vibration from the vocal cords during production of a syllable. When the vibration is high, it is stressed, but when it is low, the syllable is unstressed. The longer duration explains the amount of the time taken during the production of syllable. The longer the prominent is usually stressed, while the shorter is the unstressed syllable. For instance, in the word 'longer' the first syllable is 'long' is longer than 'er' which the second syllable. Therefore, the first syllable carries the stress while the second is unstressed.

Loudness is the realization of the voice quality during the production of the syllables. The louder syllable carries the stress while the less loud attracts unstressed mark. The quality of the peak is the realization of the odd quality of a peak among others. The word 'politeness' has three syllables: 'po' –'lite' 'ness'. The second syllable which is 'lite' carries the stress because it is the one that has a different quality of a peak (diphthong) among the three syllables (which makes it longer).

Stress placement can be classified in to three (3). Words stress, sentence stress and emphatic stress.

1.5.2 Sentence Stress
A sentence in English contains different classes of words. As such, every word in a sentence is important when appropriately used. On the basis of functions of words in a sentence, words are classified in to two: content words and grammatical words. In speech, usually the grammatical words are hurried over. Therefore, the force/stress of the speaker is on the content words. While the content words are stressed, the grammatical words are unstressed. Content words comprise nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. Grammatical words comprise the articles, conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs. See the

general plan of the material and looking for the sequence of thought will help you in overcoming word-by-word reading. This may take time and practice, however. The focus should be on the trend of the idea that you are trying to follow, rather than on; the words that make it up.

Following the author's organization helps you in reading for ideas. If you know where you are going, meaning can be determined more quickly. You can predict to a certain degree what topics the author will discuss next. Narrative is usually organized chronologically by time sequence.

Factual material may be organized this way also, but two other common types of organization are division of ideas or by logical sequence of thought.

8.6.2 Reread the entire selection

Read to fix in your mind any words and constructions that you had difficulty with the first time and to get the feeling of reading and thinking in the foreign language. Try to read the material as rapidly as possible, in the same way that you would read your native language. Do not translate.

If you still find words during this rereading that you must look up, it may be helpful to write them down in a notebook kept for that purpose. Words are learned most easily, however, it must be done by ourselves. Reading them in context several times is usually more efficient than trying to memorize list. The structural difficulties take more than one reread to fix the pattern in mind. Practice on these will make similar constructions easier when you encounter them later on. In order to improve reading speed, develop fluency, and get rid of the habit of translation or word-by-word reading, time yourself on reading of easy material or of material in which you have mastered the difficulties. Try to increase your reading speed.

There are certain techniques for efficient reading that apply whether you are reading your native language or any other. Though they will be more difficult to apply in reading a foreign language, they will help you develop reading skill. Some of them are:

8.6.3 Read for ideas, not words

Although saying the word aloud or to yourself is useful in intensive reading; it prevents reading fluency. By all means, say the unfamiliar word when you go back over the material to study vocabulary, but not when you are reading to gasp ideas quickly.

To read for ideas, follow the *authors' organization*. Try to get the relationship between his ideas. This is particularly important in reading factual material, where you do not have the progress of a story to guide you. Be flexible!

8.6.4 Vary your procedure to suit the purpose.

Sometimes you need to skim rapidly for general content, and sometimes you need slowly and carefully. Reading for ideas by determining the

illustration below. The content words are written in bold while the grammatical words are unbolded.

    1. The **book is** on the **table**.
    2. I **bought** a new **car.**
    3. The **baby** is **toying** with her **mother's shoe**.

In emphatic or contrastive stress, the speaker's message consists of information that contains a word which is usually the focus of the message depending on the content and the meaning intended. In this case, the emphasized word attracts the stress.

    1. I left the book **on** the table (not under the table).
    2. I **bought** the book (I did not steal it).
    3. The baby is toying with her mother's **shoe.**

1.5.3 Intonation

In connected speech, the meaning of an utterance can be affected not only by stress but also by the variation in the pitch of the voice. Intonation refers to the change in pitch of the speaker while speaking either going high or low. Thus, intonation gives a meaning to an utterance. It indicates whether a statement is a command, question or exclamation. A statement that asks 'wh' questions gives information and command takes a falling tune and it is indicated by the symbol in the bracket (\). Questions demand yes or no answers, and it takes the rise tune (/).

1.6. Syllables and syllable structures

Speech is a continuous activity. A speaker can produce a chain of vowels and consonants during utterances which are combined to form a larger unit called syllable. One, two, or more syllables are combined to form a word. Syllables can be defined as phonological units of one sound segment in relation to another. They are acceptable sequence of arranged sounds which gave rise to a word. An English syllables is made up of three elements: **Onset, Peak** and **Coda**. Onsets are usually consonants that appear at the beginning of a syllables before the peak. Peaks are usually the vowels that hold on to the preceding consonant (onset) and the consonant(s) that appeared after it (coda) to form a syllable. Coda is the consonant that comes after the peak.

MODULE TWO
ENGLISH WORD CLASSES

2.0 Introduction

A class refers to a set of items with similar characteristics. Items of the same class belong to the same unit since they usually have the same structural possibilities. One can refer to classes of verbs, nouns, adjectives etc. and one can refer to their behaviour as a group. For example, verbs act as predicators while nouns often operate as heads of the nominal group in the structure of a clause. Every class also has sub-classes. For instance, in the cases of nouns being countable and uncountable (count and non-count nouns), proper and abstract while verbs can be transitive, intransitive or linking. In defining word classes, three major criteria are taken into account. They are the forms of the word, the meaning of the word and most importantly the function the word performs in a larger construction.

2.1. Word Classes

Words are grouped into two broad classes: namely content words which constitute the open class elements, structural words and the closed class elements. These two can be contrasted thus:

2.1.1. Open Class Items

Open class items are so named because new items or creations are easily added to them by inflection or derivation. They are defined in the dictionary as lexical items with identifiable meanings. Thus, they occur in a succession within a given structure. Open Class consists of the following characteristics:

1. Nouns: name a person, place, thing, state, action or quality e.g. *Akpan, Lagos, pen, laughter*
2. Verbs act as predicators; express actions; state of being. For instance, *think, be, run, feel*
3. Adjectives: describe, modify, limit the noun, pronoun or another adjective as indicated in the following examples *strong man, few hours, limited quantity*

8.4 Skimming

Skimming is the process by which you rapidly glance through a text or passage to:
- get a gist or brief summary of what the text is all about.
- see how the author organized the text
- identify the main points

Skimming involves a thorough reading of an introductory paragraph and subsequent reading of the topic sentence of each paragraph. In skimming exercises, one is often required to give a suitable title, identify main ideas or points in a passage or text.

8.5 Scanning

It is also called search- reading, scanning is used when searching for a specific information. It involves searching through a passage, text, diagrams, and graphs.
- search for a specific piece of information for e.g. a specific year or date, a specific name or place.
- find out if a text is suitable for a purpose
- find out the meaning of a word in a dictionary and soon.

In your early stages of reading for fluency, then, the following steps are useful.

8.6 Useful Steps on Reading

Read the selection through as rapidly as possible to get the meaning as a whole. Knowing the whole idea will help to you to understand difficult details Mark difficult words and difficult passages, but do not look up any more words in your dictionary than you absolutely have to. Do not spend so much time trying to unravel difficult passages that you lose the thread of the idea.

8.6.1 Go back over the parts you have marked as difficult.

You may find that you know the meaning of many of the words from their use in the sentence and many of the difficult passages will become clear when you see their relationship to the whole.

Step 4: Recall –
Without looking at the original text or your notes, mentally visualize and sketch, in your own words, the key points of the material immediately upon completing the reading.
    a. This forces you to check comprehension.
    b. It channels the material into an adapted and usable form.
    c. This helps you to point out the stuff you do not understand.
    d. It forces you to think critically, hence become used to the text.

Step 5: Review
Look at your questions, answers, notes and original text to see how well you did recall. Observe carefully the points stated incorrectly or missed out. Fix carefully in mind the logical sequence of the entire idea, concepts, or problem. Finish up with a mental picture of the entire text: what does it say?

The main barriers to fluent reading in a foreign language are vocabulary and sentence structure... At the beginning-mastering vocabulary is not difficult. An English-native- language dictionary is an aid, but do not rely on it too heavily or you will be translating. The exact counterpart of a word in another language is difficult to find. You should have a good dictionary of the English language. However, when are rereading, try to look up as few words as possible. Consulting a dictionary interrupt your thought. You may be able to get the meaning of a word from its context, its use in the sentence. Notice similarities toot how it is used in relation to the idea as a whole. Notice similarities to other words that you know.

Mastering structural difficulty is more of a problem…You may have to re-read portions of the selection, however, to perceive the relationship of the word to each other. Mark difficult spots, but do not spend too much time on them in an initial reading of the material. Do not lose the meaning of the selection as a whole. After you have read a larger part of the selection, the meaning of the difficult passage may become clear. Then reread the selection until you can read the difficult passage easily.

