

Introduction to

COMMUNICATION IN ENGLISH

Edited by
Dele Adeyanju
Olutoyin Jegede

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FOREWORD

I am honoured to write the foreword to this educative and informative textbook, *Introduction to Effective Communication in English*. This book serves as an instructional guide to GST 111, one of the courses in the General Studies Unit of Chrisland University, Abeokuta, Ajebo Road, Ogun State. The purpose of this academic material is to serve as a versatile tool for the promotion of communicative competence among GST students in particular, and other users of English Language in general.

Communication is the premise on which every conversation is hinged in all human societies. This makes achieving clarity in communication a desired goal in unsalvageable ruinations, especially among us, as second language users of English. To avoid not just the pitfalls of vague conversations, but also to be able to assert one's confident use of English in different communication stances, it becomes expedient to identify principles and internalise the guides to effective message dissemination.

It is against this purview that this introductory course material becomes essential, to forestall the use of wrong words, expressions and symbols in English communication. This textbook details analysis of the various components required for competence in communication. For consistency and better comprehension, this publication has been grafted into ten chapters. Chapter one conveys the fundamental knowledge needed for a perfect articulation in communication, while chapters two and three respectively explicate the processes involved in word formation and the correlation between proper categorisation of words into different functional parts which is further elaborated in chapter four to expound grammatical interactions in sentences. Chapters five and six delve deep into sentence types, construction and the stylistic implications of the combinatory variation of language on message interpretations. Besides, chapters seven and eight are focused on the articulation of sounds through vital speech organs. Chapters nine and ten conclude with the requirement of outlining and paragraphing in practical communication to attain clarity in the dissemination of meaning, and at the same time expose the readers to various forms of essays and correspondences applicable to distinct situations in communications.

The contributors are seasoned intellectuals with proven academic records; a fact which makes this book an inestimable treasure that is highly recommended for use in any university and other tertiary institutions of learning. I therefore enjoin readers to take advantage of the efforts that the contributors and editors have put into the making of this unique book.

Thank you.

Professor Olutoyin Jegede
Director, General Studies Unit,
Chrisland University,
Abeokuta.
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CONTRIBUTORS

Dr. E. C. Chinaguh: Communication and General Studies Department, Federal University of Technology, Abeokuta

Dr. A. Odirin: Lifeforte International High School, Ibadan

Dr. F. F. John: Department of English, Chrisland University, Abeokuta

Dr. O. D. Atolagbe: Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin, Kwara State

Dr. A. Tella: Department of English, University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Dr. A.T. Akinmurele: Department of English, University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Dr. A. Osinsanwo: Department of English, Chrisland University, Abeokuta

Dr. J. A. Akinola: Doctoral Researcher, Michigan Technological University, U.S.A.

CHAPTER 1

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Emmanuel C. Chinaguh

Introduction

It is not sufficient to write or speak without ensuring that the desired result is achieved. As we exchange ideas, knowledge, or information, it is important to ask if the purpose for delivering a message is fulfilled. If the answer is “yes”, then effective communication can be said to have occurred. Effective communication can then be defined as the communicative process in which a message is aptly encoded through the right medium, and it is received and understood by the recipient(s). In essence, communication becomes effective when the sender and the receiver have a shared understanding of the information that is passed.

A communicated message has to be understood by the hearer for the communication to be effective. This requires the encoder’s message to be as explicit as possible to provide clear meaning to the recipient. This means that every communicator must avoid ambiguous expressions. Ambiguity occurs when different meanings can be derived from a sentence as buttressed with the following examples:

- i. Samson bathes his cat wearing a blue top.

Possible meanings:

- a. Samson is wearing a blue top while bathing his cat.
 - b. Samson is bathing his cat which is wearing a blue top.
- ii. The lecturer said on Monday he would administer a test.

Possible meanings:

- a. On Monday, the lecturer said he would administer a test.
- b. The lecturer said he would administer a test to the students on Monday.

Principles of Effective Communication

There are principles that should be adhered to for communication to be effective. These principles have been tagged the seven C’s. They are mentioned and explained below:

1. Clarity

The message that is encoded during communication should be clear enough to convey a single meaning to the target audience. The information should be transmitted without any ambiguity so the recipient would not have to guess the meaning of an utterance. Technical words that are not necessary should be avoided. Since the goal is to pass a message that should be comprehensible to the hearer, preference should be given to a simple and uncomplicated manner of expression that would not derail the communicative purpose.

2. Conciseness

Conciseness is the ability to be brief and direct to the point. Communication as a purposeful or goal-oriented process only requires words or gestures that are essential to the aim. Care must be taken not to bore the audience with unnecessarily long sentences. Instead, it is important to keep sentences straightforward and short. It is also imperative to focus on the main ideas and provide only pertinent supporting information. Providing much more information than is needed violates the principle of conciseness and can make communication ineffective. See the examples below.

Wordy	Concise
I am not ungrateful for your kindness.	I am grateful for your kindness.
It is thought that living in Abuja is far from being economical.	Living in Abuja is not economical

Remove redundant words and change long negative constructions to shorter and positive ones.

3. Concreteness

Concreteness in communication entails being specific and definitive. Good communicators should be vivid in their expressions and avoid being vague. Vague sentences are imprecise and do not convey definite meaning. They are not sufficiently backed with facts and figures and could create doubts in the mind of the hearer. Once that happens, effective communication cannot take place. To ensure concreteness in communication, a good communicator should try and speak with specificity and avoid vague expressions like “nearly”, “sort of” that pass imprecise knowledge, or “perhaps” and “maybe” that denote probability. So, opinions and generalisations should be avoided; instead, use precise modifiers and words that create vivid images.

4. Correctness

The principle of correctness indicates that the message being passed and the language for expressing it must be correct. There must be both factual and linguistic accuracy. First, before a piece of information is shared with anyone, the sources should be confirmed to be credible and reliable. Communication is not done just for the sake of it. In the current age of private messaging technology, it has become common to broadcast unverified information, and this practice violates the principle of correctness. By this principle, the validity of information must be established before it is shared with others.

In addition, language as a medium of communication should be used correctly. Avoid misspellings and grammatical errors. For instance, words with similar forms like “loose” and “lose” should not be confused. While “loose” is mostly used as an adjective to mean “not tightly fitted”; “lose” is a verb form that means “to cease to have something”. Both words can be used as follows:

1a. All hell will break loose.

b. He fastened the loose belt.

2a. Do not lose your temper over his taunts.

b. You can lose your life savings to fraudsters if you do not invest wisely.

5. Completeness

This principle requires that full information should be passed, and relevant facts should not be withheld during communication. This helps the listener to make an informed decision. Incomplete messages lead to the repetition, elaboration, and amending of what was earlier said. In the end, a lot of time and effort are wasted. Here is an example of an incomplete message:

Hello,

Please, I would like to see you tomorrow.

The above message is incomplete. It does not state the time, place, and purpose. A better example could be:

Hello,

Please, I would like to see you tomorrow at 10 am at Zenith Towers to discuss our business plans with you.

A piece of information that is complete answers the five Wh- questions: why, who, when, what, and how? “What” is the content of the message, which is a request for a meeting, in the example above. The “who” question indicates the participants – the writer who requests and the receiver to whom the request is directed. “Why” focuses on the purpose of the request, and it is to discuss their business plans, in the above instance. The “where” and “when” aspects specify the location and time, respectively.

6. Courtesy

Courtesy in communication is a principle that requires the speaker to show concern for the viewpoints and feelings of the hearer. How the message is addressed to the receiver should show due regard for their opinions about the topic and their emotive dispositions to it. Polite expressions should therefore be preferred to discourteous ones to promote goodwill and healthy communication.

As a communicative act progresses, the participants should be attentive to each other’s needs and show regard towards them. If there is any intrusion or interruption during the interaction, no matter how minimal, a sincere apology should be tendered. Likewise, deferential terms should be used when declining another’s request or passing unpleasant news as indicated in the following examples.

- i. I know how important hosting this event is to you, but I am sorry I will not be able to attend now.
- ii. That sounds so exciting, but can we do it some other time?

7. Consideration

The principle of consideration entails taking the other party into account the manner a message is communicated. Speakers must put themselves in the receivers’ place, consider recipients’ viewpoints, emotions, cultural background, and level of education and anticipate their probable reactions to the message. This reflects an empathetic communication style, which adopts the ‘you-attitude’. The ‘you-attitude’ or viewpoint gives primary consideration to the receiver’s viewpoints, values, biases, and interests when a message is being composed. This shows the

need to do an audience analysis at the planning stage to derive the information. The words of the message should be modified to suit these needs.

See some examples of the consideration principle in the following responses by two telecommunication companies to customers' complaints.

a. Joseph: Your network is very frustrating.

Telcom. Company X: Hello, Joseph. It is always a delight serving you; you sound dissatisfied about something regarding our service. Kindly share your phone number and describe your experience.

b. Jane: I'm tired of your network.

Telcom. Company Y: Good afternoon. We empathise with you. May we know the issue to be assisted?

The above examples show considerate messaging by the two telecommunication companies' customer representatives who imagine themselves in the position of the customers. In the first example, Telcom X considers the feeling of the customer as being "dissatisfied" and shows the willingness to rectify it by asking for more information. In the second instance, Telcom Y's customer agent used the word "empathise" to show consideration for Jane's experience.

Barriers to Effective Communication

Effective communication can be hindered by several barriers, ranging from language deficiency, psychological and physiological state, and physical condition to organisational settings.

1. Language Barrier

Language use and competence can constitute a huge barrier to effective communication. In terms of use, language users' ability can affect the effective use of language and the interpretation of meaning in communication. Where both interactants speak different languages, effective communication cannot take place, even when they speak a similar language but less proficiently. A good example is the problem of mother tongue interference in the English expressions of some Nigerian speakers of English from different tribes. Some Hausa speakers tend to pronounce the consonants /p/ as /f/ and /v/ as /b/, same way some Igbo speakers confuse /l/ and /r/, as exemplified below.

S/N	Tribe	Standard usage	Nonstandard use
1	Hausa	People Very	<i>Feofle</i> <i>Bery</i>
2	Igbo	Leg Room	<i>Reg</i> <i>Loom</i>
3	Yoruba	Ask Education	<i>Axe</i> <i>Educaasion</i>

In addition, the problems that are associated with interpreting meaning constitute a language barrier that is called semantic barrier. When there is a lack of concreteness and clarity in communication, the expressed meaning may be distorted. This is caused by vague and ambiguous expressions. Another linguistic barrier stems from poor listening skills, which may affect the understanding of an encoded message.

2. Psychological Barriers

Psychological barriers are people's mental and emotional states that inhibit the effectiveness of their communication. They include emotions and attitude.

3. Emotional Barriers

Emotions like anger, pride, and anxiety constitute mental limitations to the process of communication. For instance, an angry person may not be able to effectively process information and contribute meaningfully to a conversation.

Pride, on the other hand, is antithetical to some of the principles of effective communication, like courtesy and consideration. Being proud makes one have a high opinion of oneself, and makes a speaker show less consideration and courtesy towards the hearer.

Anxiety makes interlocutors nervous and fearful. It can hamper clear expression and one's ability to comprehend a message.

4. Attitudinal Barrier

An attitudinal barrier is a behaviour or perception that affects people's ability to communicate well. This type of obstacle may be built up from an individual's experience, background, exposure, and beliefs. As people's attitude influences their daily activities, this behaviour likewise impinges on their communication. This may distort or propel individuals' interest in

topics depending on how such appeal to their belief system. Attitudinal problems can account for situations in communication where people are pessimistic, opinionated, inflexible, hostile, dismissive, and cynical.

5. Physiological Barriers

These are limitations posed by a person's physical condition. These may be ill health, hearing impairment, and poor vision. An individual who is ill may not pay adequate attention to a message, and so may be unable to respond adequately to it. Similarly, a person with hearing loss could find it difficult to receive information from the sender.

A person that is fatigued, perhaps because of work pressure or after a long journey, may be less attentive to the speaker. An example is a student who travelled several kilometers to join a class. Such a student they may be too exhausted to participate actively in the lecture.

6. Physical Barriers

Physical barriers are environmental conditions that can hinder the flow of communication. These may result from natural or climatic conditions, like rain, thunder, and wind. They can create noise and cause a distraction to the smooth flow of communication. Besides these natural phenomena, human-caused noise within the environment can also interfere with the reception of signals from the sender. This kind of noise may be generated by traffic sounds from nearby roads, ringing of phones, and factories in the neighbourhood. These physical conditions can combine to interrupt the reception of an idea and hinder effective communication.

7. Organisational Barriers

The structure of an organisation can create a barrier to communication. This barrier may range from a company's policy and rules to hierarchical structure and work conditions. The policy may be such that promotes or hinders the effective flow of communication. An organisation's rules should integrate a communication policy that defines its channels of communication. This should be built into the organogram or hierarchical structure of the company and publicised among the employees.

Sometimes, these structures may only exist on paper, while in practice bureaucracy and poor management may distort communication flow. Adequate resources may also not be available to

workers to support their duties. The workers may be poorly remunerated, which may make them less motivated.

Overcoming the Barriers to Effective Communication

The barriers to effective communication can be checked by adopting the following recommendations:

- i.** There should be a mastery of the principles of effective communication. Ideas should be communicated clearly, concretely, concisely, courteously, completely, and correctly. Relevant consideration should also be given to the feelings, interests, and expectations of the audience.
- ii.** There should be a proper use of a feedback mechanism, which should monitor the receiver's reaction to a message. The feedback should be timely.
- iii.** The interlocutors should address any potential language barrier. Their listening skills should be up scaled, while physiological issues like a hearing defect should be medically attended to.
- iv.** A good communicator should have high emotional intelligence, and always be in the right frame of mind before a communication cycle commences. Emotional intelligence entails the ability to perceive and manage emotions, and it is manifested through self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.
- v.** The organisational structure should be re-designed and constantly reviewed to encourage a positive work climate and effective communication flow. Adequate resources and work conditions should also be put in place.

Conclusion

Effective communication promotes goodwill and healthy communication among individuals and organisations. It can however be hindered by environmental, psychological, physiological, and other barriers. Nevertheless, these barriers can be overcome by practicing clear, concrete, concise, courteous, correct, complete, and empathetic communication, with good listening skills and emotional intelligence.

Practice Questions

1. What is effective communication?
2. Explain the principles of effective communication
3. Give an example for each of two of the principles.

4. Distinguish between the following
 - a. Conciseness and concreteness
 - b. Courtesy and consideration
5. Describe the you-attitude or viewpoint in communication.
6. Illustrate this attitude with an example from customer service relations.
7. Mention three major barriers to effective communication.
8. Attitude and emotion can be categorised under _____ barriers.
9. _____ barriers to effective communication may result from the limitation of a person's physical condition.
10. Briefly state how interlocutors can overcome the barriers to effective communication.

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CHAPTER 2

MORPHOLOGY: WORD FORMATION IN ENGLISH

Abonyi Odirin & Fredrick Friday John

Learners of the English language, or any other language, must have the basic understanding of how words are formed to enhance their oracy and literacy skills. This understanding guides language users in the selection and deployment of appropriate vocabulary items in communicative contexts. To this end this chapter examines the process of word formation in the English language in particular. The consideration of this process will enable learners to be better equipped in carrying out research in their different disciplines. Thus, the chapter is foregrounded on the branch of linguistics known as morphology. It adopts a simple theoretical and practical approach in its presentation of the meaning of morphology as a linguistic concept.

We begin with reference to the fact that language is specie specific. This should be understood to mean that even though animals can communicate only humans use language for communication. As humans grow, they progressively acquire different words and their meanings in the lifelong process of learning. These words that are acquired are contained in what may be likened to an abstract limitless container known as the lexicon which refers to the collection of words in a given language. The container or receptacle could be abstract space in the memory or as located within the pages of a particular book as the dictionary. Basically then, when you hear lexicon, you should think of words; and the internal composition of the word is critical to studying the word itself. This is the goal of morphology.

Morphology is defined variously by scholars without much controversy. For some it involves how words are coined or derived and the way(s) they occur in phrases or sentences (See Lieber, 2009; Booij, 2007; Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). For others it implies the form, meaning and relationship between lexical units and the way they are arranged in words to aid meaning (Hamawand 2011:2). What can be harnessed here is that morphology is the science or process of deriving, forming, or structuring the words which are used for communication. It focuses on how words are shaped and how such shapes are adjusted. The interpretation of this is that there is a morphological process that leads to the composition of every word, whether in English or other languages. In turn, the process can be used to enhance meaning or generate new ones, as the case may be. It is instructive to note, therefore, that how words are built affect their semantic

(meaning) relations. In a nutshell, morphology is the study of the internal relations between or among words or, technically speaking, morpheme is the smallest unit in words.

The process of building words is one that is made possible by the presence of morphemes therein. Identified as the smallest unit or item of words, a morpheme is a meaning unit that is often represented by a letter or group of letters which may stand on their own or be attached to another meaning bearing unit or morpheme. This brings us to another very important dimension in our consideration of morphology: the typology of morphemes treated in separate subheadings that follow.

Free Morphemes

The free morpheme is an independent morpheme. It is also the base, root and at times, the stem. The lexical and functional morphemes are types of free morphemes. The lexical morpheme is meaning carrying while the functional morpheme shows the relationship between or among lexical morphemes. Free morphemes are independent words in their own right. They are morphemes that can stand on their own without any other morphemes being attached to them as given in the words in example 1.

Example

1. Boy, prince, house, cup, black, soap, wild, etc.

Note its two basic features:

- (i) The free morpheme serves as the *root* in the formation of other related words to modify its meaning. Take for example, *boy* (a young male person) serves as the root for *boys* (young male persons).
- (ii) It is the part of the word that accommodates all other sequences of morphemes. For example, in *faithfulness*, there are three (3) morphemes, the root, *faith*, and two additional morphemes, *-full*, and *-ness*.

Bound Morphemes

A bound morpheme is a dependent morpheme. It must be attached to some other morpheme in order to integrate naturally into the discourse (Payne 1997, Arokoyo 2013:18). It can be an affix, root or clitic. An affix attaches to free morphemes to modify words or derive new ones. It

is either inflectional or derivational. It plays a grammatical function when it inflects words to indicate tense, case, gender and number. Its other function is lexical, changing the word class of the root or stem to which attaches. This process of attaching to another morpheme is known as affixation. Given its relevance to this discourse, it is given a separate treatment later in the chapter.

In essence, bound morphemes are additional morphemes that are used to modify the meaning of words (i.e., Tense and number) or derive new words with related or different meaning.

Examples

2. Teach + es (meaning is modified to the simple present tense, used in agreement with the third person singular subject)
3. Teach + ing (meaning is modified to the progressive tense)
4. Teach + able (derived but related meaning, i.e., one that has capacity to learn)
5. Tea + chest (New word derived, meaning a wooden box with metal in which tea transported) (Oxford Dictionary, 7th Edition)

Interestingly, the bound morpheme can be further divided into two: closed and open bound morphemes.

Closed bound Morphemes

These are morphemes that, when added to words, forecloses the possibility of another morpheme being added where they are present. Put differently, if a closed bound morpheme is added to a word, that word cannot receive another morpheme, or undergo further morphological transformation. Given their nature and purpose, closed bound morphemes are also referred to as inflectional morphemes. Depending on the role it plays in a given word, this sub-typology can be present in any of these four (4) grammatical forms: tense, number (i.e., singular and plural), possessive and comparatives as exemplified below.

Examples

6. Tense inflections

-s – plays	-es – reaches	-ing – singing
-ed – played	-en – stolen	-t – learnt

-ought – bought -e – fell

7. Number inflections

 -s – girls -es – boxes -en – oxen
 -ies – lorries -e – men -ee – geese, etc.

8. Possessive

 -'s – girl's

9. Comparatives (adjectives)

 -er – bigger, taller, etc.
 -est – biggest, tallest, etc.

Open Bound Morphemes

As its nomenclature suggests, the open bound morpheme gives room for other morphemes to be added to the word. This means that open bound morphemes are used to derive other classes of words from root morpheme. The open bound morpheme is also referred to as derivational morpheme. It may function as a stem. A stem could be mistaken for the root morpheme but this does not have to be the case. It differs from the root in that it refers primarily to the part of the word that the last suffix is attached to. The examples that follow would be used to clarify this point.

Examples

- 10. Able (verb, root) + ly (ably - adverb, Stem) + lity (ability – adjective)
- 11. Constitute (verb, root)+ion (constitution – noun, stem) + al (constitutional – adjective)
- 12. Commune (verb, root)+ion (Communion – noun, stem) +able (communicable – adjective)

In examples 10-12, the words 'able', 'constitute' and 'commune' are the roots of words from which the stems 'ably', 'constitution' and 'communion' are derived. From these stems, the forms 'ability', 'constitutional' and 'communicable' are then derived. The derivation, made possible by the inclusion of additional morphemes (the stem and suffix in the above instances) result in a

change in the word class which initially were verbs but became adjectives where the formation process was completed.

It is worthy of note that there are regular derivative morphemes for each of the classes of noun, verb, adverb and adjective. We illustrate with a few.

Noun derivatives

-ion, e.g., communication, solution, innovation, etc.

-ness, e.g., kindness, holiness, politeness, etc.

-ice, e.g., service, etc.

-ment, e.g., government, encouragement, fulfilment, etc.

-er, e.g., buyer, slayer, teacher

-hood, e.g., manhood, boyhood, bachelorhood, etc.

Adjective derivatives

-ful, e.g., beautiful, faithful, truthful, etc.

-able, e.g., teachable, changeable, foreseeable, etc.

-al, e.g., economical, musical, quizzical, clinical, etc.

-ble, e.g., soluble, etc.

-less, e.g., clueless, faithless, hopeless, etc.

-ive, e.g., sensitive, productive, selective, etc

Verb derivatives

-ate, e.g., populate, strangle, formulate, etc.

-ise, e.g., legalise, economise, publicise, etc.

-fy, e.g., stupefy, quantify, beautify, etc.

Adverb derivatives

-ly, e.g., manly, lively, medically, proudly, etc.

Affixation

Affixation is the process of deriving meaning of word in English, using bound morphemes, before, in and after root words. The various positions an affix occupies in relation to its root/stem determines whether it is termed a prefix (occurring before the root), or suffix (occurring after the root). Siegel (1974) classifies affixes – derivational morphemes into four groups, using the classes or levels below:

Class I suffixes: + ion, + ity, + y, + al, + ic, + ate, + ous, + ive, + able, + ize

Class I prefixes: re +, con +, de +, sub +, pre +, in +, en +, be +

Class II suffixes: -ness, -less, -hood, -ful, -ly, -y, -like, -ist, -able, -ize (-ise BrE)

Class II prefixes: re-, sub-, un-, non-, de-, semi-, anti- (Siegel, 1974)

Note:

For groups 1 and 2, when they are sequenced in words, they enable phonological change or stress shift. In order words, when they are added to root words, the stress placement for that word will be moved to another syllable. In morphological processes, class 1 appears first, then stress is applied before class 2.

Examples:

13. E-du-cate – verb with primary stress on the first syllable (BrE)

14. edu-CA-tion – noun, stress moves to the penultimate syllable.

For groups 3 and 4 above, their sequence in words do not require phonological shift but may require stress shift. From the

Prefixes and their functions

i. Prefixes of number

Uni – e.g., unilateral

Mono – e.g., monolithic, monochrome

Dua – e.g., dualise,

Di – e.g., dicotyledon

Multi – e.g., multivitamin, multiverse, multinational, etc.

ii. Prefixes of direct and indirect opposite

il – e.g., illegal, illegitimate, illiterate

in – e.g., incorrect, indirect, invincible

un – e.g., unfortunate, ungrateful,

im – e.g., impossible, immobile, immature, etc.

iii. Prefixes of negation/opposition

Anti – e.g., antimalaria, antiparty, antigovernment, etc.

Counter – e.g., counterterrorism, counterproductive, etc.

iv. Prefixes of negative inference

Pre – e.g., subsume,

Super – e.g., supersede

v. Prefixes of processes/procedures

Pre – e.g., pre-planting, pre-degree, predisposition

Fore – e.g., foreknow, foreman

After – e.g., afterthought

Post – e.g., post-independence, postcolonial, postgraduate, postdated, etc.

Under- e.g., underground, underlie, understudy

vi. Prefixes of time

Early – e.g., early-bird

Note:

The suprafix (occurring as a supra-segmental feature), infix (occurring within the root in words as teeth, from tooth, men, from men, bought for buy, etc.), interfix (connecting two roots), circumfix (occurring at both sides of the root) are other types of affix attested in languages including English (For more details on these, see Arokoyo, 2013b:14-18).

Compounding

This is the process of generating words by combining two independent words, which could be regarded as free morphemes. When two words that can stand on their own are put together to form a word, which is then used to refer to or describe a concept – meaning that is either in one of the free morphemes or outside the free morphemes. Another way to describe it is, a compound is a word a structure that is formed by putting together two substructures, which are free morphemes in their own rights. But when this is done, in many cases, in regular compound

structures, one of the free morphemes becomes autonomous, while the other becomes dependent. Compounds can be formed from, and the arrive at, nouns, adjectives or verbs, all of which could be update of the autonomous – free morpheme or to generate a completely new word.

Examples

15. Basketball – basket (dependent) + ball (autonomous), meaning a game that involves throwing a ball into a basket.

16. Soothsayer – sooth (dependent) + sayer (autonomous), meaning, one who sees or tells people mysteries or the future.

17. Blackberry – black (generates completely new word and meaning that is not conveyed by any of the two substructures)

There are two macro structural conditions for compound word formations in English. They are compositionality and analysability. The former is subcategorised into two, endocentric and exocentric. Endocentric is when the meaning of the compound word is supplied by or generated from one of the free morphemes in the compound, as in examples (15) and (16) above, while exocentric is when the meaning is not suggested by any the morphemes, as in the case of example (17).

For analysability, the meaning of the compound word is easily identified, based on phonological and semantic component of the generated compound, not on the individual word.

Examples

18. Cybertechnology (meaning is generated from the semantic components of cyber, which is the internet, and technology, which is the elaborate semantic characteristics of the internet).

19. Headquarters (meaning is generated from the semantic components of ‘head’, which the central part of the body, and ‘quarters’, a place to mean a central location for various units).

Hyphenated compounds

Hyphenated compounds are formed, in most cases, with the combining of both content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and functional words, especially articles and prepositions. They are bridged together by the hyphen.

Examples:

20. Father-in-law
21. Vis-à-vis
22. Merry-go-round
23. Son-in-law
24. Go-between, etc.

General examples of compound words

Nouns:

Noun compounds are formed by combining content words with other content or functional words. See examples below.

Foot (noun) + ball (noun) - football

Frame (noun) + work (noun) - framework

Out (preposition) + line (noun) - outline

Earth (noun) + quake (verb) - earthquake

Soft (adjective) + ware (noun) - software

Play (verb) + ground (noun) - playground

Key (noun) + board (noun) - keyboard

On (preposition) + looker (noun) – onlooker

Out (preposition) + look (verb) - outlook, etc.

Adjective

Compound adjectives are mostly hyphenated, and the larger number is made up of a sequence of adjectives and verbs.

Examples:

old-fashioned

kind-hearted

well (adverb) +-behaved (Past Participle)

well-educated

highly-respected

middle +-aged

English (noun) + -speaking (progressive)

timesaving

record-breaking

good (adjective) + -looking (progressive)

long-lasting, etc.

The use of compound words requires knowledge of what structures and lexicons can be merged and what inference is being made in the given context. In instances where the learner is unsure of when or how to use English compounds, recourse may be made to the dictionary. It should be noted, however, in other cases their usage may just be an instance of innovation by the users in actual speech situations. In other words, while there may not be a hard and fast rule for every possible English compound, the patterns in the examples above provide us the template of the possible word classes that may enter such word or morpheme relation which often involves merging two independent words.

Conclusion

So far, we have considered the essence of morphology to language learning and use in different communicative contexts. We defined it as the study of the internal structure or composition of words. Central to the concept of morphology is the word; and central to words are morphemes, the non-decomposable unit of the word, so to speak. This unit falls into major categories identified as the free and bound morphemes depending on whether their presence allows or disallows the further addition of morphemes. The learner's linguistic repertoire comes into play in the successful deployment and even 'creation' of words when used innovatively without flouting the rules that govern how words are composed internally with reference to English as treated in this chapter.

Practice Questions

Exercise 1

Identify the number of morphemes and the root in each of the words below.

- i. Investigative
- ii. Inundation
- iii. Incapacitation
- iv. Misrepresentation
- v. Indivisibility
- vi. Proximation
- vii. Incurable
- viii. Adaptability
- ix. Disqualification
- x. Irregularity

Exercise 2

Identify and state the statuses (inflection or derivative) of the bound morphemes added to the following root words.

- i. Posturise
- ii. Undulates
- iii. Mendable
- iv. Called
- v. Invisibility
- vi. Running
- vii. Accusation
- viii. Axes
- ix. Disagrees
- x. Forfeited

Exercise 3

Identify the classes of words and (if applicable) the tense structure used in the formation of the following compound words and identify the generated class.

- i. Anything
- ii. Anywhere
- iii. absent-minded
- iv. highly-respected
- v. Airline
- vi. short-haired
- vii. slow-moving
- viii. ice-cold
- ix. part-time
- x. record-breaking
- xi. Battlefield
- xii. Skyscraper
- xiii. strong-willed
- xiv. widely-recognised
- xv. brightly-lit
- xvi. mouth-watering
- xvii. never-ending
- xviii. smoke-free
- xix. last-minute
- xx. friendship

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CHAPTER 3
PARTS OF SPEECH

Oluwadamilare Atolagbe & Fredrick John

Nouns

Nouns are very important entries in form of personnel, items or objects both animate and inanimate, places, ideas, among others in a sentence that indicate theme as well as performer, receiver or sufferer of an action. Our definition of noun here will not be built upon the foundation of the traditional grammar approach which states that ‘a noun is a name of person, animal, place or thing’. The simple reason for this is that this definition does not cover all the areas we can identify as nouns. Of course, we have names of persons, places animals and things, we can yet account for ideas, concepts or theories, situations or conditions, institutions, professions, positions, among other things. A noun is any word in a sentence or group that tells the name given to a person, place, animal, abstract entity, concept or theory, situation, institution, job or profession as well as position of authority. Let us see some examples.

Table 1. General examples of nouns

Aspect of Name	Examples
Persons (Universal, Regional, Religious and Traditional, etc.)	George, Fred, Steven, Brenda, Belinda, Robin, Femi, Chinedu, Seyi, Hamadu, Kola, Adeola, Jacob, James, John, Jude, Gabriel, Ismaila, Isaac, Akeem, Salaudeen, Abdulkareem, etc.
Animals	Goat, cat, lion, elephant, dog, fowl, gorilla, etc.
Places (Planets, Continents, Countries, States and State Capital, Tourist places, Rivers, Malls and Markets, Airports, Hotels and Sport centres, etc)	Earth, Mars, Pluto, Jupita, Africa, Europe, Asia, South America, North America, Nigeria, United States of America, Cameroon, Ghana, Japan, Argentina, Niger Republic, Jamaica, Edo, Ogun, Oyo, Lagos, Abuja, Yobe, Bayelsa, Delta, Alabama (USA), Washington (USA), Ikeja, Benin, Asaba, Onitsha, Jalingo, Port-Harcourt, Ibadan, Victoria Island, Ikorodu, Abeokuta, River Naija, Kanji Dam, Olumo-rock, Badagry Beach, Muritala Muhammed Airport, Lagos, Navina Hotel, M.K.O Abiola Stadium, Old Trafford, Teslim Balogun Stadium, etc.

Objects (Material, Tangible, intangible)	Pencil, eraser, board, Marker, radio, television, pot, stove, stick, stone, block, ice, air, oxygen, hydrogen, gas, news, etc.
Abstract Entities (Ideas, Situations, Conditions, etc.)	Wisdom, knowledge, understanding, skill, courage, hope, character, fear, solution, love, affection, freedom, unity, purpose, grace, joy, friendship, enmity, order, etc.
Institutions (Schools, hospitals, Media, Banks, Churches, Companies, industries, establishments Agencies and parastatals)	(at all Levels): University of Lagos, Ibadan Polytechnic, Community Secondary School, Agege, Aunty Temmy Memorial Primary School, Ajayi Hospital, Jobi Medical Centre, General Hospital, Lagos Television, Silverbird Television, Channels Television, Central Bank of Nigeria, Access Bank, Mountain of Fire, The Redeemed Christian Church of God, Liver Brothers, Sweet Sensation, Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC), the Nigerian Bar Association (NBA), Economic committee of West African States (ECOWAS), United Nations (UN), etc.
Theories and Concepts	Constitution, colonialism, socialism, parliament, legislature, executive, judiciary, democracy, etc.
Fields of Study	Sociology, Linguistics, Psychology, Mathematics, Physics, Biology, Geography, etc.
Job and Profession or Career	Teacher, banker, tailor, sailor, soldier, sociologist, geologist, scientist, physiotherapist, farmer, etc.
Positions of Authority and Rank	Principal, president, cashier, manager, minister, senator, governor, commissioner, administrator, officer, major, inspector, etc

Classes of Nouns

Nouns are classified into various groups. They include proper nouns, common nouns, collective nouns, abstract nouns, count nouns and non-count nouns. It is important to mention here that the classes of nouns have lists of specifications under them and can also be interlocking.