4. Adverbs: modify a verb, adjective or another adverb e.g. *think quickly, unusually ugly, very slowly.*

2.1.2. Closed Class Items
Closed class items are also referred to as closed system items.
1. They are fixed in number in a given language and do not admit new members as you find in the open class items
2. They are defined in terms of structural characteristics
3. They are mutually exclusive in the sense that two of them of the same kind cannot function together. For example, you cannot say:

'The book is in under the table as you can do with closed system items as in: He is a tall dark man'. Closed Class consists of the following characteristics
1. Pronouns: substitute or take the place of nouns: e.g. he, she, it, they, ours, himself
2. Prepositions, show the relationship between a noun or pronoun and some other word e.g. Jump over the fence, Place it on the table, Stand beside the table.
3. Conjunctions: Join two words or two groups of words e. g. Esther and James, small but mighty
4. Interjections: show emotion or strong feeling e.g. alas! Hurrah! oh!

2.2. Features and Function of Word Classes
2.2.1 Nouns
One of the most important functions of language is to give names to persons, things, places, groups, qualities, ideas, and concepts that we come across daily. Nouns perform this function in different dimensions. For instance, Usman, Asishatu, goat, stone, Lagos, America, goodness, progress, civilization, democracy, Olympics, etc. The different types of nouns can be discussed in pairs.

2.2.1.1 Proper Versus Common Nouns
A proper noun names particular persons (Ibrahim, John), places (Gombe, Abuja), days of the week (Monday, Tuesday), months of the year (January, February), institution (Gombe State University, World Bank), geographical features (River Niger, Yankari Game Reserve),

and languages (Hausa, Bolewa, Tangale). All proper nouns begin with capital letters when they are written.

Common Nouns on the other hand name persons or things that share class, features or essential general characteristics. These include dog, stone, table, boy, teacher, farmer, etc.

Common nouns can form a unit or a class that and they are referred to as a complete whole. They refer to a group of people, things etc. This class is called collective nouns. Examples are: a crowd of people, a fleet of ships, a battalion of soldiers, a bevy of ladies, a troupe of dancers, a crew of sailors, a congregation of worshippers, a team of players, a host of angels, a clutch of eggs.

2.2.1.2 Abstract versus Concrete Nouns
Abstract nouns name qualities, states, actions, conditions, emotions which can neither be touched nor seen. Concrete nouns name objects and substances that exist in the physical world of things.

2.2.1.3 Count versus Non-Count Nouns
Count or countable nouns refer to items that are separable into identifiable or numerable units while non-count or uncountable nouns are mass nouns which cannot be expressed in terms of singular and plural. There is a considerable degree of overlap between count and non-count words as seen in difficulty / difficulties, experience / experiences, talk / talks, etc. This overlap is explainable in terms of particularization in the count usage and generalization in the non-count usage. As a guide, count nouns take the articles 'a' and 'an' in their singular forms and are generally classified into singular and plural forms.

Examples of count and non-count nouns: book – books, table – tables, oil – oil, water – water, etc.

2.3 Verb
The verb is a very important word class in any language. It is the word which says what is happening in the sentence. It can express the action performed by the subject (e.g. eat, say), the state that the subject is in,

Little	Amount	A book a week
teacher selects	Selection	Learner selects
All learners study the same material	What Material	All learners read different things (something interesting to them)
In class	Where	Home and class
Checked by specific questions	Comprehension	Checked by reports / summaries

8.3 SQ3R Method for thorough Study
The SQ3R method of study is usually used when you read text books. Here is an outline:

Step 1: Survey-
This will enable you to see where you are headed.
Step 2: Questions –
Instead of reading paragraph headings such as "The Laws of Motion" change to read, "What are the Laws of Motion?" Such questions will serve as signposts guiding your comprehension.
You should also write these questions out; look over the questions to see the emphasis and direction; then attempt to give suitable to see the emphasis and direction; then attempt to give suitable answers before reading the text further.
Read with attentiveness and alertness in order to answer the questions you have raised.
Next, write notes, in your own words, to satisfy each question. Your notes should be skeletal –don't make them bulky.
Step 3: Read -
Examine the text critically. Skim through it and read topical and sub-topical headings and sentences. Read the summaries at the end of the text. An important guide is to try to anticipate what the author is going to say in the text. The next thing is to write these notes on a paper in sequential manner, then look over the jottings to get an overall idea or picture.

reading. To develop the ability to read rapidly and easily you need to use second method--*extensive reading*.

8.2 Extensive Reading
(Reading for pleasure)
Extensive reading refers to lifelong reading. It is reading done not just to answer questions, or in one's chosen field, but a general interest in knowing. It is often incorporated into a school curriculum because it:

- Enhances world knowledge
- i. Accounts for one third or more of vocabulary growth
- ii. Promotes reading as a lifelong activity- builds vocabulary
- iii. Builds structural awareness
- iv. Improves comprehension skills
- v. Promotes motivation
- vi. Encourages learners to read fluently and so use all the strategies associated with good readers
- vii. Encourages learners to progress through different levels of text and monitor their own progress, and
- viii. Provides learners with an enjoyable reading experience.

Reading for Pleasure programme requires pupils to read both at home and in school. The school component consists of regular sustained silent reading periods in class. This is rapid reading of great deal of easy material. Your primary purpose is not to learn new structures and vocabulary to the point where you can reproduce them in written and oral work of your own, but to understand the ideas being communicated as quickly and completely as possible. In reading your own language you understand more difficult words and sentence structure than you yourself use.

This is true in a foreign language as well.
Below are differences between intensive and extensive reading

Intensive Reading		Extensive Reading
Analysis of the language	Linguistic Focus	Fluency, skill forming
Usually difficult	Difficulty	Very easy

(is, are, be,) and possession (e.g. has, have). It can stand alone and still form a sentence that makes sense as in, 'Sing'. It can also combine with the subject alone as in, 'They sing and birds fly'. Verbs are best understood in terms of formations and forms, tense and aspect, voice and mood. Verbs are predicators or words which express actions.

2.3.1 Main Verbs and the Auxiliaries
Whenever a verb functions alone, it can be said to be the main verb. On the other hand, the auxiliary verb is a helping verb which indicates tense, or mood of the main verb. The main verb is always a finite verb and it belongs to the open class. Examples of the main verb are:
1. Yila sings well.
2. Manga dances gracefully.

The auxiliary verbs comprise the primary auxiliary verbs (do, have, and be) and the modal auxiliary verbs are (can/could, shall/should, may/might, must, ought to, used to, need, dare). The auxiliary verbs belong to the closed class since they are fixed in number and also are not subject to any form of derivation or inflection.
They are used informally in contracted forms:

(It is - it's) could not -couldn't I am - I'm ought not - oughtn't I will - I'll need not - needn't will not - won't is not - isn't shall not - shan't are not - aren't would not - wouldn't am not - ain't.

The auxiliary verb also has the following functions:
1. **It is used in Yes-No questions e.g.**
   a. Will you come tomorrow?
   b. Can you see him?
2. **It is used in negative constructions**
   a. She does not misbehave.
   b. They were not speaking at the meeting.
3. **It is used to avoid unnecessary repetition**
   a. You spoke to him. Did you?
   b. You haven't seen him. Have you?
4. **It is used for emphasis or determination**
   a. She does behave well.
   b. You must read today.

2.3.2 Transitive and Intransitive Verb

Transitive verbs require objects or complements to make full meaning in a sentence. Consider the following verbs: *buy, kill, sing, give*. They cannot convey full meaning unless there are complete the elements added to them:

1. They buy clothes monthly.
2. Hunters kill animals for sale.
3. Choristers sing songs of praise.
4. We give alms to the poor.

Intransitive verbs denote actions that stop with the doer or subject. There is no need for a receiver of the action as indicated below.

1. Men laugh.
2. Children sleep often.
3. The bell rang.

Some verbs may be transitive and intransitive as illustrated.

1. The bell rang loudly
2. The prefect rang the bell.

2.3.3 Regular and Irregular Forms

The classification of verbs into regular and irregular forms is based on past tense and the constituent participle. The regular verbs are also called weak verbs while the irregular ones are called strong verbs.

The regular verb forms the past tense and past participle by the addition of the morphemes '- ed' or '- d' to the present tense form. Consider the following examples.

Call - called
Walk - walked
Bake - baked.

The irregular verbs do not take '-d' or '-ed' to form the past tense or past participle. One way this is done is the change in the vowel.

Sing sang sung drive drove driven break broke broken wind wound wound

forget   forgot   forgotten
lend lent lent begin began begun

Some irregular verbs take completely new words in the formation of the past e.g. go went   gone   do did done

MODULE 8:
READING COMPREHENSION

8.0 Introduction

A student's ultimate aim in a second language is to be able to grasp ideas as fast and easily as he would if he were reading his native language. Yet, in early stages of language learning, the first inclination of most students is to translate. Translation is a slow laborious process. The thread of the idea may become lost, as well as the enjoyment of reading. Furthermore, an exact translation is an art in itself and not a practical procedure for everyday reading

8.1 Intensive and Extensive Reading

There are two different methods of reading anon-native language. One is slow, careful reading to note the structure of the language and how words are used. This is called intensive reading.

8.1.1 Intensive Reading
(Reading for detail)

We sometimes come across texts we want to read in detail. This could be an article we skim read at first and found interesting and we want to read it again, more slowly, taking in the information and perhaps even making a mental note of the details to tell someone about later. When we are reading for detail, we are carrying out intensive reading which is called reading for detail or accurate reading.