1. Proper Nouns

Proper nouns are otherwise concrete nouns. They are the particular or specific names given to certain groups of nouns such as persons, animals, places (all manner of places) institutions, subjects or fields of study, and the like. The basic word here is “particular”; when a noun has a particular or specific name of reference or attribution, that noun is a proper noun (see examples in the box above).

2. Common Nouns

Common nouns are wider in range than proper nouns. They are general names by which all entities are called. They are names that address nouns in general terms or perspectives. This implies that when common nouns are used, they do not refer to particular or specific persons or places or other descriptions of proper nouns. Examples are:

Common Names for Persons: Man, woman, boy, girl, father, mother, brother, sister, grandmother, grandfather, cousin, aunty, uncle, fiancée, husband, wife, brother-in-law, etc.

Common Names for Animals: Dog, goat, cat, monkey, gorilla, chameleon, deer, lion, tiger, sheep, lizard, etc.

Common Names of Professions: Banker, trader, engineer, welder, lecturer, driver, doctor, pharmacist, barrister, etc.

Common Names for Places: country, street, community, neighbourhood, continent, planet, world, market, school, church, hospital, shopping mall, hotel, etc.

3. Abstract Nouns

These are nouns that are intangible, i.e., they cannot be touched or held but are felt or expressed. They are noticed, identified or felt when demonstrated. They include ideas, situations or conditions, feelings, etc. (see examples in the table 1).

4. Collective Nouns

These are nouns that do not have plural forms; the plural forms are the same as the singular forms. The notion in the sentence environment determines the number implied in the word.

Examples:

Jury, panel, furniture, equipment, audience, choir, cattle, sheep, committee, etc.

We can further group nouns to count (countable) and non-count (uncountable) nouns.

Countable nouns are all forms of nouns that can be counted. They include several aspects of the nouns considered above. Their number is definite in counting.

Tab. 2. Examples of countable nouns

Man	Men
Stick	Sticks
Fruit	Fruits
Goat	Goats
Ox	Oxen
Lorry	Lorries
Tooth	Teeth, etc.

Uncountable Nouns

These are nouns that cannot be numbered; they cannot be comfortably or conveniently counted. These groups of nouns can only be quantified by adjectives of number.

Tab. 3 Example of uncountable nouns

Noun	Qualifying Adjectives
Water	A cup, two bottles, a tank full of, etc
Oil	A jar of, a bottle of, two gallons of, etc
Beans	A cup of, four bags of, etc
Sand	A heap of
Salt	A bag of, a pinch of, etc.

Environments Nouns Occur: Functions of Nouns

Nouns are found in the following environments.

Subject: The subject comes at the initial position of every sentence.

Examples

- i. The boy took a walk.
- ii. Shelley will be here tonight.
- iii. Knowledge is essential to life.

Appositive: The appositive is like a description of the subject. It occurs after the subject.

Examples:

- iv. Our landlord, Howard, needs his money quickly.
- v. James, the baker, made a nice cake.

Object: There are two forms of objects, the object received and the receiver of the action (object).

Examples:

- vi. She bought Oranges.
- vii. I gave Tobi a bag.

Note: sentence (ii) has two objects, the first one “Tobi” is the collector – receiver of the action “bag” which is the second object, and the action (object) collected or received.

Complement (of Subject or Object): The complement of the sentence tells us more about the subject or object.

Examples:

- viii. Lagos is a busy city.
- ix. Ola is our president.
- x. Tade appointed Bernard adviser.

Note: both *city* and *President* describe their respective subjects while *adviser* describes the object *James* in sentence (iii)

Verbs

Basically, a verb is one of the obligatory, i.e., compulsory classes of word that are needed to form a meaningful sentence in English. It is so because it is the verb that bears ‘sense’ or rather meaning in a sentence. Verbs generally point to the state of “having”, “being” or “doing” (action), which could be termed to be the aspects of verbs. Thus, we can define a verb as any

word that indicates having, being or doing something as well as action in a sentence. It is known as the predicative part of any sentence; this means that it is the verb in the sentence that gives the subject (Noun Phrase) meaning. See the simple chart description and examples below.

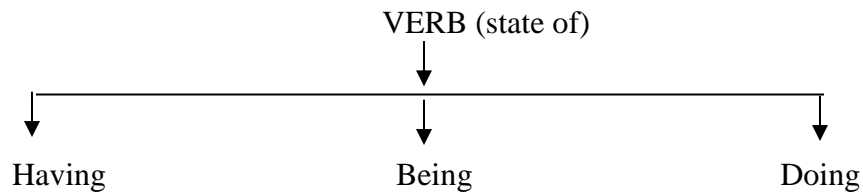


Fig. 1 Descriptions of verbs

The verbs grouped under “having” are known as the verbs “to have”; as said earlier, it shows a state of having something the verbs in this category include:

Has, have, having (progressive or present continuous form), had (past and perfect form)

Examples:

- xi. Deolu has a doll.
- xii. Tolu and Kemi have their rulers.
- xiii. Bello is having a party.
- xiv. The boy had a weapon.

The verbs grouped under “being” are known as the verbs “to be”; they show a state of being something the verbs in this category include am, is, are, were (past form), be, being (Progressive or Present Continuous form), been (past and perfect form)

Examples:

- xv. I am innocent.
- xvi. Seyi is my friend.
- xvii. Deji and Tobi are lazy.
- xviii. She is being nice.

The verbs grouped under “doing” are known to be the verbs “to do” or otherwise “action” or “doing” words; they show a state of doing something or performance of actions. The verbs in this category include:

Do, does, doing (present continuous or progressive form), did (Past form), done (perfect form), other actions such as, play, sing, eat, dance, jump, etc.

Examples:

- xix. Amos does his work.
- xx. The girls do their house chores.
- xxi. I did my assignments.
- xxii. Mariam plays table tennis.
- xxiii. Jim and Bridget sing in the choir.

Verbs can be used in two forms, as **finite or non-finite**. Relatively, these forms affect the structure of sentences, and the basis for agreement of the verb with the subject (noun phrase).

Finite Verbs

The basic word to define finite verbs is agreement. They are verbs that agree with the subjects in terms of the number and person case when they are used. They are closely tied to the subjects and respond to the subject, i.e., they respond to change in the subject; when the subject changes, the verb used will also change.

Examples:

- xxiv. Robin is my very good friend and I like him.
- xxv. Ken and Queen are brilliant; you know that.

If you observe closely, in sentence (xxiv), the verb, “is”, agrees with the singular subject “Robin” while the verb “like” agrees with the first-person singular subject “I”. Also, in sentence (xxv), “are” agrees with the plural subject “Ken and Queen” while “know” agrees with the second person singular/plural subject “you”. A change in the number of the subject and (or) person case will lead to change in the verb in a corresponding manner. See the illustrations below.

Examples:

- xxvi. Tolu loves his mother.
- xxvii. Tolu and Stella love their mother.
- xxviii. She eats bread every morning.
- xxix. They eat bread every morning.

Non-finite Verbs

Non-finite verb is a verb that cannot stand on its own without the support of an auxiliary. Examples are: the –ing form (e.g., going); the –ed participle (e.g. gone); the to-infinitive (e.g. to go) In each of the above cases, an auxiliary verb is needed to enable the verb to stand and produce a correct expression. For example, it is not correct to say ‘I going’ without the assistance of ‘am’ preceding the verb, going. In the same vein, the word, ‘done’ must be assisted with the auxiliary, ‘have’ in the sentence, ‘I have done it’. When the word, ‘to’ is followed by a verb (e.g., to go, to eat, to speak, etc.), it is known as the ‘to’ infinitive. The expression, ‘I want go’, for instance, is incorrect if the verb, ‘go’ is not preceded by ‘to’.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Transitive verbs are verbs that transfer actions to objects in sentences. The structure of a sentence that has a transitive verb is SVO(A); the object is obligatory in the completion of the sentence’ meaning. In other words, if the object is not included, the sentence will not express a complete thought.

Example:

xxx. The boy made a snare.

xxxi. Steve bought a house.

Looking closely at the two sentences above, the verb ‘made’ in (i) and ‘bought’ in (ii) transfer their actions to objects ‘a snare’ and ‘a house’ respectively. It also follows that the two objects make the sentences complete; if you remove ‘a snare’ from (i) and ‘a house’ from (ii) the sentences would be incomplete; try ‘the boy made...

The basic questions that succeed the transitive verbs are ‘what’ and ‘who’; these questions are answered by the objects following them.

Examples:

xxxii. Ade told a story

xxxiii. Mercy baked the cake.

xxxiv. Mr Francis flogged his son.

Note: Sentence (xxxv)) has the question ‘Ade told what’; sentence (xxxvi) has ‘Mercy baked what’ and sentence (xxxvii) has ‘Mr Francis flogged who?’

Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs do not necessarily transfer actions to objects in a sentence. Consequently, the inclusion of an object in the sentence is only optional not mandatory as in the case of the transitive verbs.

The subject put together with only the intransitive verb will make a sentence and express a complete thought.

Examples:

xxxv. Shelvey sleeps.

xxxvi. The woman rested.

Intransitive verbs transfer their actions to an adverb or complement in form of an adjective.

Examples:

xxxvii. Shelvey sleeps heavily.

xxxviii. The woman is pretty.

Note: sentence (i) is modified by the adverb ‘heavily’ while the verb in sentence two is complemented by the adjective ‘pretty’.

As said earlier, intransitive verbs can accept optional objects, although this only serves as reference of receiver or sufferer of action. It would have no effect on the completeness of such a sentence if removed or added. It therefore follows that the sentence would still make a complete sense.

Ade sings (songs of praise) always.

The girl reads (her books) well.

The enclosure of the objects in sentence (i) and (ii) in brackets simply indicates their optional status.

Types of Verbs

There are two types of verbs. They are: Auxiliary Verbs and Lexical Verbs.

Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are known as helping verbs. They assist other verbs acting as the main verb of the sentence which they appear.

Examples:

xxxix. Grace has called her mother.

xl. Dami is known as the chief in the play.

Note that there are two verbs in both sentences above. In sentence (xlii) ‘has’ is the auxiliary verb helping ‘called’ while in sentence (xliii) ‘is’ is the auxiliary verb assisting ‘known’.

If only one verb is in a sentence, irrespective of having the form of auxiliary verb, that verb shall be treated as a main verb.

Examples:

xli. The man has a good car.

xlii. Ade is my friend.

xliii. Dowson had Malaria.

There are two types of Auxiliary verbs. They are: Primary Auxiliary and modal Auxiliary Verbs.

Primary Auxiliary

Primary auxiliary are the main helping verbs. They are grouped under the verbs “to have”, “to be” and “to do”. Apparently, we have seen the forms of primary auxiliaries. But for the purpose of emphasis, let me identify and list them. There are three variations of the primary auxiliary verbs. They are: ‘to have’, ‘to be’ and ‘to do’.

Auxiliary verbs ‘to have’ are ‘has’, ‘have’, and ‘had’. ‘Has’ is used when a third person singular subject has been used, while “have” is used when a singular first-person subject has been used. ‘Have’ is also treated as plural when a third person plural, first person plural and second person subjects are involved.

Examples:

xliv. She has seen the lost pen.

- xlv. I have called my friend to come.
- xlvi. We have done the assignments.
- xlvii. They have written the test.
- xlviii. You have taken the mat.

On the other hand, ‘had’ is the past or perfect form of the previous two.

Examples:

- xlix. Tolu had eaten before we came.
- l. We had seen the papers before the examination.

Auxiliary verbs ‘to be’ are ‘is’, ‘am’, ‘are’, be, been, being, was, and were

Examples:

- li. Tom is stealing from my brother.
- lii. I am trained as a teacher good teacher of English.
- liii. They are meeting with all the students of Chrisland University.
- liv. Tolu will be made ready for the debate.
- lv. Modupe has been married for two years.
- lvi. James is being monitored by the counsellor.

Note that in sentence situations, “be”, must be pre-modified by a modal auxiliary verb, such as ‘will’, ‘would’, ‘should’, among others. On the other, ‘being’, can be pre-modified by simple precedent auxiliary verbs ‘is’, ‘are’, ‘am’ and their past variations ‘was’ and ‘were’ while ‘been’, can be pre-modified by precedent auxiliary ‘to have’ verbs ‘have’, ‘has’ and the past form ‘had’.

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Modal auxiliary verbs are otherwise known as conditional verbs. They are verbs that convey to us the conditional process, or simply put, the conditions that determined the performance on non-performance of actions. In another perspective, they are verbs that have as aspects of modality of actions.

Tab. 4. Conditions for Using Modal Verbs and functions

MODAL	CONDITIONS OF USE	EXAMPLES
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VERBS		
Might	Weak possibilities/uncertainty of occurrence	Tobi might have the chequebook.
May	Weak possibilities/uncertainty of occurrence	Sheley may attend the event.
Will/would	Possibility tied to conditional terms	I will pay the bill tomorrow. (<i>The condition is if I have the money</i>)
Must	Certainty of occurrence/No conditions attached	Patrick must write the letter of apology.
Shall	Certainty Of occurrence/No condition attached	We shall meet at eleven o'clock
Ought to/should	Responsible to perform/based on choice and ability to perform	Seun ought to play for us at the occasion. The girls should sweep the floor.
Can/could	Ability to perform	Hakeem can do the job faster than Olu.

Tense and Aspect

Tense is a significant property of the verb. It is a feature of the verb that indicates the time of an action, or the timing associated with a state of being. Tense can also be referred to as the verbal inflection that indicates timing in a sentence as the verb is usually the carrier or marker of tense. According to Crystal (2008:479), tense is defined as “a category used in the grammatical description of verbs (along with aspect and mood), referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place.” This implies that every action can be situated within a particular timeframe and the timeframe is usually indicated by the verb. Similarly, the auxiliary verb, BE, which indicates the state of being also has a way of indicating time. Thus, it can be WAS to indicate the past tense or IS to indicate the present tense.

According to DeCapua (2017:164), “aspect refers to how English indicates temporal features such as duration, frequency, and completion.” Duration deals with the length or how long an action is performed while frequency has to do with the constancy of an action. Completion focuses on whether the action is in progress or has been ended. Before aspect can be realised,

composite tenses must have been combined (ibid). This means that aspect is usually expressed by combination of tenses.

Types of Tenses

It must be born in mind that both tense and aspect often go hand in hand in English language. This is because there is no strict differentiation between both of them as the same sentence often ‘carries’ the information about them. Two major things expressed by aspect are **progressive** (continuous) and **perfective** ideas. Thus, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1982:164) submit that: “There are two different aspects in English: the progressive and the perfect.” In this wise, the progressive or continuous aspect denotes an action that is in progress or ongoing at a particular point, which may be present, past or future in nature. Before the continuous or progressive tense can be formed, there must be the following template: BE + –ING. The template is interpreted as having a form of BE plus the –ING form of the main verb. The examples below illustrate the continuous aspect:

- i. The Labour Union is getting a lot of attention these days.
- ii. Our market women were making more profits during the last administration.
- iii. Many more students will be coming to enroll for the programme tomorrow.

The perfective aspect denotes an action situated within the context of completion. This implies that the language user passes the message in a way that indicates that there is a connection between the starting time of the action and its ending time. According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1982:42), “The choice of perfective aspect is associated with time-orientation and consequently also with various time-indicators (lately, since, so far, etc.)” Before the perfective aspect can be realised or expressed, one of the three primary auxiliary verbs, i.e. **HAVE** (or any of its forms) must be used. The template for the perfective aspect is: **HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE** of the main verb. The perfective aspect, just like the progressive aspect, can be in the present, past or future tense. The following sentences indicate the perfective aspect in the present and past tenses:

- i. The Labour Union has attracted a lot of attention in recent times.
- ii. Our market women have made a lot of profits from their businesses.
- iii. Many more students had enrolled for the programme before we came back.

Basically, tenses are divided into three classes. These are the past, present and future tenses. While the past tense is used to express past actions in varying categories, the present tense is

used to express an action that is present in nature and the future tense describes an action that will be performed at a later time. Each of these tense types also has some subtypes, and these subtypes are related to aspect as we have discussed above.

The Present Tense

The present tense is a tense that expresses any action in the present time. It is divided into different subclasses. The subclasses are simple present tense, present continuous tense, present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense. Each of these subclasses will be expatiated upon with copious examples for easy understanding.

Simple present tense: The simple present tense performs different functions by expressing present actions or different states of being. When the simple present tense is used, different meanings may be derived by the user (speaker or writer). Uses of the simple present tense are as follows:

i. *To express habitual actions:* The simple present tense may be used to indicate actions that someone performs constantly or habitually. Examples of sentences containing this tense type include:

- (a) The children come to school every morning.
- (b) All our teachers teach with passion.
- (c) The boys play basketball each time they are free.

When an action expressed by the simple present tense is performed by a third person singular noun, the simple present tense takes an 's'. The following examples will suffice for explanation:

- (a) The child comes to school every morning.
- (b) Our English language teacher teaches with passion.
- (c) The boy plays basketball each time he is free.

ii. *To express universal truism:* A universal truism is a phenomenon that is true globally. Because such an expression is globally valid, the same thing is applicable wherever an expression indicating it is used. Examples of universal truism include the following:

- (a) Children need balanced diet to grow healthy.
- (b) The sun rises from the east.
- (c) The moon does not shine as bright as the sun.

iii. *To express future tense in news reporting:* When it comes to journalistic language, the simple present tense may be used to express future action. The action is usually presented as if it

is in the simple present tense but it denotes a future or anticipated occurrence, especially in headlines. Examples include the following:

(a) The president arrives Lagos tomorrow.

(b) A new refinery kicks off next year.

(c) Voting starts tomorrow.

iv. To express ability: There are times that the simple present tense is used to express ability to do something. The ability could be what the speaker/writer can do or what somebody else can do. In this case, the modal auxiliary 'can' is always excluded but intended. Examples include the following:

(a) Our leaders lead well.

(b) Ronaldo plays interesting football.

(c) The young dancer dances exceptionally well.

v. To conduct literary analysis and criticism: The simple present tense is also used to conduct literary analysis and literary criticism. The rationale behind the usage of simple present tense for this purpose is because literary works are considered ageless or timeless. Examples include the following:

(a) In Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, Claudius kills his brother in order to get to the throne. He also attempts to kill his brother's son, Hamlet but he is unsuccessful in doing that.

(b) In Achebe's *Things Fall Apart*, Okonkwo is one of the respected leaders of his community. A young boy called Ikemefuna is put in Okonkwo's care. Because of the boy's attitude, Okonkwo becomes really fond of him.

(c) In Soyinka's *Death and the King's Horseman*, Iyaloja is referred to as the mother or president of the marketplace. One day when she is at the market, Elesin comes around, boasts and says he is not scared of death because he is prepared for his fate.

vi. To describe instant actions: The simple present tense is also used to describe an instant action. According to Eastwood (1994, p. 84), the simple present tense is "also used to describe actions as they happen, for example in a commentary. Hacker passes the ball to Short. Short moves inside, but Burley wins it back for United."

Present continuous tense: The present continuous tense usually expresses the progressive aspect of the action described by the verb. It is in the present tense, but the tense indicates that

the action is taking place at the moment of utterance. There are some uses of the present continuous tense and some of them include the following:

i. To indicate that an action is going on at the moment of speech: Such an action may be in progress by the speaker or somebody else, e.g.

(a) I am giving you my words.

(b) The issues are getting attention already.

(c) Mayegun is dressing up.

ii. To indicate that two coordinated actions are going on at the same time: When two actions are being performed concurrently, the present continuous tense may be used. Examples include the following:

(a) I am teaching, and the student is learning.

(b) He is playing very well and scoring goals.

(c) We are getting your points, and we are writing them down.

iii. To indicate that two contradictory actions are going on at the same time: Examples include the following:

(a) I am teaching but the student is not learning.

(b) He is playing very well but is not scoring goals.

(c) We are getting ready, but we are not moving yet.

vii. To show future action: The present continuous tense may be used to describe an action that will take place at a future time. Consider the following examples:

(a) Our friends are coming next week.

(b) Ronaldo is playing the next match.

(c) I am performing very soon.

Present perfect tense: The present perfect tense “refers to an action or a state set wholly or partly in the past. But the important thing is that this action or state or its effects continue at the present moment” (Lawal, 2016, p. 50). Eastwood (1994, p. 86) submits that the present perfect tense “tells us about the past and about the present. We use it for an action in the period leading up to the present.” The present perfect tense expresses an action that starts in the past but has a connection with the present. Therefore, it links the present with the past in expressing an action. It is usually formed by the combination of HAVE + the Past Participle form of the main verb. Examples include the following:

- (a) Adewole has lived in big cities all his life.
- (b) The boys have completed their work.
- (c) Nobody has complained about the situation in the country.

Present perfect continuous tense: The present perfect continuous tense contains the elements of both the perfect and the continuous forms. This implies that it must contain **HAVE + BE + -ING** form of the main or lexical verb. It is often “used to express an action that began in the past but is not completed by the time of speaking” (Udoumeobi, 2014, p. 45). Examples include the following:

- (a) I have been waiting for this moment for two years.
- (b) Everybody has been playing their part effectively.
- (c) Everything has been going wrong with the security of the country.

The Past Tense

The past tense is used to express an action in the past, i.e., an action that occurred before the time of speech. Therefore, Crystal (2008, p. 354) perceives the past tense as “a tense form which refers to a time of action prior to the moment of utterance.” It doesn’t matter how close or far away the time of utterance is because the moment the action precedes the utterance; the past tense is expected to be used for it. In English language, “the marker of past tense in verbs is most frequently a suffix, -ed, on the verb stem: walk-s (present) vs. walk-ed (past)” (Malmkjær, 2010, p. 185). Therefore, regular verbs form their past tenses with the addition of the –ed suffix while irregular verbs form their past tenses in different ways depending on the type of verb it is.

As we have mentioned earlier that there a close connection between tense and aspect, the past tense will be explained here in different ways depending on its relationship with different aspects. The sentences below will be used to illustrate the different divisions of past actions before a discussion on each type will follow.

- i. The man travelled to Lagos yesterday.
- ii. Idris slaughtered the ram.
- iii. The man was travelling to Lagos when I saw him.
- iv. Idris was slaughtering the ram when we were praying.
- v. The man had travelled to Lagos before we arrived.
- vi. When the prayer started, Idris had slaughtered the ram.

- vii. The man had been travelling to Lagos before we were introduced to him.
- viii. Idris had been slaughtering rams before we ever moved to the village.

Before you read the next subsections that present our discourse on the various past tenses, attempt to explain the sequence of tenses used for the sentences above.

Simple past tense: The simple past tense is used to indicate any action that is performed in the past. It is usually formed without the addition of auxiliary verbs. It has the template **VERB + ED** participle. This implies that the main verb is suffixed with the ED participle or its equivalent when there is the use of an irregular verb. The simple past tense performs different functions listed and explained below:

To show an action that occurred in recent past: When an action occurred not long before the time of utterance, the simple past tense is used. Consider the following examples:

- i. The talented artist finished the job some minutes ago.
- ii. The senior student slapped my friend.
- iii. He spoke to me not quite long.

To express an action that occurred in distant past: When an action occurred long before the time of utterance, the simple past tense is used. This sentence may show the actual time the action was performed by using adverbial element(s). Consider the following examples:

- iv. The talented artist finished the job ten years ago.
- v. The senior student slapped my friend when we were in the secondary school.
- vi. He spoke to me about a decade ago.

To express popular action or event that occurred in the past: There are instances when the simple past tense is used to express popular actions in the past, i.e. actions that were known to many people and possibly places. Consider the following examples:

- vii. The whites colonised Africa for several years.
- viii. Many warriors fought intertribal wars.

To indicate habitual action or activity in the past: Just like the simple present tense is used to express habitual actions, the simple past tense is also used to express habitual actions in the past. This implies that the performer of the action no longer performs such action. Consider the following examples:

- ix. We always went to the library when we were in school.
- x. Drogba scored regularly in Chelsea Football Club.

- xi. The new teacher taught us from SSS 1 to SSS 3.

Past continuous tense: The past continuous tense is used to describe an action that was ongoing at a particular moment in the past. The action might have taken place for a short duration or for a long one. Functions of the past continuous tense, as submitted by Lawal (2016), etc. include the following:

To show that an action was going on for a particular time or period in the past: When the duration of an action in the past is mentioned in relation to the action, the past continuous tense is used. Examples include:

- i. He was busy taking instructions from his teacher throughout the week.
- ii. They were driving all night because of the traffic.
- iii. The man was writing everyday last year.

To express an action that was in progress sometime in the past before another one overtook it: When an action was going on in the past but was interrupted by another action, the past continuous tense is usually employed. Examples include the following:

- i. He was taking instructions from his teacher before the bell rang.
- ii. They were driving when the traffic light went off.
- iii. When the man was writing, the student badged into the class.

To indicate that two actions were in progress at the same time in the past: the past continuous tense is often used to show that two actions were taking place concurrently at a particular time in the past. Examples include the following:

- iv. He was taking instructions, and the teacher was praising him.
- v. They were driving but we were walking.
- vi. When the man was writing, the students were walking into the class.

Past perfect tense: According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1982), the past perfect tense expresses an action that has current relevance to a point in the past. Usually, the past perfect tense is used when two (or even more) actions have taken place in the past with one preceding the other but with both having a link. “We use the past perfect when we want to emphasize the fact that a particular event in the past was completed before a more recent past-time event took place” (Lester & Beason, 2019, p. 151)

The primary auxiliary verb **HAD** must be present before a past perfect tense can be expressed, and the other action is usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions like after, before, when, etc. The past perfect tense has the following template: **HAD + Past Participle**. The template means that a past participle form of the main verb must be attached to HAD. The clause that contains the primary auxiliary verb HAD is often considered as the first action to take place.

Consider the following pairs of sentences and how they form the past perfect tense:

- a. The professor shut the door. He later remembered he sent Obi Okwonko on an errand.
- b. Adesoro finished the food. Bayode later came in.
- c. The local farmers held the thieves. The police officers later arrived.
- d. The professor had shut the door before he remembered he sent Obi Okwonko on an errand.
- e. Adesoro had finished the food before Bayode came in.
- f. The local farmers had held the thieves when the police officers arrived.

The past perfect tense usually considers one of the clauses more important than the other, and the more important clause is the one that contains the auxiliary verb HAD. The importance is because the action comes first.

Past perfect continuous tense: The past perfect continuous tense combines the perfect and continuous aspects. It is often used to describe an action that was going on in the past before another action also in the past interrupted it. It is usually formed by having the primary auxiliary verb **HAD + BEEN + -ING**. Examples of sentences with the past perfect continuous tense include the following:

- i. The professor had been teaching for a long time before we got to the class.
- ii. Our goods sold better last year than they had been selling in the previous years.
- iii. Nobody knew exactly what he had been doing until somebody asked him.

The Future Tense

According to Downing (2015, p. 317), “English has no verbal inflection to mark a future tense. Instead, English makes use of a number of forms to refer to future events.” Similarly, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1982, p. 47) submits that “future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple present forms or progressive forms.” This

implies that English verbs do not have prefix or suffix to indicate futurity, but certain verb combinations are used to mark future events. “The traditional future tense is formed from the auxiliary verbs shall and will plus the verb stem (although many speakers do not use shall). That is, the traditional future tense is a syntactic construction, but the past and present tenses are single words. This grammatical difference should make us suspect that the ‘future tense’ is not a tense at all but has some other meaning” (Miller, 2002, p. 148). The future tense is used to describe an action that has not yet taken place but is scheduled to take place at a future time. Just as there are different types of present and past tenses, the future tense also has its subtypes, which will be discussed shortly.

Simple future tense: The simple future tense expresses future action in simple terms similar to what is obtainable in simple present and simple past tenses. The modal auxiliary verbs **WILL and SHALL** are usually combined with the base form of the lexical verb to form the simple future tense. It is used for the following reasons:

To express an action that will be performed at a specific time in the future, e.g.

- (a) I will see you on Saturday.
- (b) Our salary will come in next week.
- (c) We shall come at 12:00 noon.

To express an action that will be performed at an unspecified time in the future, e.g.

- (a) We shall come to check you later.
- (b) Our club will win the tournament again.
- (c) The meeting will hold another time.

Future perfect tense: This is used to describe an action that will be completed at a particular time in the future. It is formed by combining the modal auxiliary **SHALL/WILL** with the primary auxiliary **HAVE** and the past participle of the lexical verb, e.g.

- (a) I shall have completed my third degree by next year.
- (b) Our country will have moved out of recession by the middle of the year.
- (c) You will have finished the construction before the new session.

Future continuous tense: This tense type is used to show that an action will be in progress at a future time. The template **WILL + BE + -ING** form of the lexical verb is usually employed to express this tense type. Examples include the following:

- (a) The school will have been moving to its permanent site by this time next year.
- (b) I will be teaching throughout tomorrow.
- (c) Nobody will be giving you attention later.

Future past tense: The future past tense is used to express a future action considered from the perspective of the past. According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1982, p. 49), some future constructions “can be used in the past tense to express time which is in the future when seen from a viewpoint in the past.” Examples include:

- (a) She was going to give you a call.
- (b) I knew it would not take long before he would act right.
- (c) All of you were expecting us to show up tomorrow.

Adverbs

Adverbs are words that are used to modify verbs, precedent or subsequent adverbs or adjective in a sentence. The simple question is, “what does it mean to modify?” it means to describe the verbs, adjectives or adverbs in terms of when, how, why, among other conditions that are tied to the performance of actions. In other words, an adverb is used to answer basic questions posed by verbs (the performance of an actions), adverbs and adjectives.

Examples:

- liv.** He spoke nicely to the trader.
- lv.** They will arrive soon.
- lvi.** He ran fast to catch the bus.
- lvii.** He ran very quickly to meet the bus.
- lviii.** She is completely calm.

The Adverb “nicely” describes how he spoke. The adverb “soon” tells the time they would “arrive” The adverb “fast” modifies the verb “ran”, it tells how he ran. “Very” modifies the subsequent adverb “quickly” (it describes the intensity of the speed at which he ran), while

“quickly” modifies the verb “ran” stating how she ran to meet the bus. The adverb “completely” modifies the adjective “calm”; it describes the intensity of the level of calmness.

Note: Most adverbs that modify other adverbs and (or) adjectives show intensity and frequency.

From the above, you can also notice that there are two forms of adverbs, the regular adverbs that are derived by the suffix “-ly” and the irregular adverbs that are like independent root words. More examples include:

Regular Adverbs

Proudly, briskly, swiftly, awesomely, funnily, hopefully, carelessly, beautifully, humanely, etc.

Irregular Adverbs

Well, soon, sure, before, top, etc.

There are various functions of adverbs by description. They are adverbs of manner, reason, time, condition, purpose, degree, frequency and place. We shall be able to exemplify these fully under adverbial phrases and clauses; however, here are some, usually, used Adverbs.

Adverb of Place: This shows the location of the verb; it tells where the action lies. Common examples include Here, there, under, somewhere, outside, upstairs etc.

Adverb of Manner: They describe the processes of action, i.e., the way the action was done. Common examples include, quietly, privately, greatly, loudly, slowly, fast, carefully, etc.

Adverbs of Time: They identify or describe the time actions take place. Common examples include, Then, soon, tomorrow, today, now, early, yesterday, etc.

Adverbs of Frequency: They tell the regularity or frequency of actions. Common examples include, daily, often, seldom, usually, rarely, always, frequently, etc.

Adverbs of Condition: These are used to tell the conditions for the fulfilment or rejection of actions in statements. Examples are, if, when, etc.

Adverbs as Comparatives

Adverbs can also be used to compare between two or more actions just like adjectives, hence, they have comparative and superlative forms to show degree. But take note of the word ‘actions’ here; comparative adverbs only compare between or among ‘verbs’, i.e., actions while Adjectives compare between and among nouns.

Examples:

lix. Please, walk faster if you want to catch up with me.

lx. The student who reads fastest will finish first.

Note that the words, ‘more’ and ‘most’, ‘less’ and ‘least’ are used to show the degree of adverbs.

Examples:

lxi. She could eat more quickly to meet up with the appointment.

lxii. These flowers are the most beautifully arranged objects in the room.

lxiii. The average politician is less confidently positioned to win the election.

The adverbs ‘more’, ‘most’ and ‘less’ are used to modify the adverbs ‘quickly’, ‘beautifully’ and ‘confidently’ respectively in the sentences above.

Adverbs as Intensifiers

Adverbs can also be used to function as intensifiers, giving greater or lesser emphasis to the verbs adverbs or adjectives which are modified. Intensifiers, on their own, have three (3) different basic functions, which are: to emphasise, amplify, or down-tone.