Detailed comprehension work gives you a good opportunity to study the finer points of the text and so learn more about how the language is used. Intensive reading is mostly used with short sections or sentences when we need to understand or study information or language use of a text in detail. This is how we might read a paragraph on market behaviour, a memo from the head of department or an explanation at the back of a course book.

This method of *intensive reading* is very useful in mastering the basic principles of language and in learning to use peculiarities of idiom (English for example is a highly idiomatic language. However, the techniques employed in this process are not those of rapid, fluent

• to enable your readers to find the material you have mentioned in your work.

Your readers may want to follow up some of the research you have mentioned. Your references could help them to improve their own understanding of the subject.

7.4.4 What sources do I need to reference?

If you refer to or quote any work created by another person, you will need to provide a citation within your text and include the full details in a reference list.

Some of the most common sources that you may come across, which would require a reference are listed below:

i. E- journals	vi. websites
ii. Books	vii. blogs
iii. forum posts	viii. photos and images
iv. Tutorial	ix. video and audio clips
v. module materials	

Essentially, anything you refer to which is someone else's ideas or work, will require a reference**.**

7.5 Details needed in a reference

Earlier, it was mentioned that there are standard formats for including the full details of the sources have been mentioned in a work. Depending on the source, and referencing style, one may need to include a selection of the following details:

i. Author	vi. Issue and volume numbers
ii. Author	vii. Place of publication
iii. Year of publication	viii. Publisher
iv. Title of article or chapter	ix. Edition
v. Title of the publication	x. Page Number
xi. URL	xii Date the material was accessed

bid   bade bidden   lie   lay   lain   be was been

Other irregular verbs do not change their forms when functioning in the past; that is, the present and the past forms are the same e.g.

put   put   put
let   let   let
burst burst burst
cut   cut cut

2.3.4 Stative and Dynamic Forms

Dynamic verbs show action, event or process. These verbs take the progressive aspect which indicate that an action is continuing through the time as indicated below.

1. He is eating, drinking and talking.
2. They are watching the film.

Stative verbs do not pattern with the –ing progressive marker. They only indicate the state of affairs of the entity without showing any continuity. E.g.

1. He is resembl<u>ing</u> his father (wrong)
2. He resembles his father (right)
3. They are hat<u>ing</u> him (wrong)
4. They hate him(right)
5. I am feel<u>ing</u> cold (wrong)
6. I feel cold (right)

Other stative verbs are: possess, understand, belong, smell, seem, hear, wish taste agree, flash faint, collapse, die, contain, have.

2.4 Features and Functions of Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, just as adjectives modify nouns and nominals. Adverbs answer the questions: Where? When? How? and Why? They indicate place, time, manner and degree.

The fact that adverbs modify adjectives and other adverbs sometimes sound difficult to learners of English who are made to believe that adverbs only specify the mode of action of verbs. The difficulty is strengthened by the obvious reality that adverbs   always   cluster around verbs. In these examples, the issues are better appreciated:

1. Maryamu dances well

2. Musa dances extremely well.
3. Yusuf is really tall.

In the first example, the adverb of manner "well" modifies the verb 'dances'. In the second illustration, 'extremely', an adverb of degree modifies "well" while in the third example, the adjective 'tall' is modified by the adverb "really". There are many other potential formations likes these ones in English.

2.4.1 Formation of Adverbs
These affixes are used in forming adverbs
- ly   :   exactly, quietly, extremely
- wise   :   clockwise, moneywise
- ward   :   forward, backward
a -   :   away, aside, afloat, afield

Many adverbs do not have any affixes and should be distinguished from adjectives. Though they may look alike on the surface, syntactically, they perform different functions as in, *fast, near*
1. He runs fast.
2. His wedding day is drawing near.

2.4.2 Degrees of Adverbs
Adverbs are compared in degrees: positive degree, comparative degree and superlative degree. Examine the following:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Soon	sooner	Soonest
Fast	faster	Fastest
Far	farther	Farthest
Aloud	more aloud	most aloud

2.4.3 Position of Adverbs
Adverbs can occur in a sentence initially, medially and finally. One quality of adverbials of manner is that they can be shifted from one position to another without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence. This can be illustrated thus:
1. Certainly, I know him.
2. I certainly know him.

original words. An in-text citation will include minimal details; usually the name of the author(s) and date the work was published.

This is usually referred to as the author-date method, however there are some numeric referencing styles which use footnotes. In-text citations provide enough information for your readers to find the full reference in your reference list.

7.3.2 Reference list
A reference list is a complete list of references related to the sources you have used in your work. For every in-text citation you have included within your work, there should be a detailed reference in your reference list. Each reference within the list provides full details of the source, written in the format required for the referencing style been used. A reference list would typically be included at the end of your work.

7.4 Why is referencing important?
The benefits of referencing are not restricted to one person. Although clear referencing will help you, as the author, it will also benefit the readers, and the original authors of works referred to.

7.4.1 Original authors
Authors whose written materials have been mentioned will also want to be acknowledged. Imagine if someone used something you had written in their assignment; you would want them to acknowledge that the work was done by you, and not to be passed off as their own work.

7.4.2 You
The references included in your work shows that you have researched your subject area, and help to provide evidence that can strengthen the arguments you make. Passing someone else's work off as your own is referred to as 'plagiarism'. If you acknowledge your sources correctly, plagiarism will be avoided.

7.4.3 Your readers
Two key reasons for referencing are:
• to acknowledge the work of others

MODULE SEVEN
INTRODUCTION TO REFERENCING

7.0 Introduction

When an academic assignment or a piece of work is produced, one is likely to refer to sources of information that have been used to inform the study or research. These might be teaching materials, books, e-journals or websites, to name a few. One is expected to include references to these sources to provide evidence for arguments. This activity forms part of a series on referencing.

7.1 Definition of Referencing

Referencing is a way of acknowledging the sources used, or referred to, in a work by:
- providing information on other people's ideas, theories or works
- paraphrasing or quoting their works.

By acknowledging sources, one is providing clear information to allow readers to follow up on what materials have been used. Referencing is a strict requirement for academic work. Additionally, the referencing skills can also be very beneficial in a work environment.

7.2 Referencing styles

In order to enable others to locate these sources, and to acknowledge the original authors, one is required to provide reference details using a specific referencing style. Referencing styles are guides designed to help a writer to cite and reference correctly. They offer standard formats to ensure that all works cited are mentioned to avoid plagiarism and any form of writing theft.

7.3 Referring to others in your work

Referencing the work of other people involves two distinct elements:
7.3.1 In-text citations

In-text citations are inserted in the body of your text and indicate that you are talking about, referring to or paraphrasing someone else's work. They are also required when you directly quote another person's

3. I know him <u>certainly</u>.

All the above positions (of the adverb) are known to occur in English utterances it would appear that the one that seems particularly true to the nature of adverbs is the medial position.

2.4.4 Classes of Adverbs

Adverbs are classified according to functions.

(a) Interrogative adverbs are often used at the beginning of a sentence to ask a question
1. When did you return?
2. How do I place the items together?
3. Where did you keep my book?
(b) Adverbs of Degree answer the question: 'to what extent'? They mostly modify adjectives and other adverbs, rarely verbs.
1. The man is too slow.
2. He walks very fast.
3. She reads till late.
(c) Adverbs of Place indicate the location of actions. Some of these adverbs resemble nouns by nature but their functions are essentially adverbial. They are sometimes called nouns used as adverbs.
1. I am coming home.
2. He is going there.
(d) Adverbs of Time denote the interval of occurrence of actions.
1. We trekked all day.
2. Let us meet tomorrow.

2.4.5 Features and Functions of Adjectives

Things, persons, entities need to be distinguished, differentiated, limited, specified or described so as to aid our understanding. We ask the questions:

What kind? Which one? How many? For example, we can say, 'a tall man', 'this orange' or 'four goats'. The words that precede the nouns and also modify or amplify their meanings are called adjectives.

Generally, adjectives state the attributes or characteristics of nominal (nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases). Adjectives as modifiers aid to the comprehension of the language used as they help language users to give precise pictures of what they are referring to.

2.4.6 Formation of Adjectives
Adjectives take the following affixes
- ish :   boyish, childish, mannish
- ous :   virtuous, riotous, dangerous
- ary :   salutary, rotatary, consolatory
- an :   Elizabethan, Spartan
- ful :   hopeful, thankful, faithful
- y :   healthy, filthy
- some: loathsome, troublesome,
- less: faithless, motionless, stainless
- ory :   sensory, provisory
- able :   punishable, workable, movable

2.4.7 Attributive and Predicative Adjectives
Syntactically, adjectives can occur before the nominal they describe or modify.
1. The beautiful girl is here.
2. The clean clothes were ironed.

Some adjectives occur in the predicate part of the sentence following a linking verb to describe a nominal in the subject part of the sentence. These are predicative adjectives e.g.
1. The woman is beautiful
2. The boy is courageous.

Some adjectives can function both attributively and predicatively e.g.
1. The hungry man is here.
2. This man is hungry.
3. The genuine reason is offered.
4. The reason is genuine.