Examples:

lxiv. I really don't believe his story.

lxv. He obviously took interest in spoiling the group's plan.

lxvi. She simply ignored my candid advice.

The adverb ‘really’ emphasises the act of not believing his story; the adverb ‘obviously’ emphasises the action or process of taking ‘interest’; while the adverb ‘simply’ is used to give emphasis to the verb ‘ignored’.

Examples of Amplifiers:

lxvii. The teacher absolutely rejected her late work.

lxviii. They wholeheartedly admit that we need to work fast

The adverb, ‘absolutely’, amplifies the level of rejection, while ‘wholeheartedly’ amplifies the verb, ‘admit’.

You need to look closely at the adverbs before you can identify their functions in these regards, either as ‘emphasisers’ or ‘amplifiers’. But note that amplifiers have definite implications.

Examples of Down-toners

lxix. I kind of like eating plantain with beans.

lxx. Olu sort of felt sad missing the debate competition.

The adverb ‘kind of’ plays down on the verb like, while ‘sort of’ plays down on the verb ‘felt’. This act of playing down on verbs makes their meanings a bit unsure

Hence: The function of down-toners, in the sentence, is just to play down on the intent of the verb; in other words, to give it a milder picture or outlook. However, this also has its own effect in communication.

Adverbs as Uninflected Ordinals

Adverbs can be used as uninflected ordinals in communicative texts to link points or ideas. Note that the use of first, second, third, fourth, fifth, etc. should be adopted rather than firstly, secondly, etc., in formal writings/communication. ‘Uninflected’ simply means that the suffix ‘-ly’ is not added. For instance, ordinals, above ‘secondly’ begin to look silly or nonsensical. Therefore, the uninflected form is preferred.

Examples:

lxxi. First, let us make effort to settle the matter.

lxxii. Second, I think we should put the proper machinery in place.

Adjectives

The key words in the description of adjectives are ‘to qualify’. Adjectives basically add value to the nouns in the sentence in the subject, object or compliment position. In other words, an adjective is a word that qualifies the noun in a sentence. Other descriptions of adjectives include:

As Helper of a Noun: An adjective helps the noun to generate the effects of beauty, value, number, among others. Sometimes, a noun may sound or seem ambiguous; the inclusion of an adjective clears the ambiguity.

Examples:

lxxiii. Give me oranges, please.

lxxiv. Give me two oranges, please.

In the sentences above, a closer look at the first makes it, though correct, unlimited in scope because the number is not mentioned; it’s like wanting all the oranges in the world. But the second sentence narrows it to ‘two’ and makes the noun clearer in scope.

As a Describer of the noun: Adjectives add value to the noun in descriptive outlook, giving it a clearer picture.

Examples:

lxxv. Only appeals are treated in the appeal Court.

lxxvi. I think I will attend the wedding ceremony later.

In the sentences above, ‘appeal’ describes the kind of court it is while ‘wedding’ describes the kind of ceremony.

Adjectives have degrees of descriptions when used to show comparison. These degrees are positive, comparative and superlative.

Examples:

lxxvii. Seyi’s orange is sweet.

lxxviii. Ade’s orange is sweeter.

lxxix. Hanna’s orange is the sweetest.

In the sentences above, the adjective “sweet” reflect the three degrees, ‘sweet’ is “positive”; ‘sweeter’ is comparative and ‘sweetest’ is “superlative”.

Types of Adjectives

A. Adjectives of Quality

These are the descriptive adjectives that tell the quality of the nouns or pronouns in sentences. Significant examples include, bold, great, sweet, wonderful, etc.

B. Adjectives of Quantity

These are numerical adjectives that are used to qualify the nouns in terms of number. Three types of quantity adjectives can be mentioned in this regard. They are, indefinite quantifiers or numerical adjectives such as some, many, all, a few, etc., ordinal quantifiers or numerical adjectives like first, second, fifth, eighth, etc., and cardinal quantifiers such as one, three, six, eight, ten, etc. Both ordinals and cardinals are specific numerical adjectives.

Note: Indefinite numerical adjectives can be distributive in nature. In this case, they attribute, divide or distribute values to different nouns, e.g., each, every, non, either, etc.

C. Demonstrative Adjectives

These are adjectives that point to the positions of nouns, they identify the particular noun that are being addressed.

Examples

lxxx. That orange is the best among all the fruits.

lxxx. I want to have this bag for Christmas.

lxxxii. I love these cars.

lxxxiii. Those buses look new.

D. Interrogative Adjectives

These adjectives pose indicative or relative questions about the particular nouns expressed.

Examples:

lxxxiv. Which book did you bring home?

lxxxv. What day are you getting married?

lxxxvi. Whose coat did you wear to the party?

E. Proper Adjectives

These are adjectives that take the form of nouns but are used to qualify or describe other nouns.

Examples:

lxxxvii. An American doctor performed the surgery.

lxxxviii. The Indian girl is marrying our Nigerian friend.

lxxxix. The European sailor enrolled in the Nigerian Navy.

F. Comparative Adjectives

Comparative adjectives, as mentioned above, are degree adjectives. This is because they have degrees of comparisons. They are used to compare variables of nouns. Comparative adjectives have regular forms and irregular forms.

Regular comparative adjectives are derived, using the comparative and superlative suffixes, ‘-er’ and ‘-est’ respectively.

Examples:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Bright	brighter	brightest
Rich	richer	richest
Big	bigger	biggest

Irregular comparative adjectives are of two forms which are: the one modified using the free morphemes – inflections or prefixes, ‘much’, ‘more’, in the comparative and “most” in the superlative.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
Brilliant	more brilliant	most brilliant
Honest	more honest	most honest

The second form is the one that has different forms in its comparative and superlative.

Examples

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Much	more	most
Bad	worse	worst
Good	better	best
Little	less	least

Note: there are cases where double comparative Adjectives would be used to qualify a noun. In this condition, the positive comparative adjective, “much” would be used to intensify the comparative form.

Examples:

- xc. Ade is much richer than Olu.
- xci. Tobi is much bigger now than last year.

The positive and comparative forms ‘much’ and ‘more’ can be combined and used to modify another comparative adjective in the same sentence.

Example:

- xcii. They are much more ready to complete the assignment now.
- xciii. Olu is much more responsible than his sister, Tola.

G. Derivative Adjectives

Adjectives can be products of morphological processes, involving derivatives. This implies that they can be derived from other classes of words like, nouns, verbs and adverbs. To achieve this, a list of inflections can be used which are stated above.

‘-iar’

- xciv. She told me a familiar story.
- xcv. James saw a peculiar book at the store.

‘-ed’

xcvi. He made it to the party with a bandaged leg.`

xcvii. John came to the class with boiled water.

‘-ing’

xcviii. Kola wore a smiling face at her birthday party.

xcix. Bimbo grew up in a caring environment.

“-ic”

c. He made a shambolic display at the cinema.

ci. She told the tragic story of her mother’s death.

‘-ish’

cii. He made a foolish mistake.

ciii. The selfish woman just lost all her friends.

‘-ible’

civ. That is an incorrigible story.

cv. Give me a plausible reason why you should be excused.

“-able”

cvi. He rented a comfortable apartment after his wedding.

cvii. My father bought an affordable car for me on my birthday.

‘-ive’

cviii. Her assertive behaviour is what most of her friends hate.

cix. She wore an expensive jewelry to the wedding.

‘-ly’

cx. Thomas only accommodates friendly tenants.

cxii. Ade is a godly person.

Grammatical Order of Adjectives

The beauty about Adjectives is that a list of them can be compounded to qualify just one noun. However, the structure of the adjectives must follow a specific order which is discussed below.

Examples given would contain entries from subsequent or previous groups to clearly put them in the right context of use.

1. Pre-modifiers: this is the limiter, i.e., it limits the scope of the determiners or articles. The adjective that serves as pre-modifier is:

Only

Sentence Examples:

Only Ade came to visit.

Only a bag was found in the store.

2. **Determiners:** These are made up of:

- a. Articles which are further classified into two, namely: indefinite article: “a”, “an” and definite article “the”
- b. Demonstrative Adjectives: “this”, “that”, “these”, “those”
- c. Possessive Adjectives: “my”, “mine”, “your”, “yours”, “her”, etc.
- d. Quantifier – Indefinite Numeral Adjectives: “all”, “many”, “any” etc.
- e. Distributive Adjectives “each”, “every”, “neither”, “either”
- f. Definite Numeral Adjectives: “one”, “five”, “sixty” “fourth”, etc.

Examples:

cxii. Only this blue shirt is suitable for the occasion.

cxiii. Only my mother attended the Parents’ and Teachers’ Meeting.

cxiv. Only these six oranges were recovered from the car after the accident.

When there is double or multiple use of determiners, which can occur in some instance, the definite numeral adjective will be placed last. The specific order will be: Indefinite Numeral Adjectives (succeeded by the preposition “for” in most cases) + Distributive Adjective + Possessive Adjective + Demonstrative Adjective + Definite Numeral Adjective.

Before exemplifying the above condition, it is important to note that not all these combinations or entries are fully utilised in all situations. Take for example, any group that has the distributive adjective can only accommodate the definite numeral adjective which would be succeeded by “of” and then, a possessive adjective if it is more elastic.

Examples:

cxv. Each one of my friends are rich.

cxvi. Only all men drive rugged cars.

Note: A definite or an indefinite article cannot accept subsequent determiners.

Examples:

cxvii. A nice girl always respects her seniors.

cxviii. The melodious blues lured her to sleep.

The possessive adjective can only accommodate the definite numeral adjective (determiner) after it.

Examples:

cxix. My two legs are fit enough to play the match.

cxx. Their six children travelled along with them to Canada.

Descriptive Adjectives – Observation Adjective: These adjectives describe the observation made of the quality of the noun described.

Examples:

cxxi. My two beautiful children are students of Brooks.

cxxii. The lovely pen belongs to the Governor’s wife.

Physical Descriptive Adjective (Epithets): These Adjectives show the physical characteristics or description of the nouns described. They are grouped into, size, age, shape and colour. There

is however possibility that all or most can be used together. When that happens, they would follow the specific order below.

a. Size – These Adjectives tell the sizes of nouns; they are used to qualify objects as well as living thing. They include height and weight of the nouns qualified, such as huge, little, bulky, thin, tiny, lean, etc.

Examples:

cxxiii. The gorgeous huge senator moved for amendment of the constitution.

cxxiv. Only this lovely little girl is free to leave the hall.

b. Age – These Adjectives tell the age of the noun described. Age also includes time and year such as young, old, new, teenage, elderly, youthful, mature, recent, bygone etc.

Examples:

cxxv. The beautiful little new bungalow.

cxxvi. The clever tiny young dog is turning wild.

c. Shape - These are adjectives that tell the shape or appearance of the noun described, such as circular, crooked, triangular, square, round, oval, wavy, straights etc.

Examples:

cxxvii. The beautiful little modern round bungalow belongs to Hillary.

cxxviii. Only the handsome tall, crooked boy escaped being punished.

d. Colour – These are adjectives that tell the shade and hue, i.e., colour of a noun. These Adjectives give picture representation in terms of colour of the noun qualified. It also includes complexion. Examples include Red, Blue, Metallic, Colourless, Translucent, fair, chocolate, dark, etc.

Examples:

cxxix. The beautiful square blue bungalow has been rented out.

cxxx. Only the handsome tall fair in complexion teacher knows how to persuade the students.

Proper Adjectives - Origin – These Adjectives show the places or geographical locations of the nouns qualified. They refer to the sources where the nouns are either made, developed or got. Examples include Southern, European, Lunar, Mexican, French, Nigerian, Cameroonian, Japanese, etc.

Examples:

cxl. The extravagant round gold Japanese statue was auctioned last week.

cxli. The gentle handsome slim fair Nigerian sailor is marrying a white lady.

Material Adjectives - These adjectives tell the raw material or particular material, texture, pattern or form of the nouns described as well as its behavioural pattern. Common examples wooden, plastic, rubber, metallic, iron, golden, etc.

Examples:

cxlii. The extravagant round gold Japanese clay statue was auctioned last week.

cxliii. My beautiful new brown Swizz sliver wristwatch has been stolen.

Nominal Qualifier-Adjectives – this is the last group of entry in the order of adjectives. This is a qualifying word, compound word or phrase. It appears in most cases as the extension of the material Adjectives. It takes the form of a nominal ‘ed’ ‘ing’ or ‘en’ verb, such as crafted, made, painted, muted, stolen, etc.

Example:

The extravagant round gold Japanese clay crafted statue was auctioned last week.

Pronouns

Pronoun is a very important class, especially because it has primary functions, which includes its ability to replace a noun, making it the head of the sentence. Consequently, one of the most notorious ways to describe pronouns is that they are used to replace nouns in sentences. But this is only just one out of many uses. Pronouns distribute agents, point to near or far entities, among others discussed below.

Examples of Replacive pronouns:

cxliv. Shola bought a new school bag.

cxlv. He bought a new school bag.

cxlvi. Ola took Seyi's place in the team.

cxlvii. He took her place in the team.

Notice the replacement of the noun in sentence (cxl), and the possessive adjective in (cxliii) are replaced with pronouns "he" and "her".

Another way to describe pronouns is that they bear reflection to the nouns performing the actions in sentences.

Examples:

cxlviii. Seyi wrote the letter of request himself.

cxlix. Kemi and Bola made the bags themselves.

cl. We rented the bus ourselves.

We can also say that pronouns are used to demonstrate and show possessions that belong to nouns.

Examples:

cli. His father is one of the newly elected senators.

clii. That is my book you are holding.

There are seven main types of pronouns; they are: Personal Pronouns, Possessive Pronouns, Demonstrative Pronouns, Reflexive Pronouns, Relative Pronouns, Indefinite Pronouns and Interrogative Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are mainly pronouns that are used to replace nouns in sentences. Personal pronouns are identified in terms of number (singular, plural) person (first, Second, third person), genitive (male, female) case (subject, object).

Personal pronouns table

Person/Case	Number	Subject case	Object Case
First Person	Singular	I	Me
	Plural	We	Us
Second Person (Masculine)	Singular	He	Him
Second Person (Feminine)	Singular	She	Her
	Plural	They	Them
Third Person	Singular	You	You

Examples:

- cliii.** He saw me as I scaled the huddle.
- cliv.** We asked them to appear before the panel.
- clv.** I advise you to bring along your passport.

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns are pronouns that are used to indicate possession or point to particular noun references. They are also identified in terms of number (singular, plural) person (first, Second, third person), genitive (male, female) case (subject, object).

Possessive Pronouns table:

Person/Case	Number	Subject case	Object Case
First Person	Singular	My	Mine
	Plural	Our	Ours
Second Person (Masculine)	Singular	His	His
Second Person (Feminine)	Singular	Her	Hers
	Plural	Their	Theirs
Third Person	Singular	Your	Yours

Examples

- clvi.** My mother has a nice car.
- clvii.** That book is mine.
- clviii.** Their brother tried to break their safe.
- clix.** I am finding it hard to identify which pen is yours.

Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are pointers; they point to the position of nouns in a sentence. Note that they are quite different from demonstrative adjectives. When used as pronouns, they point to the nouns in the object. They are of two forms identified in terms of number. The two forms of nouns near or far.

This (singular)

This indicates objects (nouns) that are near, within touching distance.

Examples:

- clx.** This is the car I hired.
- clxi.** That is Ade standing behind the tree.
- clxii.** These are the notes I found under the locker

clxiii. Those are all the money we got from the campaign

Note that 'These' and 'those' the plural forms of this and that.

Reflexive Pronouns

This is a pronoun that bears reflection to the subject that performed the action in the sentence. It reinforces the position of the subject in the performance of the action but puts it in the object case.

Examples:

clxiv. Seyi dove herself to the hospital.

clxv. I made the cake for the occasion myself.

clxvi. They carried their colleague to the hospital themselves.

Note: Reflexive Pronouns must reflect the person case, number and gender of the nouns.

Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to point to relative actions performed by, or that describe the nouns expressed better. Relative pronouns include who, that, which, whose, whom.

Examples:

clxvii. The man who we saw is the architect.

clxviii. The lady whose car was stolen reported to the police.

Conclusion

It is always as good as communication itself to be able to identify the class words that are used to communicate belong to. The class of words determines the function a word is used to perform in a sentence. In some cases, appearance can be deceiving because some words belonging to one group could be used to function in another group, such as man, in *the man is here* (noun), and *man the door against invaders* (verb).

Practice Questions

Exercise 1

Identify the class of the underlined words in the sentences below.

1. Kazeem's American friends are here to support him.
2. The nation is moving fast into recession.
3. Olu's ring is the finest among the three.
4. They called him with respect to their need.
5. Only the invited applicants should attend the interview.
6. Joseph's prediction about Egypt invited Pharaoh's attention.
7. Only when you sing do you get satisfied.
8. She was satisfied after eating only a plate of pounded yam.
9. The name on the door is appealing to look at.
10. The hope to survive is what they hope for.

Exercise 2

Identify if the main verbs in the following sentences are transitive or intransitive.

1. He gave me a bowl of rice.
2. Seyi sang well yesterday.
3. The teacher administered the test in the absence of many students.
4. They have arranged to betray their brother.
5. I wish to apply for the post of General Manager.

Identify if the main verbs in the following sentences are finite or non-finite.

6. I pray every morning for God's protection.
7. They called their fiends to the party too.
8. She sings exceptionally well.
9. They had invited their friends to feast with them.
10. They are to bring their laptops for inspection.

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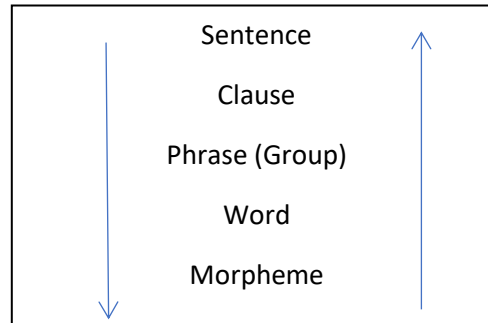
CHAPTER 4

PHRASES AND CLAUSES: TYPES, STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS

Akin Tella

Introduction

The grammar of any language comprises some units. The grammatical units include morpheme, word, phrase (group), clause and sentence. These grammatical units are hierarchically related in the diagram below. This diagram is technically known as a rankscale:



There are two ways of examining the rankscale: top-down and bottom-up. Whichever way one looks at it, the subsisting “constituency of” relationship among the grammatical units becomes evident. Examined using the top-down approach, one notices that each unit above is constituted by the unit below. As an example, a sentence can be broken down into clauses, clauses can be divided into their constituting phrases. If one utilises the bottom-up view, some of the units below combine to form the ones above. Morphemes are put together to form words; words combine to form phrases and phrases are conjoined to form clauses. In the previous chapters, you have learnt about morpheme and word as grammatical units. Here, we will focus on phrases and clauses.

Phrase/Group

A phrase is also known as a ‘group’. A phrase is a group of related words that is without a subject and a finite verb. It also does not make a complete sense. The first notable characteristic of a phrase is that it is made up of a group of words. This means that a single word cannot be a phrase. This is the acceptable standard in basic grammar. Secondly, the group of words must be without a subject. Could you recollect your earlier discussion on functions of nouns and pronouns? One of the functions you discussed was that a noun/pronoun can serve as the subject

of the verb in a sentence. A noun/pronoun is said to be working as the subject of a verb when it denotes the performer of the action which the verb expresses, or it is entity which state is denoted by the verb.

What is called a phrase must not have a noun/pronoun serving as the subject of a verb. Thirdly, a phrase should not be with a finite verb. You remember what a finite verb is? It is one of the types of verbs you had earlier discussed. While a finite verb agrees with the subject in number, person, case and gender, a non-finite verb does not. Let us use one of the characteristics of the finite verb to differentiate it from the non-finite verb. A finite verb agrees with subject in number. Hence, the number of the subject determines the number of the verb too. Take a look at the examples below:

1. Ikechukwu **loves** the game.
2. Ikechukwu and Lade **love** the game.

In the first example, the verb is singular because the subject is singular. In the second one, the verb changes from 'loves' to 'love' because the number of the subject has become plural. This shows that 'love' is a finite verb as it changes to indicate agreement with subject in number. Examples of non-finite verbs, which constitute the opposites of finite verbs, are infinitives (e.g. to talk), *-ing* participle (e.g. talking) and past participles (talked, spoken). Finally, a phrase does not communicate any complete meaning.

In terms of components, a phrase is made up of a **head** and its **satellites**. The head of a phrase is the most central word in it. It is also its only compulsory element. This means that there cannot be a phrase without its head. Apart from the fact that every phrase must have a head, the head of a phrase must be of the same type as the phrase. This means that the head of a noun phrase must be a noun, not a verb or an adjective. Satellites are optional elements in the structure of noun phrases. There are two major types of satellites: modifiers and qualifiers. The modifiers, which are also tagged pre-modifiers, occur before the heads but the qualifiers (otherwise known as post-modifiers) come after the heads.

Types of Phrases

Remember that every phrase must have a head of its type. It is this same principle that governs the naming of phrase types. Every phrase type is named according to the category of the word which constitutes its head. Using this criterion, there are eight types of phrases: noun phrase, gerundive phrase, infinitival phrase, adjectival phrase, participial phrase, verb phrase, adverbial

phrase and prepositional phrase. In the subsections below, we will consider each of these in terms of their structures and functions.

A. Noun Phrase

Every noun phrase is headed by a noun. This means there must be a noun in every noun phrase.

The following are examples of noun phrases. Could you underline the heads in them?

3. The man
4. The man who slaughtered the goat
5. The man in the kitchen
6. The man who slaughtered the goat in the kitchen

In each of these sentences, who/what are we discussing? The ‘man’? the ‘goat’? or the ‘kitchen’? It is the ‘man’. So, the head of all the phrases above is the common noun, ‘man’. The head of a noun phrase may have modifiers which occur before it. In all the noun phrases above, the modifier is the definite article, ‘the’. It is not only the definite article that can serve as modifiers; different determiners and adjectives can function as modifiers in noun phrases. The table below fairly captures the range of grammatical items that can work as modifiers in a noun phrase:

S/N	Categories of Modifier	Definition/Note	Example
A	Predeterminers	Predeterminers occur before central determiners. Predeterminers are mostly mutually exclusive. This means that not more than a member of this class can be used in a single noun phrase.	
	i. General Predeterminers		all, both, half etc.
	ii. Phrasal Determiners		the rest of, all of, a part of, a list of, a number of, the number of, all of, both of, each of, one of, some of, many of, much of etc.
	iii. Multipliers		double, twice, thrice, three times etc.
	iv. Fractions		one-third, one-fifth, two-third etc.
	v. Others		such, what
B	Central Determiners	These occur after predeterminers and before postdeterminers. They	
	i. Articles		

	a. Definite Article	are also mutually exclusive. You remember what this means, no noun phrase should contain more than one central determiner.	The
	b. Indefinite Article		a, an
	ii. Demonstratives		this, that, these, those
	iii. Possessives		my, our, your, his, her, its, their
C	Postdeterminers	i. These come after the central determiners but precede attributive adjectives. Unlike the predeterminers and central determiners, the postdeterminers are not entirely mutually exclusive. ii. Ordinals always precede cardinals.	
	i. Numerals		
	a. Ordinals		first, second, third, fourth etc.
	b. Cardinals		one, two, three, four etc.
	c. Quantifiers		many, few, a few, little, a little, fewer, fewest, less, least, much etc.
D	Adjectives	An adjective qualifies a noun or pronoun. The adjectives are not mutually exclusive.	
	i. Opinion		amazing, boring, unbelievable, ugly, faithful, beautiful
	ii. Size		<i>big, small, short, tall, large, diminutive</i>
	iii. Shape		round, <i>square, flat, conical, rectangular, cylindrical</i>
	iv. Condition		<i>cold, dirty, lumpy</i>
	v. Age		<i>old, new, young, modern, archaic</i>
	vi. Colour		red, blue, yellow, brown, white
	vii. Origin		Italian, Nigerian, Indian, American, Canadian
	viii. Material		rubber, leather, plastic, metal, wooden
	ix. Purpose		<i>cooking, boxing, sleeping,</i>

			reading
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The table above has presented a general list of modifiers in a noun phrase. You can only use a predeterminer, and not two, in a phrase. Also, only one central determiner can be used in a noun phrase. When both ordinals and cardinals are used together, ordinals always precede cardinals. The different types of adjectives can be combined to premodify a noun. However, they must be ordered as presented in the table above.

Qualifiers or postmodifiers occur after heads. You remember that the head of a noun phrase must be a noun? Qualifiers tell us more about heads; they state the location, purpose and other attributes of the head. There are several items that can function as qualifiers in a noun phrase. They include uninflected adverbs, emphatic pronouns, prepositional phrases, infinitival phrases, gerunds, gerundive phrases, adjectival clauses and noun clauses. Each of these is exemplified below with an example. The underlined structures are noun phrases, and the italicised expressions are the qualifiers in the noun phrases.

7. The lady *there* is the bride. ('there' is an uninflected adverb stating the location of 'lady')
8. The form was signed by the manager *himself*. ('himself' is an emphatic pronoun emphasizing 'manager' as the one who signed a document)
9. The bride is the lady *in the car*. ('in the car' is a prepositional phrase qualifying 'lady')
10. The document *to sign* has been placed on your table. ('to sign' is an infinitival phrase acting as a qualifier of the head, 'document')
11. The chorister *singing* was coached by Mr Bako. ('singing' is a gerund that qualifies 'chorister')
12. Mr Bako coached the chorister *singing in the garden*. ('singing in the garden' is a gerundive phrase that qualifies 'chorister')
13. I love the car *which was parked at the entrance* (the italicised expression is an adjectival clause that qualifies 'car')

14. The fact *that you own the shop* has been established. (the italicised structure is a noun clause that is qualifying the head, ‘fact’)

15. Prof. Chima Oguibe, *the vice chancellor*, just left here. (‘the vice chancellor’ is a noun phrase which qualifies the noun being described, ‘Prof. Chima Oguibe’)

Having discussed what can act as modifiers and qualifiers in noun phrases, let us now turn to the functions that noun phrases can perform in sentences.

a. Subject of a verb: A noun phrase functions as the subject of a verb when it is either the performer of the action expressed by the verb, or it is the entity about which something is stated by the verb.

16. The girl has bought a new car.

17. The young man is my mentee.

In (16), ‘the girl’ is the subject who has performed the action of ‘buying a car’. In (17), ‘the young man’ is the subject about whom something is said. What is stated about the ‘the young man’ is that he is ‘my mentee’.

b. Subject complement: When a noun phrase functions as subject complement, it tells us more about another noun, noun phrase, pronoun or noun clause that is serving as the subject of a verb.

18. Sola is a teacher.

19. The man is a nurse.

20. They are trained receptionists.

21. What I want is the new file.

You will notice that all the underlined expressions define or identify the nouns serving as subjects. As an example, in (21), the subject is the noun clause, ‘what I want’. The underlined expression, ‘the new file’, is the subject complement. Subject complements usually follow linking/copula verbs like ‘am’, ‘is’, ‘are’, ‘was’ and ‘were’. Finally, both a subject and its complement refer to the same entity. In (17), the same person who is ‘Sola’ is also the ‘teacher’.

c. Object of the verb: A noun phrase serving as the object of the verb receives the action which the subject performs. There are two main types of objects: direct and indirect. A direct object receives the effect of the action directly but the indirect one does indirectly.

22. Ola killed the goat.

23. Ola gave Shade *the book*.

In (22), ‘the goat’ is the direct object which died because Ola killed it. In (23), there are two objects; ‘the book’ is the direct object as it is more related to the verb, ‘gave’. It was the book that was given out. ‘Shade’ is the indirect object as she was the one given the book and not what was given out.

d. Object complement: A noun phrase acting as an object complement tells us more about another noun serving as an object of a verb. It occurs immediately after the object it complements.

24. The Council elected *him* the director.

25. They made *Ola* the class representative.

In (24), ‘him’ is the direct object and ‘the director’ is its complement. In (25), ‘Ola’ is the object and ‘the class representative’ is its complement. Both the object and the object complement refer to the same person; ‘Ola’ is ‘the class representative’ and ‘the class representative’ is ‘Ola’.

e. Complement of a preposition: When a noun phrase functions as the complement of a preposition, it completes a preposition. Such a noun phrase may also be referred to as the indirect object of the preposition. Simply put, it occurs immediately after a preposition.

26. He placed the plate *in* the kitchen.

27. Mrs Williams bought a car *for* the handsome young man.

28. Chief James has been holding a post *in* the council.

In the examples above, the italicised words are the prepositions; the underlined expressions are the noun phrases functioning as complements of the prepositions.

f. Appositive element: When a noun phrase functions as an appositive element to a noun, both the noun phrase and the noun share two things. The first is that the two of them share a sentence function that any of them can undertake. The second is that both of them are identical in reference. Let us illustrate these points with the example below:

29. Mr Komolafe, the headmaster, came late to the meeting.

In this example, ‘the headmaster’ is the noun phrase standing in apposition to the noun, ‘Mr Komolafe’. If one of them is deleted, the other can function conveniently as the subject. Hence, either ‘Mr Komolafe came to the meeting’ or ‘The headmaster came to the meeting’ will be correct. Both ‘Mr Komolafe’ and ‘The headmaster’ can function as the subject of the verb: ‘came’. In addition, both are identical in reference since they refer to the same entity in the outside world.

There are two major types of apposition: non-restrictive and restrictive. The non-restrictive apposition refers to instances in which the appositive element gives additional information about the noun to which it stands in apposition. In the case of the non-restrictive apposition, the appositive element is separated from the sentence by a pair of commas. The commas indicate that the non-restrictive appositive element give parenthetical information; they are not essential modifiers. The following are underlined examples of noun phrases serving as non-restrictive appositive elements:

30. Mount Everest, the tallest mountain in the globe, is a tourist site.

31. Obaro Ighalo, my old teacher, just entered the room.

For the restrictive apposition, the appositive element is an essential modifier. This means that it is required to define the identity of the noun which precedes it. The restrictive appositive element is distinguishable from the non-restrictive one in a sense: the restrictive appositive element is not separated from the rest of the sentence by any pair of commas. In the sentences below, the underlined structures are noun phrases functioning as restrictive appositive elements:

32. Olanna Ikechukwu his old friend came to the party.

33. Mr Jones the lawyer arrived at the court earlier today.

B. Gerundive Phrase

Do you know why we are discussing the gerundive phrase after the noun phrase? It is because the two are functionally related. This means that both of them perform some common grammatical functions. We will now turn to discussing the structure of a gerundive phrase. The head of a gerundive phrase must be a gerund. A gerund is a verbal noun. This means it is a verb in the present progressive tense (-ing verb) which functions as a noun in a sentence. Consider the underlined expressions in the sentences below:

34. Learning is a fruitful experience.

35. I am learning a new song.

In the first example, 'learning' is used as a gerund. But in the second example, it is NOT. It is used as a verb. How do you differentiate between the use of an -ing verb as a gerund and as verb? When it is used as gerund, it can be replaced by a pronoun since a pronoun can represent any structure that is nominal in function. Hence, in (34), 'learning' can be replaced by 'it'. But this is not possible in (35). "I am 'it' a new song" is grammatically incorrect. Just like a gerund, a gerundive phrase can be replaced by the pronoun, 'it'. The gerundive phrase also shares the

same range of modifiers and qualifiers with noun phrases. Remember that gerundive phrase share most of its grammatical functions with the noun phrase. Gerundive phrases can serve as the subjects of verbs, objects of verbs and appositive elements to nouns. These are exemplified below:

a. Subject of a verb

36. His singing in the bathroom attracted the neighbours.

37. The writing on the wall could not be deciphered.

38. Eating the food which I left in the fridge was most unfair.

Let us discuss the (38). The head of the gerundive phrase is the gerund, 'eating'. There is no modifier before it. 'the food' is its complement but 'the food' itself is being qualified by the adjectival clause, 'which I left in the fridge'. The whole underlined expression functions as the subject of the verb, 'was'.

b. Object of a verb

39. I love dancing in the rain.

40. We totally condemn giving bribes to policemen.

41. I believe in their managing our meagre resources.

In (41), the gerund which is the headword is 'managing'. The possessive determiner, 'their', is the modifier and the noun phrase, 'our meagre resources', is the complement.

c. Appositive element to a noun

42. That character, coming late to the assembly, has to stop.

43. Our decision, recording all conversations, still stands.

44. Your weakness, dominating others, has to be worked on.

In (43), the underlined expression is a gerundive phrase. The head is 'recording'; 'all conversations' is the qualifier. The gerundive phrase stands in apposition to the preceding noun phrase: 'Our decision'.

C. Infinitival Phrase

The head of an infinitival phrase is the to-infinitive (e.g. *to sing, to eat, to go*). The to-infinitive is made up of 'to' and the base form of a verb. The to-infinitive is rarely modified but it may be qualified by a noun phrase, an adjective, an adverb or another infinitive. These are illustrated

with the following examples. The underlined expressions are the infinitival phrases; the italicised parts are the qualifiers.