One can also improvise abbreviations, but it is advisable for one to keep standard acceptable ones. When making your own abbreviations,
   a. You should keep the main sounds of the word example **ed.** for education and **program** for programme etc.
   b. Retain the suffix so that when you are going through the notes later, you may recall the full forms of the word.
   c. You should not abbreviate every word.
   d. The heading should not be abbreviated but may use abbreviations for subheadings.
iv.   All notes on any given topic must be kept together, regardless of the sources of the information.
v.   Loose sheets or binder, rather than a bound notebook should be used. This is recommended because of the advantage in re-ordering pages, re-writing or removing them and adding new material.
vi.   Notes should be read immediately after lectures to enable the student review his notes and also fill in the gap where necessary.
vii. Notes should be legibly written, so that the student will be able to read and understand it on a later date.
viii. Label, number and date all your notes
ix.   Use pictures and diagrams which help you gather large amount of information on one page. It also enables you to create an overview of a large topic or subject area.
x.   Use colour to create a strong visual trigger to help you recall information.

Taking notes to understand
Underlining and highlighting encourages you to identify the most important aspects of the texts. This helps to keep you focused and prevents the loss in concentration.

    i. Use underlining or highlighting in your own text.
    ii. As you read, select what seem to you to be the central words and phrases that convey the key meaning of the text.

There are different stages involved in note taking/note making.
The first stage involves bringing and using the right materials which include:

    a. Pens, papers, pencils, highlighters etc.
    b. Use paper that can be filed easily
    c. Do not use pencil to write as it tends to fade with time
    d. Use colour for emphasis; to highlight and to separate different sections or ideas.

There is also the **listening activity:**
This involves concentrating and paying attention to what is being said and how it is being said.

    a. Listening for repetition: when a lecturer repeats a phrase or idea, there is a signal that it is important and you should take note of it.
    b. Watch the board or overhead projector. If the lecturer takes time to write something, then consider them as a sign that the material is important.
    c. Listen to introductory, concluding and transition words and phrases.

General Guidelines in Structures of note taking
    i. Consider the form the notes will take, that is whether it should be written in outline or summary form.
    ii. The use of abbreviations and the layout is also important. The use of abbreviation is helpful in note taking, since it can save considerable time especially during lectures.
    iii. Remember to be consistent in the use of particular abbreviations or symbols.

2.4.8 Regular and Irregular Adjectives (Comparisons)
Things and persons that may attract the same adjective or modifier are not necessarily always the same. They may differ in their degree of quality. Adjectives exhibit the positive level where no comparison is made as well as the comparative and superlative degrees of description.

The comparative degree is used when two entities are involved while the superlative degree is applied when more than two entities are compared. E.g.

    1. Ojo is tall.
    2. Moddibo is taller than Uche.
    3. Moses is the tallest of them.

As a guide, many monosyllabic adjectives (adjectives with one sound units) take the 'er' and 'est' morphemes to form the comparative and superlative forms. These are called Regular or Variable Adjectives.

Examples:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
large	larger	largest
tall	taller	tallest
short	shorter	shortest
quick	quicker	quickest.

Some disyllabic and almost all adjectives of three or more syllables are compared by the use of 'more' or 'most'. Degrees of inferiority may be indicated by the use of 'less' and 'least'. These are called invariables Examine the following:

handsome	more handsome	most handsome
useful	more useful	most useful
dangerous	more dangerous	most dangerous

A group of adjectives described as irregular adjectives also occur. They include:

good	better	best
little	less	least
bad	worse	worst

Some adjectives cannot be logically compared since the qualities they denote operate in the highest possible level or in absoluteness; their meanings indicate totality e.g. perfect, empty, mortal, blind, wrong, childless, motherless, supreme, omnipotent, fatal, hopeless. One cannot say for instance that, 'Sara is more childless than Amina' or 'the pot is emptier than the basin'.

2.5 Features and Functions of Preposition
The root of this word 'position' strongly indicates the meaning and the primary function of the preposition. It is used to indicate the positional relationship between words in utterances.

Prepositions are 'hooks' for making modifiers of nouns and pronouns. A preposition is always accompanied by its object or complement (a noun or a pronoun) which it 'hooks' to some other parts of a sentence.

  1. They live <u>in</u> a bungalow <u>near</u> the village.
  2. They live <u>in</u> a bungalow <u>in</u> the village.
  3. The live <u>in</u> a bungalow <u>beyond</u> the village.

The underlined words connect the nouns 'bungalow' and 'village' to other parts of the sentence and express different relationships between them. The sentences are essentially the same in all other respects except in the difference in meaning attributable to the different prepositions in use. Therefore, as against the common consideration that prepositions merely link words in a sentence, they actually in addition influence the meaning of the sentence.

i) Simple and Complex Prepositions
Though most prepositions are simple that is consisting of a single word, there are other prepositions which are complex, consisting of many words.
Simple prepositions include the following:
Above before for since about behind into toward across below inside through after beneath into under against between near up among by of with around down off within.

ii) Prepositional Idioms
The complex prepositions are also called phrasal verbs, prepositional idioms or prepositional patterns because they are collocative and most

6.6 Note taking/Note making

6.6.1 Note Taking
Taking notes is an important process. It allows you to have a written record of the lecture which may not be in your textbooks. It also ensures that you become an active and involved listener and learner. Effective note making skills enable you to select the information you need from written sources, quickly and efficiently. Having a clear focus cuts out unnecessary note taking time and enables you to produce well organized notes.
The three main reasons for note taking are:
  i.   To select.
  ii. To understand.
  iii. To remember.

Taking notes to Select
Always select your information according to its direct relevance to the title or question. The essay should provide the focus of your note taking. If you are taking notes from a text check:
i.   Year of publication, the content page, introduction or preface, the beginning and ending of promising chapters. Begin by recording the details you will need for your reference section. Example author, date, place of publication and publisher etc.
ii. Check that each point you record is relevant to the task at hand.
iii. Read the chapter and page number use in referencing so that you can easily re-trace your steps.
iv. Takedown all quotations in inverted commas with full reference details.

Organizing your information
Organizing your notes as you write will help you to digest the information quickly. You can also reorganize the notes later to make the information more meaningful to your task.
  i.   Use main and subheadings and numeral list to organize your note.
  ii. Use keywords to summarise each point in the margin.
  iii. Use colour to categorise points, make headings standouts and show links between points and ideas.

Any Other Business (A.O.B)
At this stage, any other point that is not reflected on the main agenda of the meeting, which members deemed important, could be put forward for deliberation.

Adjournment
This section brings the meeting to an end. In the absence of AOB, any member can move the motion for adjournment of the meeting, and this has to be seconded by another member of the congress. The minutes may end with a note of the time that the meeting was adjourned.

Endorsement
This column provides spaces for both the chairperson and the secretary to write their names, signatures, and date

6.5.5 Memorandum
The term Memorandum; a Latin verbal phrase '*Memorandus*' which means *it must be remembered that* is a note, document, or other communication that helps the memory by recording events or observations on a specific topic. Memorandum, commonly referred to as Memo, is a brief communication written for inter-office circulation that contains directive, advisory, or informative matter. It is usually a short note designating something to be remembered, done, or acted upon in the future. The memorandum is of two types: formal and informal/internal memoranda. The internal memorandum, or simply internal memo, is a letter written in the course of normal official duties to people within the same establishment as the writer. It is used for internal communication between people who work closely together. For example, the Vice-Chancellor may write an internal memo to all the Deans of the faculties. Unlike the formal letter, an internal memo does not usually require salutation as *Dear Sir* or the complimentary closing as *Yours faithfully*. It is normally written or typed on a *letter head* paper indicating its source. The names of both the sender and the recipient of the memo are indicated just below the address of the writer. For example: from the vice-chancellor to all the Deans.

times a change in the preposition completely alters the meaning of the sentence.
- Round off   -   to end
- Round on   -   to attack verbally
- Roundabout   -   encircle
- Round up   -   put together

Complex prepositions occur in the dimensions listed below.
a) Preposition + Nominal + Preposition e.g. 'in the company of', 'by means of', 'in comparison with', 'in addition to', 'in place of', 'in love with'.
b) Adverbial (Adverb) + Preposition e.g. 'along with', 'instead of', 'apart from'.
c) Verb, Adjective, Conjunction + Preposition e. g. but for, owing to, far from, due to. This is better written as:

2.6 Pronoun
Note that the pronouns can only substitute or replace a noun that has already been mentioned in a construction. This noun is called an antecedent of the pronoun. Examine the following:
  a. The girls are happy; they are dancing.
  b. Many students do not read; they play around.

2.6.1 Types of Pronouns
Personal Pronouns have persons, number, gender and case which constitute the grammatical categories of pronouns. In terms of persons, there are the first, second and third persons which occur in singular and plural forms, function as subjects and objects distinctively and indicate possession in different forms.
This table illustrates the grammatical categories of pronouns:

Persons	Subject	Object Possessive	form
1st person (singular)	I	Me	Mine
1st person (plural)	we	us	ours
2nd person (sing/plu.)	you	you him,	yours
3rd person singular	he, she, it	her, it	his, hers, its
3rd person plural	they	them	theirs

From the table, the most troublesome is the second person which is the same in the singular and plural forms as well as the subject and object cases. It does not also show gender.