45. To seek *your consent* is my intention. (noun phrase as qualifier)

46. I like to be *serious*. (adjective as qualifier)

47. This is a dream to actualise *immediately*. (adverb as qualifier)

48. To plan *to fail* is unusual. (another to-infinitive as qualifier)

Functionally, an infinitival phrase is both related to noun and adjective. Just as a noun, it can function as the subject of a verb, subject complement and object of a verb. When it functions as a noun, it can be replaced by the non-human personal pronoun, 'it'. Also, it can qualify a noun like an adjective. Each of these functions are exemplified below:

a. Subject of a verb

49. To alter the constitution is dubious.

50. To diligently serve my country is the priority.

51. To fail to plan breeds poverty.

In Example (49), the to-infinitive which heads the infinitival phrase is 'to alter'. 'the constitution' is the noun phrase which completes it. The infinitival phrase serves as the subject of the verb, 'is', as it is what is being given the attribute, 'dubious.'

b. Object of a verb

52. She likes to eat early.

53. Ade tries to clean the car.

54. The villagers want to be fair.

In (52), what 'she' likes is 'to eat early'. It is object of the desiderative verb, 'like'. In (53), what 'Ade tries' is 'to clean the car'. In (54), what the 'villagers' desire is 'to be fair'.

c. Complement of a subject

55. *Our agenda* is to pass the bill.

56. *The committee's intention* is to discuss the matter.

57. *The president's plan* is to recruit more soldiers.

In the three examples above, the underlined infinitival phrases refer backwardly to the italicised subjects. They state the contents of the subjects or describe them. This is why they are called

complements of the subjects. In (55), the ‘agenda’ is ‘to pass the bill’; in (56), the ‘committee’s intention’ is equal to ‘to discuss the matter’; in (57), ‘the president’s plan’ is the same as ‘to recruit more soldiers’.

d. Adjectival function

58. Chief Abiola is a *man* to remember.

59. This is a *woman* to cherish.

60. Adeola is a *student* to encourage.

In these examples, the underlined expressions are infinitival phrases serving as adjectives. They define the nouns after which they occur. In (58), what kind of a man is ‘Chief Abiola’?. He is a man ‘to remember’.

e. Adverbial function

61. Kolade *went out* in the rain to find Funmilola.

62. They *stood up* to greet him.

63. Aisha *is playing* football to lose weight.

In the examples under (e), the identified infinitival phrases perform adverbial functions as they qualify the italicised verbs. They give the reason for undertaking the actions that the italicised verbs express. As an example, in (63), ‘Aisha’ wants ‘to lose weight’; it is her reason for ‘playing’ football.

D. Adjectival Phrase

The structure of an adjectival phrase comprises an adjective as the head. The adjective may be preceded by a modifier. The most notable modifiers in the structure of an adjectival phrase are the intensifiers. They are a class of adverbs used for heightening or attenuating the meanings of the adjectives they modify. Intensifiers belong to two major classes: amplifiers and downtoners. While the amplifiers heighten meanings of adjectives, downtoners scale down the meaning of the adjectives they precede. Some examples of amplifiers are *very, too, so, extremely, really, strikingly, highly, amazingly, largely, absolutely, much, more* etc. Some examples of downtoners are *almost, a bit, somewhat, a little, barely, fairly, hardly, mildly, fairly, nearly, quite, rather, relatively* etc. What is the function that an adjectival phrase performs? Just like an

adjective, it modifies a noun/pronoun, noun phrase or noun clause by describing it in terms of its attributes or defining it. The following are examples of adjectival phrases:

64. Dr Solomon is quite intelligent.

65. Chief Adebo was highly influential.

66. These students are absolutely wonderful.

67. Alhaji Usman is very wealthy.

Let us discuss two of the examples. In (64), the adjectival phrase comprises of the adjective, ‘intelligent’ and the intensifier, ‘quite’. Example (65) has ‘influential’ as adjective and ‘highly’ as its intensifier.

E. Participial Phrase

Remember that a phrase must have a head of its type. Hence, the head of a participial phrase is a participle. What is a participle? It is the present or past participle form of a verb that is used as adjectives in sentences. A verb has two participle forms: present and past. The present participle ends with the suffix, -ing. The past participle, not the simple past tense, varies in form. Some are same as the simple past forms. These are called regular verbs. Some are not and they are tagged as irregular verbs. Let us take some examples. The past participle form of ‘break’ is ‘broken’ but its simple past form is ‘broke’. The past participle form of ‘talk’ is ‘talked’ and its simple past tense is also ‘talked’. Look at two instances of participles below:

68. The singing bird flew away.

69. The broken bottle injured her.

In (68), ‘singing’ modifies the noun, ‘bird’. In (69), ‘broken’ modifies ‘bottle’. Can you see how they function as adjectives? Do not confuse gerunds and participles ending with –ing. Gerunds work as nouns but participles function as adjectives.

Now that you know what a participle is, we can proceed to describing a participial phrase. A participial phrase is headed by a participle. The participle may be modified by an inflected adverb and completed by a range of items. Some of the possible complements are preposition, prepositional phrase, noun phrase and infinitival phrase. In some instances, a number of these items are compounded to serve as complements. The examples below illustrate these:

70. Beaten after a long trial, *the man* collapsed. (‘beaten’ is the participle; the prepositional phrase, ‘after a long trial’, is the complement)

71. Dejected by the election result, *he* left the country. ('dejected' is the participle; the prepositional phrase, 'by the election result', is the complement)

72. Forced to act rationally, *he* apologised to the assembly. ('forced' is the participle; the infinitival phrase, 'to act rationally', is the complement)

73. *She*, stooping low, begged all concerned. ('stooping' is the participle; the adjective, 'low', is the complement)

74. Angered and dejected, *Halima* left the courtroom. ('angered and dejected' are two participles that are conjoined; they take no complement here)

In terms of positioning, a participial phrase comes immediately before or after the noun/pronoun it modifies. If it is used at the beginning of a sentence, it is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma and it qualifies the subject of the following clause. If it is used after the subject, it is separated from the subject and the rest of the sentence by a pair of commas. In all the examples above, the nouns and pronouns that the participial phrases modify or qualify are italicised. How come a participial phrase modifies a noun/pronoun? Remember that we stated earlier that a participial phrase functions as an adjective. Since adjectives modify or qualify nouns, participial phrases also do. In (70), the participial phrase, 'beaten after a long trial', modifies the noun phrase, 'the man' because it was 'the man' who had been beaten after a long trial. In (71), the participial phrase - 'dejected by the election result'- modifies the pronoun, 'he', because it was 'he' that had become dejected because of the election result.

F. Verbal Phrase

The head of a verb phrase must be a main or lexical verb. A lexical verb expresses the action a noun performs or gives its state. The underlined items in the sentences below are lexical/main verbs:

75. Ola has been *reading* the book.

76. Susan does *know* her uncle.

Ola does the action of 'reading' and an aspect of Susan's knowledge is stated. Though the entire underlined expressions are verb phrases, the lexical/main verbs are in italics. Both 'reading' and 'know' are examples of lexical verbs. However, a verb phrase is not constituted by only a main verb. The main verb may be preceded by auxiliary verbs. Recollect that there are two major classes of auxiliary verbs: modal and primary auxiliary verbs. Some examples of modals are

can, could, shall, should, may, might, will, would, dare to, used to, ought to. The primary auxiliary verbs include *be, am, is, was, are, were, being, been, has, have, had, do, does, did.* These auxiliary verbs may be combined. In (75) above, ‘reading’ is preceded by two other auxiliaries: ‘has’ and ‘been’. In (76), ‘do’ occurs before the main verb, ‘know’.

Some more complex verb phrases have some other elements. The negators - ‘not’ or ‘never’- may succeed the auxiliary verbs or be between the auxiliaries. The examples below indicate this. The whole verb phrases are underlined but the negators are italicised:

77. I would *never* have written it.
78. Ogbonaya could *not* have been reading then.
79. The man will *not* sign the memorandum this week.

Verb phrases are different from phrasal verbs. A phrasal verb is made up of a verb and its particle. The particle may be a following adverb or preposition. Most phrasal verbs operate as single idiomatic units. This means that the meanings of both the verb and its particle are combined. Evidence of this is seen in the fact that phrasal verbs can be expressed by other single unmodified verbs as seen below. The single verbs are italicised and put in parentheses.

80. The peace talk has totally broken down (*collapsed*)
81. I will call on (*visit*) you tomorrow.
82. The principal will look into (*examine*) the matter.
83. Kudus will put on (*wear*) his new shirt.

G. Adverbial Phrase

The head of an adverbial phrase is an adverb. Some examples of adverbs are *now, then, there, here* and *often*. These ones are called uninflected adverbs because they are originally adverbs; they do not become adverbs through the addition of any suffixes to other words. But there are uninflected adverbs too. To form most uninflected adverbs, one adds adverb-forming suffixes like ‘-ly’, to adjectives to form the adverbs. For instance, ‘-ly’ is added to the adjective, ‘rare’, to form the adverb, ‘rarely’. Though an adverb is the head of an adverbial phrase, it is not the only element in the structure of an adverbial phrase. The adverb may be preceded by a modifier. A class of adverbs called intensifiers can function as modifiers of the adverb which is the head. The modifiers are optional elements (see a fairly comprehensive list of intensifiers in our

discussion of the adjectival phrase). In addition, the intensifier serving as the modifier of an adverb can itself be modified by another intensifier. Here is an example:

84. He drove the car rather unbelievably speedily.

In (84), the adverb heading the underlined adverbial phrase is ‘speedily’; its modifier is the intensifier, ‘unbelievably’ and ‘unbelievably’ itself is modified by another intensifier: ‘rather’.

The adverb serving as the head may also be qualified by another adverb as in the following examples:

85. The waitress attended to us very quickly indeed.

86. The sprinter won the race easily enough.

In (85), the head, ‘quickly’ and ‘easily’, are qualified by the adverbs, ‘indeed’ and ‘enough’ respectively.

An adverbial phrase qualifies a verb or verb phrase. This means it gives us information about the actions which the verbs express. Examples of such information include manner, place, time, reason, purpose, condition, frequency, degree and the like. Adverbial phrases, in most cases, qualify verbs by providing us information about how the actions expressed by the verb are done (manner), how often the actions are performed (frequency), to what extent the actions are performed (degree), where the action was performed (place) and when the action was done (time). Look at the following examples and the information that the underlined adverbial phrases give us about the verbs. The verbs they qualify are italicised while the adverbial phrases are underlined.

87. Jolaade *saw* the man very often. (frequency)

88. Angela *spoke* quite clearly indeed. (manner)

89. Lolade *does* her duties so passionately. (degree)

90. He *spoke* too soon. (time)

91. I *held* his hands right here. (place)

H. Prepositional Phrase

The head of a prepositional phrase is a preposition. The preposition may be modified by adverbs like ‘right’ and ‘almost’. In ‘He was right in the professor’s office’, ‘right’ modifies the preposition, ‘in’. The preposition is followed by a compulsory element which is called its

completive. The completive is always nominal. It could be a noun, noun phrase or noun clause. In the following examples, the whole prepositional phrases are underlined and the completives are italicised.

92. Adewumi was in Lagos.

93. Yomi is from Ibadan.

94. I am for the best policy.

95. The book is under the tree.

96. Mr Jameson copied from what I wrote.

97. I will live in whatever house you build.

The prepositional phrase performs the indicated functions below.

a. Adjectival function: When a prepositional phrase functions as an adjective, it qualifies a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.

98. I love movies from India.

99. The boy under the table loves football.

100. The lady inside the office called you.

In each of the examples, the prepositional phrases tell us more about the nouns after which they appeared. In (98), 'from India' qualifies 'movies'; in (99), 'under the table' indicates the location of 'boy'; in (100), 'inside the office' qualifies 'lady' in terms of her location.

b. Complement of a copula: A copula is a linking verb. Copulas link subjects to their complements. In 'Ola is a teacher', 'Ola' is the subject connected to the subject complement, 'a teacher'. Some copulas include *am, is, was, are and were*. When a prepositional phrase works as the complement of a copula, it occurs immediately after the copula to complete it. Some examples are provided below:

101. Quadri and Shade *are* inside the class.

102. I *am* in the room.

103. Emmanuel *is* from Ghana.

The underlined prepositional phrases complete the italicised copulas.

c. Adverbial functions

i. As adjunct: In this case, the prepositional phrase modifies a main verb. It performs the same function that adverbs perform. The prepositional phrase may indicate the time or location of the action expressed by a verb.

104. Mariam *ate* the food at the station.

105. They *met* outside the conference hall.

106. I *signed* the document inside the chambers.

In (104), the underlined prepositional phrase - 'at the station'- qualifies the verb, 'ate'. It states where the action, 'ate', took place. In (105), 'outside the conference hall' qualifies 'met'; it indicates where a meeting took place. In (106), 'inside the chambers' expresses where the action of signing the document took place.

ii. As disjunct: Prepositional phrases that are disjuncts express a speaker's comment on or attitude to what he/she is saying.

107. In all fairness, I drove the car.

108. To my amazement, he left unannounced.

Both (107) and (108) express the speaker's disposition to the sentence which followed the prepositional phrases. In (107), the speaker wants to be fair; in (108), the speaker is surprised.

iii. As conjuncts: Prepositional phrases that serve as conjuncts link structures.

109. I have read the article. In addition, I have commented on it.

110. We have written the notes. In the same vein, we have delivered it to the boss.

The underlined prepositional phrases link the sentences in which they appear to the previous ones in terms of ideas. They bring about coherence.

iv. Complement of an adjective: When they function as complements of adjectives, they occur immediately after the adjectives to complete them.

111. Tina is *fond* of me.

112. You are *familiar* with him.

113. We are *conscious* of our responsibilities.

The underlined expressions are the prepositional phrases and the adjectives they complete are in italic.

e. Complement of a verb: In this instance, a prepositional phrase comes after a verb, not to state the circumstance for the performance of its expressed action, but to complete the verb.

114. The congregants *depend on you*.

115. He was *reminded of the previous memoranda*.

The underlined expressions are prepositional phrases which complete the verbs that are italicised.

Clause

Phrases combine to form clauses. A clause is a group of words with a finite verb which conveys a partial or complete meaning. We earlier discussed the finite verb in our introduction to phrases. It is a verb that agrees in number and person with the subject and can indicate tense. So, there must be a finite verb in a clause. Remember that verbs in their present progressive tense like *eating, cooking, driving* and *texting* are non-finite verbs. Also, to-infinitive verbs like *to eat, to cook, to drive* and *to text* are all non-finite verbs. Having recollected the distinction between the finite and non-finite verbs, let us now discuss the other part of the definition. A clause expresses a partial meaning when it cannot stand on its own as a complete sentence. It is rather an element in a complete sentence. Such a clause is called a subordinate or dependent clause. Let us take some examples to illustrate this:

116. That Ola *divorced Shalewa* surprises me.

117. The man who *painted the new mansion* has paid his dues

118. She bought a new car before she *built a house*.

In Examples 116-118 above, the underlined expressions are subordinate clauses. They all fulfill the conditions for being a clause. Each of them is a group of words; each of them has a finite verb (the verbs are italicised). In addition, each of them does not communicate a complete thought until it is added to the rest of the sentence. Try to say them alone and see if they make any sense without the rest of the sentence. Also, each of them functions as elements in the structure of the sentence in which they are used. In (116), ‘That Ola divorced Shalewa’ is the subject of the verb, surprised. It is the subject element in the sentence. In (117), ‘who painted

the new mansion' is a qualifier of the noun, 'man'. In (118), 'before she built a house' is qualifying the verb, 'bought'. When did she buy the car? 'Before she built a house'.

But not all clauses communicate partial senses; some convey full meanings. The ones which make full or complete senses are called main or independent clauses. Main clauses equal simple sentences. Just like a simple sentence, a main clause conveys a complete idea. Again, just like a simple sentence, a main clause contains just one main/lexical verb. Though the main verb may be preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs, there cannot be more than one main verb in a main clause. The following are examples of main clauses; the verb phrases in them are underlined and the main verbs in them are italicised.

119. Oguibe must have *seen* the movie.

120. Albert was *pranked* by them.

121. Chuks can *drive* a car.

The above are examples of main clauses but the verb phrases in them are underlined but the main verbs in them are italicised to illustrate the fact that a main clause can have more than one verbal element but only a main verb.