This should be particularly

a) Relative Pronouns feature in (relative or adjectival clauses)

They include *who, what, which, whom, whose, that, whoever, whichever*. Relative pronouns contrast. Usually, 'who' and 'whom' refer to persons while 'which', 'what' and that refer to things.

b) Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions in the subjective, objective or genitive cases.
1. Who are you?
2. Which this?
3. Whose is that?

c) Reflexive Pronouns refer to self or selves. They exist in compound forms and occur in first, second and third persons with appropriate number as follows:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st person	myself	ourselves
2nd person	yourself	yourselves
3rd person	himself	themselves.
herself		
itself		

Reflexive pronouns sometimes perform emphatic function.
1. He himself knows the truth.
2. I myself cannot imagine that.

d) Indefinite Pronouns refer to persons/things in general.

They do not really specify a person or a thing. They include: each, both, all, everyone, everything, anybody, somebody, someone, somewhere, anything, any, nothing, nobody, nowhere, none, little, few, one, etc.

e) Reciprocal Pronouns express relationship between two or more persons or entities. They are each other - (for two) one another - (for more than two)
1. Ahmed and Aishatu love each other.

meeting and include a list of attendees. Minutes are usually created by the scribe who takes notes using shorthand notations and prepare them at a later time. It is important that minutes capture only summary of the decisions, as verbatim account is not generally advised. The minutes should contain mainly a record of what was done at the meeting, not what was said by the members. Since the primary function of minutes is to record the decisions made, all official decisions must be included.

Finally, the minutes may end with a note of the time that the meeting was adjourned. Although the format of minutes varies, there are general guidelines. Generally, minutes begin with a Title which captures the name of the organization/board/association holding the meeting, the place/venue of the meeting, as well as the time and date of the meeting. Minutes of the Meeting of the Nigerian Writer's Forum Held at 10:00 am on 10th **October 2023 at Gombe State University's Multipurpose Hall, Gombe. Membership/Attendance**

The title is usually followed by a column for attendance/membership which is categorized into: *present (in Attendance), Absent,* and *Absent with Apology.*

Preamble/Preliminary Discussion

This section is usually optional, as it may not feature in some minutes. It is a stage where introductory remarks and discussions are recorded. Such preliminary discussions are normally carried out by the chairman/president who would welcome members to the meeting, give reasons for lateness and state some problems that had prevented meetings from being conveyed at frequent intervals.

Matters Arising from the Minutes of the Previous Meeting

This column is very important, particularly where the organization is not meeting for the first time. It draws attention to the need for implementation of decisions reached at the previous meeting.

Substantive Agenda/New Items for consideration

This section captures the summary of discussions and decisions in respect of each of the main issues on the agenda.

d. **Work experience**: this entails the previous employment you had. Try as much to relate your previous employment to the new job you are seeking for.

e. **Interests/Hobbies**: this involves the activities that you enjoy doing the most.

f. **Referees**: this column provides the names and addresses of the persons to be consulted for comments on your personality and academic capabilities.

1. Title: This contains the title of the report, names of persons carrying out the report, name of organisation to be submitted to as well as the date of submission.

2. Abstract: This is a summary of what is contained in the report especially to hint the reader on contents.

3. Table of content: This gives the list of different chapters and headings used including the page initial numbers.

4. Introduction: This section provides background information on the report like the terms of reference, objective, justification etc.

5. Method/procedure: This shows the process of obtaining and analysing data including its method of collection (interview, tests, questionnaire etc).

6. Findings/Result: This section shows the outcome of the research carried out. Graphs, diagrams and tables should be shown where necessary to support the finding.

7. Discussions/recommendation: at times, discussions on findings are shown, with specific reference to problems. Temporary solutions are also attached.

8. Conclusions: this section re-emphasises the relevance of the content. Note that new ideas cannot be introduced at this point.

9. Appendix: In the appendix, the supporting information that could not be accommodated in the main body is presented.

10. Bibliography: This gives an alphabetical order of material referred to in the process of writing

6.5.4 Minutes of a Meeting

Minutes, also known as protocols, are the official written records of discussion at a meeting. They typically describe the events of the

2. Allen, Alice and Anna love one another.

f) Demonstrative Pronouns point at entities. Therefore, they should not be mistaken for adjectives:

- This/that is mine.   (pronoun, singular)
- This/that book is mine. (adjective qualifying book)
- These/those are mine.   (pronoun, plural)
- These/those books are mine. (adjective qualifying books)

2.7 Features and Functions of Interjections

This constitutes the smallest group of words in English. They include oh! ah! ugh! phew!

Interjections usually take exclamatory marks and they merely serve to express emotions such as fear, surprise, admiration, joy and anger.
Common examples are: How wonderful! Look at! Watch out! Alas!
They can also be found in some thoughtful expressions and expressions of wish or regrets.
E.g. Good morning! Fare well!
Hello! Hi! Goodbye! Had I known!
Long live our country!

2.8 Features and Functions of Conjunctions

Conjunctions specifically connect or join grammatical patterns (words, groups, clauses and sentences). Three types of conjunctions are operational within the closed class. These are subordinators.

2.8.1 Coordinators and the correlatives

i) Subordinators join elements of unequal weight. This means that one pattern which is joined to the other is subordinate to it. They include: after, if, since, that, though, until, till, yet, while, etc.

ii) Coordinators join elements of equal rank. There are three in English, namely: and, but, or.
1. Garba sings and dances well
2. Amtai sings well but dances awkwardly.
3. Buy the dress or keep back the money.

iii) Correlatives occur in pairs. They usually have intervening words or phrases between them. They include: either … or, neither nor, only … but also, both … and, etc.

2.8.2 Functions of Conjunctions

The multiplicity of the functions of conjunctions can easily lead to confusion between them and prepositions or adverbs. The principle is to find out the function of each word before attributing it to any part of speech.

The following groups are subordinating conjunctions according to their functions:

- Cause　　　　:　because, in as much as, since;
- Purpose　　　:　that, so that, in order that, lest;
- Comparison　:　than, as, as if, as well as;
- Condition　　:　if, unless, whether, in case;
- Result　　　 :　that, so that;
- Time　　　　 :　after, before, since, when, while;
- Concession　:　although, though;
- Place　　　　:　where;
- Manner　　　:　how, as though;
- Degree　　　 :　as far as, as much as;

Progress Report: This is a kind of report that gives the advancement of an event or activity; it development overtime and how it developed. It is carried out at regular interval.

Investigative Report: This kind of report is carried out under special authority. It enquires into a matter with conclusions and results arrived at after such investigations.

Eye Witness Report: This kind of report narrates an account of something that happened like robbery, accident, malpractice, riot etc.

6.5.3 Curriculum Vitae

Curiculum Vitae is originally a Latin expression which, in a free translation, can be rendered as 'the course of my life'. A curriculum Vitae or simply *CV* is a written overview of a person's experience and other qualifications for a job opportunity or fellowship. It is a summary of one's personal history which includes details about oneself, one's education, and any other job one might have had. The **CV** is **set** out in a way that makes it easier to verify facts about one's past that may help to decide whether or not one is eligible for the post one is seeking for. It is generally advised that a *CV* should be short, as it contains only a summary of the job seeker's qualification, employment history and some personal information. In view of this, one can rightly assert that a **CV** is perhaps the most convenient way to make application. It conveys your personal details in a way that presents you in the best possible light. It is indeed a marketing document in which you are marketing yourself, your skills, abilities, qualifications, and experiences. Even though there is no one 'best way' to construct a *CV*, an ideal *CV* is normally structured within the basic framework below:

 a. **Personal details**: this contains your name, address, date of birth, nationality, state of origin, local government area, telephone number and e-mail address.

 b. **Educational institutions attended with dates**: this covers the names of respective schools you attended.

 c. **Qualifications obtained**: this includes your degrees, A-levels and GCEs or equivalents. Mention grades, unless poor.

6.4.3 Informal Letter

This is a type of letter written to friends and relatives. The tone and style of an informal letter is not as strict as that of a formal one since the sender and the receiver are familiar to each other.

6.4.4 Features of an informal Letter

1. **Address**: Here, only the writer's address is required at the top right corner. It can be in the block or slanted style with or without punctuation marks all through
2. **Salutation**: This is written at the left hand corner, example 'Dear Hafsat,'.
3. **The body**: The letter should be written in simple everyday language, though with personal details that may not be so relevant to the topic. Such kinds of letters discuss family issues, personal matters, good wishes, etc. The ideas should be explained clearly for proper understanding.
4. **Complimentary close**: This is the concluding part where words like 'Yours Sincerely, With Love, etc. are used.

6.5 Report Writing

Attention is focused on how to write reports. Students are expected to learn how to write report and use the outcome of their findings in important decision making

6.5.1 Meaning of Report Writing

A Report is a comprehensive account of events witnessed, investigated, heard or carried out. It is used to provide information/result of an experiment, inquiry or investigation in government organizations, businesses, education sectors etc.

In Report writing, the following points are important:
1. A good language is devoid of ambiguity, jargon or slang.
2. Proper placement of punctuation marks and grammatical structures.
3. Conciseness, clarity as well as logicality in presentation

6.5.2 Types of Report Writing

Though there are various kinds of Reports, attention will be focused only three here.

MODULE THREE
VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

3.0 Introduction

This topic intends to expose the students to certain vocabulary skills that they need to acquire in order to study and communicate effectively. Vocabulary simply means all the words in a particular language available to its users. It can also mean all the words that a person knows or uses. Vocabulary, therefore is divided into two types namely; active vocabulary and passive vocabulary. Active vocabulary, are the words you use while passive vocabulary, are the words you understand but do not use. It is further sub-categorised into: Vocabulary for general communication and the specialised vocabularies of various subjects or disciplines such as sociology, economics and medicine.

English vocabulary is often problematic for second language users or learners of the language. Most at times students face some difficulties in understanding reading materials in English because we come across specialised or difficult terms and expressions whose meanings we do not know. The problem of unfamiliar word combinations is also present. This module will assist you in learning the techniques for tackling such difficulties you do come across in texts. The following are some techniques used in order to develop your vocabulary.

1 Using dictionary information
2 Understanding meanings of difficult words and expressions in texts
3 Understanding word association or collocations
4 Understanding and using word formation techniques like; roots, affixes and compounds
5 Recognising word relations.

3.1 Using Dictionary Information

For one to develop his/her vocabulary, he/she must know how to use the information that is given in a dictionary. The fundamental function of a dictionary is to give information about words. Dictionaries, generally give the following information: a. Spelling b. Pronunciation c. Grammar (parts of speech)   d. Definitions   e. Usage.

3.1.1 Spelling
Dictionaries help us to know and be sure how a word is spelt. The system of spelling in English is problematic for second language speakers because of the inconsistency in the rules. For example, words such as 'piece' and 'peace' 'check' and 'cheque' 'price' and 'prize 'are confusing and often misspelt. There are certain English words whose initial letters often prove difficult to pronounce, for instance, 'psychotic' 'pneumonia' 'psalm' and 'knight'. We also have differences of spelling between British English and American English. Some of these words are:

In order to develop your vocabulary in speaking and writing, you need to recognise spelling differences between British English and American English. Consistency is required in the use of these spelling forms. Once you have chosen either British spelling or American spelling, you need to stick to it. However, we use the British spelling in Nigeria. You are therefore, advised to consistently use the British spelling in all your writings.

3.1.2 Pronunciation
For the purpose of developing your vocabulary, you need to know how words are pronounced in English. For this purpose, you need a good dictionary which transcribes the words using the set of phonetic symbols that are used for the sounds of English. In essence, you need to be familiar with the English phonetic sounds and how each is pronounce.

3.1.3 Grammar (parts of speech)
Most English dictionaries provide information on the word class and function of a word. Words have the characteristic of belonging to a specific class according to the way it function and the context it occurs. A number of word classes or parts of speech used in English dictionaries can be identified as follows: a. Nouns b. Determiners c. Adverbs d. Conjunctions e. Pronouns f. Adjectives g. Verbs h. Exclamation/ Interjections i. Prepositions

6.3 Types of Writing
   a. Letter Writing
A letter is an expressive form of communication. It can be seen as a written form of communicating ideas, thoughts or feelings from one person or organisation to another in order to make a request, direct, persuade or give an account of events. Every letter, whether personal or business, must be well written so that the recipient will derive pleasure and have an understanding of the content.

6.4 Types of Letter

6.4.1 Formal Letter
This is a form of letter written for official or business purposes. It is addressed to holders of posts like chairman, governor, firm, organisation, etc.

6.4.2 Features of a Formal Letter
1. **The Address**: two addresses are involved here. The writer's address is written at the top right corner of the paper while the receiver's address, written on the left side beneath the writer's.
2. **Salutation**: This comes beneath the receiver's address, example 'Dear Sir' or 'Dear Madam', 'for   a lady if established. Leave a blank line after salutation, between paragraphs and before closing.
3. **Title**: The title of the letter should come after the salutation. The first letters of the key words should be capitalised and the whole title underlined or the title capitalised without underlining. The title should be brief and unambiguous for easy understanding.
4. **The body**: the language of letter must be formal, concise, meaningful and straightforward. Only points relevant to the subject matter should be discussed. Formal letters discuss official or business matters. Ideas should be divided into short paragraphs and a closing paragraph restating the reason of writing should be used to avoid abrupt ending. The use of abbreviations should be avoided.
5. **The complementary close**: this is placed at bottom of the letter. The 'Y' for 'Yours faithfully' is capitalised, followed by a signature and the writer's full name.

b. Conciseness

A good writing should be concise with meaningful sentences devoid of needless words and fillers that distract readers from the main message. A good writer eliminates wordy phrases and sentences to make the writing straight to the point. Consider the following examples:

Word Phrases / Substitutes

I.　In the near future /soon
II.　Regardless of the fact that /although
III.　Give consideration to /consider

It is also advisable to eliminate redundancies that is, repetition of words that are unnecessary in a sentence. Examples of such redundant expressions include: exactly- identical, perfectly- clear etc.

c. Correct Spelling and Grammar

Grammatical as well as spelling errors distract readers and make the reading process annoying. Strong grammatical skills lend credibility to and at the same time enhance the readability of the written document. A good writer avoids common grammatical errors such as comma splices, run-on sentences as well as sentence fragments. Proof reading documents carefully is a format for spell checking that helps in correcting words that are correctly spelt yet incorrectly out of context. Example, knew versus new, fool and full etc.

d. Logical structure or logicality

Paragraph size is very important in any piece of written information. This is because writing is visual, the reader's eye catches the size of the paragraph before the brain processes the words. Long paragraphs intimidate readers while short to medium length paragraphs with three to five sentences look inviting.

Points within each subject should be placed strategically within paragraphs so as to build upon the subject. All paragraphs should be interconnected such that a paragraph amplifies the one preceding it, and at the same time, the last sentence of the previous paragraph should be connected to the first sentence of the next one. A good writing displays confidence in using fresh words and new ideas as the paragraphs build upon one another. Paragraphs are meant to separate ideas and equally tie the whole discourse together as a whole.

3.1.4 Dictionaries

Dictionaries primary function is to give the definitions of words which may be a range of general meanings of the words. For example, the *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary: International Students' Edition* defines the word 'Audience' in this way:

1. The group of people who have gathered to watch or listen to sth (something)
2. a number of people or a particular group of people who watch, read or listen to the same thing
3. a formal meeting with an important person.

In addition to these definitions, a dictionary gives examples in sentences to illustrate the usage of a word in context. However, dictionaries do not supply all possible meanings and usages that a word may be associated with.

3.2 Understanding Collocation

In order to development your vocabulary; you must understand what collocation is. Collocation is a combination of two or more words often being used together, in a way that happens more frequently than would happen by chance. For example, 'Resounding success' 'Civic rights' 'Uniformly distributed' 'Energy supply'

3.2.1 Using Word-formation Technique

Word-formation technique is another way of understanding meaning of difficult or unfamiliar words in texts. Words are formed in three different categories namely;

1. Root 2. Affixation 3. Compounding.

The core of a word is called its root while affixation means the addition of a certain word part at the beginning or end of a root word. A syllable added at the beginning of a root word to form a new word is called **prefix** while a syllable added at the end of a root word to form a new word is called **suffix**. For example, root word: pleased + prefix: dis = displeased. Root word: known + prefix: un = unknown. Root word: understand + prefix: mis = misunderstand. Root word: polite + prefix: im = impolite. Root word: bond + suffix: age = bondage. Root word:

child + suffix: hood =childhood. Root word: book + suffix: let = booklet. Root word: farm + suffix: er = farmer, etc.

Compounding is another process of word-formation in English, whereby two words are joined together to form a new word. Another word for compounding is compound words. The following are some examples of compounding:
Noun + Noun: hand + bag = handbag
: love + story = love-story
Adjective + Noun: short + hand = shorthand
: strong + hold = stronghold
Verb + Noun: play + ground = playground
: pick + pocket = pickpocket
Gerund + Verb: walking + stick = walking- stick
: stepping + stone = stepping- stone
Verb + Adverb: draw + back = drawback
: send + off = send off

3.2.2 Recognising Word Relations
Words generally relate to one another in certain ways known as sense relations in semantics. Semantics simply means the study of meanings of words and phrases. There are about four important terms that are used in distinguishing and understanding relations among words which are:

a. Synonyms
Words that have identical or similar meanings are called synonyms. For example:

1.	abstain –refrain	11.	contagious –infectious
2.	avenge –revenge	12.	confer –bestow
3.	expect –hope	13.	admit –confess
4.	praise –admire	14.	hasten –hurry
5.	vacant –empty	15.	envy –jealousy
6.	astonishment –wonder	16.	discover –invent
7.	bravery –courage	17.	assent –consent
8.	reverence –respect	18.	banish –exile
9.	redress –relief	19.	bring –fetch
10.	contentment - satisfaction	20	freedom –liberty

of what is to come. The introduction prepares the ground for the entire write up and so it highlights in brief of the content for the entire work. The introduction must be clear, precise and brief so as not to bore the readers.

b. The main body
The writer builds up the main body by raising the major arguments, identifying the main issues and at the same time provides possible solutions. Each point should be strategically placed within paragraphs to build upon the subject.

c. The concluding stage
After all the subjects and points have been made, the arguments raised and counter attacked, the problems stated and solutions proffered, the next step is conclusion. It touches on the main points in the writing and basically summarizes the writing but with flair to make it memorable. At this stage, the writer ties up the rest of the writing as a whole.

3. Editing/Revision stage
At this stage, the writing must be read and re-read to detect flaws and ensure that the writing is strengthened to be able to refine the writing to achieve its purpose. It is equally important to proof read the draft to maintain the standards of mechanical accuracy.

6.2 Features of Writing
There are many characteristics of a good writing, four of the most important are;

a. Parallel structure
This refers to consistency in the arrangement of words and sentences. A good writer should be consistent with the forms words in particular sentences. For example, when using the –ing' form for all verbs in a list, it should be consistent and run through the whole instance as in the sentence below.
Water is used for the following purposes: wash<u>ing</u>, and cook<u>ing</u>. We <u>drink</u> water. We <u>bath</u> ourselves etc.
This sentence can be improved if the '-ing' form of the verb is consistent in all the listed items. Consistency does not only refer to verbs only, it is equally applicable to other forms in sentence structure.

MODULE SIX: WRITING ACTIVITIES

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Writing is the process of using symbols to relay ideas and thoughts in a readable form. A good writing is a product of a skillful and elaborate effort on the part of the writer to be able to successfully communicate his thoughts and ideas to the readers. Writers were once called 'wordsmiths 'because of the way they craft and mold words to brilliantly present discourse for easy articulation.

6.1 The Stages of Writing

The process of writing undergoes different stages which include;

6.1.1 Preparatory stage

This stage is also called the pre-writing stage because it requires the writer to identify the purpose of his/her writing which will determine the type of writing s/he is going to undertake. It is also very important at this stage for the writer to identify the target audience for his writing to be meaningful to the intended readers.

Depending on the purpose and target audience, a good writing may fall under any of these forms: letters, narratives, reports, personal notes, biographies etc. After identifying the purpose of the writing and for whom it is meant, it is also at this stage that the writer organises the relevant materials that will assist him/her in developing the subject matter and at the same time identify the major demands in organising the entire writing into three stages of writing namely; the introduction, the body and the conclusion.

6.1.2. Writing stage

This stage involves the writer in the actual writing process and it is at this stage that the writer organises his ideas and develop them into the three stages areas follow stage.

a. Introduction

The first part of a good writing begins with a memorable, exciting and profound statement for the writer to be able to capture the reader's attention immediately. Readers need to be intrigued and made to want to keep on reading, as such the first paragraph should give them taste

b. Antonyms

Words that have opposite meanings are called antonyms. For example:

1.	awake – asleep	11.	imbecile –sane
2.	bold –timid	12.	justify –condemn
3.	beautiful –ugly	13.	kind –cruel
4.	gentle –rough	14.	lewd –virtuous
5.	cheerful –gloomy	15.	memory –oblivion
6.	economy –extravagant	16.	marriage –celibacy
7.	flexible –rigid	17.	partly –wholly
8.	guilty –innocent	18.	temporal –spiritual, eternal
9.	ideal –actual	19.	tranquil –disturbed
10.	bless –curse	20	yield –resist

c. Homonyms

A word that is spelt like another word or pronounced like it but have a different meaning is called homonym. For example:

1. Bank –where we keep money
   - bank of the river.
2. Spectacle –eyeglasses
   - strange sight
3. Present –a gift
   - where you are
4. Can –be able
   - put something in a container.
5. Blow up –explode
   - fill with water.
6. Make up –to put powder, lipstick etc on your face
   - to invent a story.
7. Book –a set of printed pages that are fastened together either for reading or writing
   - to arrange to have or use something on a particular date in the future.

d. Homophones

A homophone is a word which is similar and identical with another word in sound or pronunciation but has a different meaning or spelling. For example:

1.	allowed –aloud	11.	see –sea
2.	altar –alter	12.	steal –steel
3.	berth –birth	13.	wait –weight
4.	brake –break	14.	cite –site
5.	by –buy	15.	career –carrier
6.	check –cheque	16.	cease –seize
7.	dairy –diary	17.	dye –die
8.	heal –heel	18.	gait –gate
9.	piece –peace	19.	role –roll
10.	pray –prey	20	story –storey

a) I am happy I passed. Singular (first person)

b) Man is the only creature that consumes without producing. Singular (third person)

c) The man was to tired to carry the load. Singular (third person)

d) Mr. and Mrs. Bali are already eating. Plural (third person)

e) All students were present. Plural (third person)

f) You are a good friend. Singular (second person)

g) You were not at home when I came. Singular (second person)

II. Do: The "do" verb has the present form of "do" and "does" while it past form is "did" and past participle as "done". However "do" is used with plurals and with 'I' and 'You'. On the other hand, 'does' is used with third person singular.

a) I do not condone lateness. (singular)

b) Do you play football?

c) They do not wish to delay our request. (Plural)

d) She does speak English fluently. (Singular)

e) Does your teacher approve of your lateness? Singular (third person)

III. Have: It is a very useful verb in English. This is because it is in used to form other tenses like the perfect tense. It has its present form as have and has. 'Have' is used with plural and with 'I' and 'you'. 'Has' on the other hand is used with the third person singular.

a) My sister has long hair. Singular (third person)

b) I have a baby boy. Singular (first person)

c) Mary and Martha have been friends for a while. plural (third person)

d) Have you read Gist111 handbook? Singular (second person)

Prediction

The game will be over by now. (Must have been ones)

Habitual

    I. He will talk for hours if given the chance

    II. Every morning he would go for a walk.

Probability

That would be his brothers

Must

Used mainly to express obligations necessity or inference.

To pass your exams you must read your book.

Necessity/inference

You must submit your assignment today. **Ought to**

Obligation /logical necessity

    a. She out to be here by now

    b. You ought to do it.

It is worthy to note that should and ought to perform the same functions. Consider

    a. She should be here by now.

    b. You should do it.

However while, 'should' can be used for inversions the same cannot be applied to 'ought to'. Consider

    a. Should you do it?

    b. She should be here by now?

5.3.2 Modality (Modal Auxiliary Verbs) Concord

In English grammar, concord is simply described as the agreement especially in relation to verbs. Concord can also relate to other parts of speech like nouns, pronouns and conjunction. However, this unit is dedicated to concord. Thus, it refers to a change in number and person in relation to the verbs. Hence, the verbs be (am, is, are, were, was), do (does, did) and have (has, had), would be treated briefly.

    I. be: The "BE" verb has the following forms: *is , am, are, were, was* depending on the tense (past or present) to be used, the person(first, second, or third) referred to, and the number (singular or plural) of the subject being talked about for example:

MODULE FOUR
SENTENCE TYPES AND FUNCTIONS

4.0 Introduction

Choosing what types of sentences to use in an essay can be challenging for several reasons. You must consider the following questions: Are my ideas simple or complex? Do my ideas require shorter statements or longer explanations? How do I express my ideas clearly? This handout discusses the basic components of a sentence, the different types of sentences, and various functions of each type of sentence.

4.1 What Is a Sentence?

    I.   A sentence is a complete set of words that conveys meaning. A sentence can communicate o a statement (I am studying.)

    II.   a command (Go away.)

   III.   an exclamation (I'm so excited!)

   IV.   a question (What time is it?)

A sentence is composed of one or more clauses. A clause contains a subject and verb.

4.2 Independent and Dependent Clauses

There are two types of clauses: independent clauses and dependent clauses. A sentence contains at least one independent clause and may contain one or more dependent clauses.

An independent clause (or main clause)

    I.   It is a complete thought.

    II.   It can standby itself.

A dependent clause (or subordinate clause)

    I.   It is an incomplete thought.

    II.   It cannot standby itself.

You can spot a dependent clause by identifying the subordinating conjunction. A subordinating conjunction creates a dependent clause that relies on the rest of the sentence for meaning. The following list provides some examples of subordinating conjunctions.

After   Although
As   Because
Before   Even though
If   Since
Though   When
While   Until
Unless   Whereas

	Independent and Dependent Clauses
Independent clause: Dependent clause:	When I go to the movies, **I usually buy popcorn. When I go to the movies,** I usually buy popcorn.
Independent clause: Dependent clause:	**I don't like the ocean** because sharks scare me. I don't like the ocean **because sharks scare me.**

4.3 Types of Sentences

Sentences are divided into four categories: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences.

4.3.1 Simple Sentences

Definition	A simple sentence contains one independent clause.
Examples	Johnny rode his bike to school. Who is your best friend? She ate her lunch, took a walk, and went back to work.

in real world. This kind of moos is usually introduced by the subordinating word "if" or 'as if'.

 i. I wish I was born before now.
 ii. If I were to be a millionaire, I will help the poor.
 iii. She use my things as if I were her sister.

5.3 Modality

5.3.1 Modal Auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries primarily refer to the specific ways the speaker would like his/her learner to understand what is being said.
 a. Let me have your pen. (command, request)
 b. Can I have your pen, please? (politeness request)

The modal auxiliaries are used to express various ideas to include: politeness, permission, ability. Possibility, willingness, obligation, instance, negation authority, logical inference, etc.

However, these are expressed by specific modal auxiliary verbs. Can/Could

Ability
I can speak English.
Politeness
Could you sign my form?
Permission
Can have your pen?
Possibility
 a. Anybody can make mistakes.
 b. The building can collapse
 c. We could go for a walk?
Will/Would: Will often expresses the following **Willingness**
 a. She will help you ask here.
 b. Will you please shut door.
Intention
 1. I will write as soon as I get your letters. (futurity)
 2. We would not stay more than 3 hours.
Insistence
 1. She will do it, despite your anger.

III.   You will travel with me tomorrow

b. **The future perfect Tense**: It shows an action in the future that will have been completed before another time or event in the future.

I.   I will be reading when she arrives

II.   I will be walking when it starts to rain

III. They will be going to the library

c. **The future perfect continuous Tense**: It indicates an action in the future that will have been continuing until another time or event in the future.

I.   I will have been reading for 2 hours by 4pm.

II.   He will have been working at Gombe state university for 5 years by December.

III. They will have been rehearsing for 3 months when holiday is over.

5.2 Mood

Apart from tense and voice, the English verb also have another property called mood. It originates from Latin word which means manners. By definition, mood simply means the manners in which the verb expresses an action or state of being. The English language has three distinct types of mood-indicative, imperative and subjunctive.

The indicative mood is used to make statement and to ask questions example

a. The students are in class (statement)

b. The woman drove the car (statement)

c. Have you received the letter I sent to you? (Q)

The imperative mood on the other hand is used to make a request or give a command. It is worthy to note that the imperative mood can only in the second person and in a present tense. The subject is always the pronoun you which in most cases never expressed examples

a. Give me your pen, please! (Request)

b. Keep quiet! (Command)

c. Shut the door! (Command)

The subjunctive mood is used to express a wish or an unreal condition - a condition contrary to an act or a condition that is not true or possible

4.3.2 Compound Sentences

Definition	A compound sentence contains two independent clauses. A **coordinating conjunction** (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so) often links the two
Examples	She wanted to go on vacation, **so** she saved up her money. I like apples, **but** my sister loves bananas. Tim loves to read, **and** he also loves to hike.

4.3.3 Complex Sentences

Definition	A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence will include at least one **subordinating conjunction.**
Examples	She went to class **even though** she was sick. **As** John was arriving to work, he realized he forgot his lunch. **While** I enjoy classical music, I prefer rock and roll **because** I play the drums.

4.3.4 Compound-Complex Sentences

Definition	A compound-complex sentence combines complex sentence and compound sentence forms. A compound-complex sentence contains one or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.
Examples	**Although** she felt guilty for missing her friend's birthday, she took her out to dinner the next day, **and** they had a great time. I try to eat healthy food, **but because** fast food is so convenient, I cannot maintain a healthy diet.

If he got the job, he would have to commute 50 miles to work, **so** he decided the job was not worth it.

4.4 Functional Purposes of each Type of Sentence

Because each type of sentence can serve various functions, the writer should use the type of sentence that best communicates the purpose of his or her idea.

Choose the sentence type that will most clearly and accurately convey the logic of your idea. Consider the amount of information your readers need, and consider the links the readers need to process the information.

Vary sentence structures to pace your readers through your argument.

4.4.1 Functions of Simple Sentences

Use simple sentences when presenting a limited amount of information. Although simple sentences maybe shorter, they are not any less academic than other sentence types.

To declare a direct statement	First, I will give background information about my project. This conclusion is supported by extensive evidence.
To display a simple list	The researchers created their hypothesis, conducted some tests, and drew their conclusions. My evidence comes from journal articles, periodicals, and books.
To give concise directions	Please consider my application for the internship. Turn to Table 1 in the appendix.

4.4.2 Functions of Compound, Complex, and Compound-Complex Sentences

Compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences can serve similar purposes. The writer can tailor the amount of information he or she provides by adding independent and dependent clauses to simple sentences.

i. **The simple past tense:** It is used to talk about an action/event/state of being in the immediate past. For example,
   a. She drove to school early.
   b. I bought the book from the store.
   c. We watched the movie at the cinema.
ii. **The past perfect tense**: It is used to talk or describe an action/event/state of being that was completed before a particular or definite time in the past. For example
   a. I had washed the care before it started to rain.
   b. She had taken her bath before electricity was restored.
   c. I wished I had not bought the house.

N.B. Note that in a past perfect tense, actions occur two different contexts.
The first one action is usually in a perfect state while the other is in 'in the simple past.
iii. **The past continuous tense**: It is used to show an action/event/state of being in the immediate past and skill in the progressive form.
   a. I was walking home when I saw the notice.
   b. We were receiving lectures when the incident occurred.
   c. He was cooking when she walked in.
iv. **The past perfect continuous tense**: It is used to show an action perfected in the past before another past action.
   a. She had been cooking for an hour when the phone rang.
   b. I had been reading all day. So I was very tired.
   c. We had been practicing the song before our instructor arrived.
v. **The future Tense**: It is used to talk about action or event in the future. In most cases it is used to talk about arrangements, plans, prediction, and so on. Like other forms of tenses, the future tense has four forms too. Note that, in English grammar, a future tense is used by combining the modal auxiliary verb "shall" and "will" with present form of verb.
   a. **Simple future Tense**: Is used to indicate an action that will take place after the present time and that has no real connection with the present time.
   I.　We will walk home
   II.　I shall be there

c. I will be hungry. (future)

Tense has certain forms which it is used to show the time an action occurs. These forms are the present, past and future tenses. They are examined as follows.

1. **The present tense:** It is used to indicate an action, event or state of being happening at the moment (now). The present tense has four forms: simple present, present continuous, present perfect and present perfecta continuous.

   a) **The simple present**: It is used to show or talk about a present action/event state of being.
   I. Abuja is the capital of Nigeria.
   II. She works at Gombe State University

   It can also be used to express habitual actions or an idea that is universal
   a. We walk to school every day.
   b. I speak English regularly.
   c. The sun rises in the east.

   b) **The present continuous tense**: It is used, to sow an action/event/state of being in the present and still in progress.
   I. They are working on the project
   II. I am walking to school.
   III. She is driving all alone.

   c) **The present perfect tense**: It shows an action that is being completed at the moment of speaking/writing considers:
   a. She has written the letters.
   b. I have eaten my meal.
   c. He has taken the pen before I arrived.

   d) **The present perfect continuous tense**: It is used to show an action/event/state of being that has been perfected but is till in a continuous state.
   1. I have been walking to school every day for 5 years.
   2. We have been speaking English regularly for a while now.
   3. She has been working at the university for 10 years now.

   e) **The past Tense:** It denotes a past time that is used when action/event/state of being occurred in the past. Like the present tense, it has four forms: simple past tense, past perfect tense, past continuous tense and past perfect continuous tense.

To ask a question	What is the true meaning of the poem? What will this study mean to medical research in a decade?
To combine similar ideas	**Compound**: Recycling is an effective way of helping the environment, and everyone should recycle at home. **Complex**: Since recycling is an effective way of helping the environment, everyone should recycle at home. **Compound-Complex**: Since recycling is an effective way of helping the environment, everyone should recycle at home; we can all work together to protect our planet.
To compare or contrast ideas	**Compound**: Van Gogh was a talented and successful artist, but he had intense personal issues. **Complex**: Although he was a talented and successful artist, Van Gogh had intense personal issues. **Compound-Complex**: Although he was a talented and successful artist, Van Gogh had intense personal issues; indeed, many say his inner turmoil contributed to his beautiful art.
To convey cause and effect or chain of events	**Compound**: The researchers did not come to the correct conclusion, so they restructured their hypothesis.
	Complex: Since the researchers did not come to the correct conclusion, they restructured their hypothesis. **Compound-Complex**: Since the researchers did not come to the correct conclusion, they restructured their hypothesis, and they will attempt the experiment again.
To elaborate on a	**Compound**: Cellphones should not be permitted in class, for they

| claim or extend reasoning | distract students and teachers.

Complex: Since cellphones distract students and teachers, they should not be used in class.
Compound-Complex: Since cellphones distract students and teachers, they should not be used in class, and I encourage faculty to forbid their use. |
|---|---|

MODULE FIVE
GRAMMAR AND USAGE

5.0 INTRODUCTION:

This module gives some important grammatical elements and their usage in our everyday communication. Grammar deals with the rules and structure of a language while usage is the manner the structure of a language affects everyday use. This module is divided into four units – Tense, Mood, Modality (Modal auxiliary verbs) and Concord. These units introduce students to distinct grammatical elements

(Tense, Mood, Modality and Concord), there types and uses in everyday communication. Learning Objectives
At the end of this module. Students are expected to:
   I. Learn and use effortlessly these grammatical items in everyday communication and in their writing skills.
   II. Recognise their different types and parts in a sentence or grammatical structure.
   III. Most importantly, develop their communication and writing skills.

5.1 Tense

Verb is related to action, state of being and event. All these actions, state of being and event are also time bound. As non-linguistic concept, time can be present, past or future.

This means that events, actions and the state of being must be related to their time of occurrence when expressing them. For instance
   1) I go to school. (present)
   2) I went to school. (past)
   3) I will go to school. (future)
The above examples simply tells us that verbs are important part of a sentence as they show tense. Therefore, in English grammar, tense refers to the changes in the form of verb to correspond with time. In other words, tense show the time an action, event or state of being takes place Considers:
   a. I am hungry. (present)
   b. I was hungry. (past)