Clause Structure

Above, we have defined a clause relatively comprehensively and touched on the difference between a subordinate clause and a main clause. We will return to this distinction soon. Now, we will examine the structure of a clause. All clauses are made up of four elements or constituents: subject, predicate, complement and adjunct. The abbreviation for the clause structure is SPCA. 'S' is for subject. Subject refers to the entity that performs the action that a verb expresses or stands as the entity about which something is stated. It is not compulsory for every clause to have a subject. The subject position in a clause may be occupied by any nominal element like noun, pronoun, noun phrase, noun clause, infinitival phrase and gerundive phrase. The subject position is usually at the beginning of a clause. The underlined expressions are subjects in the clauses in which they appear.

122. Adeolu has been singing since morning. (noun)

123. He abandoned the pool for us. (pronoun)

124. Their father was not at home. (noun phrase)

125. That Adeola bought a new house amazed me. (noun clause)

126. To win an election in Nigeria requires a lot. (infinitival phrase)

127. Swimming in the afternoon refreshes my body. (gerundive phrase)

The second element in the clause structure is the predicator. Remember it is called predicator, not predicate. It is the only compulsory element in a clause. The predicator position in a clause is always occupied by a main verb or verb phrase. No clause has more than a main verb. However, the only main verb in a clause may be preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs, and followed by a verbal particle. In the following examples (except (128) in which the predicator is just a main verb), the predicators are underlined and the main verbs in the predicators are italicised.

128. Wumi loves Mr Toye.

129. Wumi should *love* Mr Toye.

130. I can *sell* the mangoes.

131. Ola must have *collected* the book.

132. Abu has been *thinking* about the matter.

However, we should note the concept of verbless clause. Verbless clauses are NOT clauses without verbs but those in which the verbs or verb phrases, and their subjects have been deleted. The deleted verbs/verb phrases and their subjects are recoverable in context. Let us examine the following examples of verbless clauses. In them, the deleted verbs and their subjects are placed in brackets but the entire verbless clauses are underlined:

133. If (it is) necessary, please contact me.

134. Whether (it is) refined or crude, platinum is precious.

135. Talk when (it is) necessary.

The third element in the clause structure is the complement. It is also an optional element; this means that there can be a clause without a complement. The complement slot in a clause can be occupied by a noun, pronoun, noun phrase, noun clause, gerundive phrase or an infinitival phrase serving as either a direct or an indirect object of the verb. It can also accommodate an adjective or an adjectival phrase. The examples below illustrate each of these possibilities. The underlined expressions are the complements, and their classes are stated in brackets.

136. Benson has seen Helen. (noun)

137. Benson has seen her. (pronoun)

138. Ola signed the form. (noun phrase)

139. I know that you love the game. (noun clause)

- 140. I hate swimming in the pool. (gerundive phrase)
- 141. My plan is to review the paper. (infinitival phrase)
- 142. Mrs Lawal is beautiful. (adjective)
- 143. Ejike is very patient. (adjectival phrase)

The last element in the clause structure is the adjunct. The adjunct position is usually occupied by an adverb, adverbial phrase or adverbial clause. We will discuss the adverbial clause soon. Most adverbs and adverbials have positional mobility. This means that they can occur at the beginning, middle or end of a clause. The following are examples of adjuncts:

- 144. Immediately, Ola left the party. (adverb)
- 145. Gregory instantly lost his patience. (adverb)
- 146. Makinde retreated from the argument very stylishly. (adverbial phrase)
- 147. I left the stadium because the match was boring. (adverbial clause)

The following are the possible combinations of the elements in the clause structure:

- 148. Subject + Predicator (SP) = Ola slept.
- 149. Subject + Predicator + Complement = Kola killed the goat.
- 150. Subject + Predicator + Adjunct = Kola killed the goat there.
- 151. Predicator (P) = Run!
- 152. Predicator + Complement + Adjunct = Kill the mosquito immediately.
- 153. Predicator + Complement = Kill the mosquito.
- 154. Predicator + Adjunct = Eat now!

Types of Clause

Do you recollect that we earlier differentiated between main/independent clauses and subordinate/dependent clauses while defining the clause? We will now return to this in this section. There are two main types of clause: main/independent clause and subordinate/dependent clause. Remember that a main clause equals a simple sentence and can stand on its own. A subordinate clause cannot stand on its own. A subordinate clause has to be added to a main clause. The sentences below comprises a main clause and a subordinate clause each. The main clauses are underlined but the subordinate clauses are italicised.

- 155. I love *what he said*.
- 156. *How he did it* is still a mystery.

157. I must have slept *when he arrived*.
158. Tolu left *since the movie screening was postponed*.
159. The woman *who controls the conglomerate* has resigned.

Note that Example (159) is peculiar. It is the only one in which the subordinate clause is in the middle of the main clause. We will discuss this soon. There are three types of subordinate clauses: noun clause, adjectival/relative clause and adverbial clause. Each of these are discussed and exemplified below.

A. Noun clause

The subordinate noun clause has all the major characteristics of a clause. It is a group of words with a subject and finite verb. However, since it is a type of subordinate clause, the idea it expresses is not complete. It becomes meaningful when it is added to an independent clause. But it differs from other subordinate clauses in function. It performs only the functions of a noun. It can act as subject of a verb, subject complement, object of a verb and appositive element. To test for a noun clause, you should replace any expression you suspect to be a noun clause with an appropriate personal pronoun (e.g. it, he, him, she, her, they, them). Since a noun clause function like a noun, it should be replaceable with a pronoun. Another one is what I call the ‘what-test’. If you want to detect whether an expression is a noun clause, replace such an expression with ‘what’ and put a question mark at the end of the sentence. If it reads correctly as a question, it means the structure is replaceable with the interrogative pronoun, ‘what’. Only a noun can be replaced by the pronoun. The following examples illustrate the various functions of noun clauses:

160. How he won the election amazes me. (subject)
161. The plan is that you will persuade your father. (subject complement)
162. I knew whatever he said was malicious. (direct object)
163. The fact that Fatima loves Umar cannot be denied. (appositive element)

In (160), the underlined expression is the subject of the verb, ‘amazes’. It indicates what surprises the speaker. In (161), the subject of the sentence is ‘the plan’ but the underlined is the subject complement since it defines or identifies the plan. Both ‘the plan’ and the underlined expression are coreferential; they refer to the same thing. In (162), the underlined structure is the object of the verb, ‘knew’. It is what the speaker claims to know. In (163), the highlighted structure stands in apposition to the subject, ‘the fact’. When any noun entity serves as an

apposition, either the noun to which it stands in apposition or itself can be deleted. If any of them is deleted, the sentence will still be meaningful. Hence, both ‘The fact cannot be denied’ and ‘That Fatima loves Umar cannot be denied’ are correct. This is a way for determining whether a noun clause or phrase is in apposition to another noun.

The SPCA structural patterning applies to all subordinate noun clauses too. This is exemplified below:

- 164. How (A) he (S) won (P) the election (C)
- 165. that you (S) will persuade (P) your father (C)
- 166. whatever (C) he (S) said (P)
- 167. that Fatima (S) loves (P) Umar (C)

B. Adjectival clause

It is also called the relative clause because it usually begins with such relative pronouns as *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose* and *that*. Functionally, an adjectival clause qualifies a noun, pronoun or noun phrase which precedes it. Usually, it follows the noun entity that it tells us more about. Consider the examples below:

- 168. *The cat* which ate your biscuit has run away.
- 169. *The woman* who loves the movie is yet to come.
- 170. I love *the man* whose car you drove.
- 171. *The food* that you described tasted delicious.
- 172. *The lady* whom you commended smiled broadly.

In the examples above, the underlined adjectival phrases qualified the noun phrases which precede them. The noun phrases they qualify are italicised. Also, the adverbial clauses can be analysed structurally thus:

- 173. which (S) ate (P) your biscuit (C)
- 174. who (S) loves (P) the movie (C)
- 175. whose car (C) you(S) drove (P)
- 176. that (C) you (S) described (P)
- 177. whom (C) you (S) commended (P)

C. Adverbial Clause

The subordinate adverbial clause qualifies either a main verb or an entire verb phrase. You remember that a verb expresses an action? The adverbial clause provides some circumstantial information on the action which the verb encodes. Such information include place, manner, time, reason, purpose, condition, frequency, concession, proportion, preference and contrast. Based on the provided information, we further classify adverbial clauses.

a. Adverbial clause of place: This answers the question, ‘where’? It tells us where an action was performed. Popular markers of the clause are *where* and *wherever*. The adverbial clauses are underlined, and the verbs italicised.

177. I *read* the text where we met.

178. I *voted* where I registered.

179. Lanre *bought* the idea where I told him the story.

180. I *will go* wherever you suggest.

In Examples 177, the underlined qualifies the verb, ‘read’; in Example 178, the underlined modifies the verb, ‘voted’. In 179, the adverbial clause modifies the verb, ‘bought’ and, in 180, it qualifies the verb phrase, ‘will go’.

b. Adverbial clause of manner: This adverbial clause type answers the question, ‘how’?. It indicates how an action was performed by a subject. It usually starts with *as*, *as if*, *like*, and *as though*.

181. He *danced* as if he was drunk.

182. As though he were undefeatable, he *insulted* the electorate.

183. He *does* the way he likes.

The underlined adverbial clauses of manner qualify the italicised verbs by stating how the verbs are performed.

c. Adverbial clause of time: This clause indicates when an action is performed. It answers the question, ‘when’? Its markers include words like *when*, *whenever*, *after*, *before* and *since*.

184. I *had protested* when he was here.

185. I *will submit* the article whenever you call for it.

186. Sola *made* the statement when he came here.

The italicised expressions are the verbs which the underlined adverbial clauses qualify. They indicate the time of the actions which the verbs specify.

d. Adverbial clause of reason: This type answers the question, ‘why’? It states the reason for the expressed action. Words like *because*, *since* and *as* usually start the clause.

187. Because I was eligible to vote, I *voted* in 2011.

188. Sheri *could not buy* the gown since she lost her purse.

189. James *left* Lagos because his business was bankrupt.

The underlined adverbial clauses of time state the reason for the performance of the actions which the italicised verbs express.

e. Adverbial clause of purpose: This class of adverbial clauses answers the question: ‘for what purpose’? It indicates the purpose for undertaking an action. Its major lexical markers are *in order for*, *in order that*, *in order to*, *so as to* and *to*.

190. They *shouted* his name in order for him to stop.

191. You *should note* the points so as to recollect them.

192. The party *requested* his certificate so as to present him as its candidate.

The underlined adverbial clauses of purpose express the aim of the undertaken actions which are italicised.

f. Adverbial clause of condition: This clause type answers the question: ‘under what condition?’. It indicates the condition that must exist before an action can be taken. The markers of this clause are *unless*, *until*, *if*, *except*, *so long as*, *on condition that*, *as long as* and *provided that*. The adverbial clause of condition is underlined and the verbs they qualify are italicised in the examples below.

193. Except you work and pray, the situation *may not change*.

194. Until you sign the form, I *cannot submit* it.

195. I *will not eat* unless you cook my favourite.

196. If you were meticulous, you *would have seen* this error.

g. Adverbial clause of concession: An adverbial clause of concession expresses an idea that is contrary to the one in the main clause. The popular markers of the clause are *although, though, even though, while, whereas, even if*. Some examples of this clause type is presented below:

197. Although Tola loves football, he does not have a favourite player.
198. Ade came to the party though he had sworn not to attend it.
199. Even though you understand the subject, you have not mastered it.

h. Adverbial clause of frequency: This answers the question: ‘how often?’. It expresses how often the indicated action takes place. It usually starts with *as frequently as, as often as* and *regularly as*. The examples below contain the underlined adverbial clauses of frequency and the italicised verbs that they qualify.

200. Segun *eats* as often as he drinks.
201. Tolu *preachess* the message as regularly as my schedule permits.
202. Helen *sings* as frequently as she desires.

i. Adverbial clause of proportion: In this, a relationship of equivalence is indicated between a situation which is expressed in the main clause and another one that is indicated in the subordinate clause. Adverbial clauses of proportion are usually introduced by *as*.

203. As he became more disillusioned, his performance reduced.
204. As he grew taller, he started losing weight.

j. Adverbial clause of preference: This clause states the alternative choice to the preferred choice. The alternative is contained in the adverbial clause of preference but the preferred one is in the main clause. It is mainly introduced by *rather than*. In the examples underneath, the adverbial clauses of preference are underlined.

205. Rather than eat dinner at midnight, I will sleep without food.
206. The soldiers will retreat rather than surrender.

k. Adverbial clause of contrast: Adverbial clause of contrast express an idea which is contrastive to the idea in the main clause. Some of its markers are *whereas, while* and *whilst*.

207. Dr Osisanwo teaches pragmatics while Prof. Omobowale teaches literature.

208. I ignore the boys and their rough play whereas my wife worries herself about them.

Practice Questions

a. State the grammatical names and functions of the underlined expressions:

1. The undeserved kindness of God is with us always.
2. Anjola has been cooperating with us for long.
3. I did this for whom I loved so much.
- 4 I am very excited about the new opportunities.
5. He looked at the patient quite intensively.
6. Loving your work is not bad.
7. Having thought deeply about the matter, the legislator refused to endorse it.
8. To err is man, to forgive is divine.
9. The man who swept the floor has left.
10. I do not know when I was born.
11. Whenever I tell the story, he cries.
12. Oladele has never accepted the idea that loves covers all sins.
13. As long as you sign the form, I will fund the project.
14. Sherry is my best friend from another country.
15. I will eat rice rather than go hungry.

b. Identify the type of the following clauses and structurally analyse them using the SPCA abbreviation:

1. Professor Shyngle has not marked the scripts.
2. Lolade must be vigilant.
3. Sherifat will not be admitted into the hall.
4. Whatever you say
5. Because patience is a virtue
6. Wherever you go
7. Love is blind.
8. Pray incessantly.
9. He has been writing his thesis for four years.

10. I agree with your point.

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CHAPTER 5
THE SENTENCE
Fredrick John

When people communicate, they use sentences, not words or even phrases. The sentence is the highest level of grammar. It contains all other units because these units are put together for the purpose of communication. However, in the immediate, the sentence is made up clauses. This implies that we put together clauses, both independent and dependent, to form a sentence. But it is obligatory for a sentence to have a main clause, for the main reason that it is the bearer of meaning. A sentence must express meaning. Thus, we can define the sentence as a group of clauses that is used to express a definite meaning. A sentence is isolated based on completeness, that is, its ability to express a complete thought, which, in most cases, this is conveyed by finite verbs. In terms of punctuation, it begins with capital letter and ends with a full stop. The essence of this chapter is to consider the types of sentences.

The sentence can be typified in two dimensions. These are the function it performs in an interaction/communication, and the structure or constituent that it is made of. The latter emphasises the forms of the clause(s) that make(s) up the sentence, while the former is what the sentence gives as message.

Types of Sentences by Constituent

There are mainly four types of sentences by constituents. They include simple, complex, compound and compound-complex sentences.

A. Simple Sentence

The simple sentence is a sentence that is made up of one clause, with the status of main clause. The main clause is described with the ability to function alone in a sentence, without being aided by any other groups or clauses. It is a sentence that is made up of a subject (S), verb (V), object (O), adjunct (O), which should either be an adverb, adjective, or their phrase counterpart. The following best fit the descriptions of a simple sentence.

A. The simple sentence is a finite, in this case, hinging on the basis that the notion of completeness is equivalent to finiteness.

Examples:

1. The boy sleeps.
2. Oyinlola is an intelligent girl.

B. The simple sentence can be a clause without a subject, giving a command or detailing one to perform a task.

Examples:

3. Stop loitering around.
4. Please, pass the bowl.
5. Get up.

C. The simple sentence can have compound or coordinated NP subjects. The coordination of NPs are not actions; therefore, they do not express different points.

Examples:

6. Tade and Amos are getting married.
7. All the boys in the class should bring their football kits and jersey to school.

D. The simple sentence may be made up of complex modifiers, complements, and even appositions.

Examples:

8. All the eggs in the room upstairs for sale are Olu's choice of gift of gifts for his teachers in school.

Note here that the simple sentence is not about the length of the clause; if there is no constituent held by a subordinating or coordinating conjunction, it is a simple sentence. Sentence (viii) exemplifies this.

B. Complex Sentence

The complex sentence is a sentence that has at least two clauses, with one as the main clause. In other words, the complex sentence has one main clause, and one two or more subordinate clause(s). The clauses are joined together by subordinate conjunctions. There are specified linguistic items that serve as subordinators in English sentences. They include:

- a. Adverbs such as before, after, sooner, etc.

Examples:

9. She arrived here sooner than we expected.
10. They all left the field before the rain started.
11. They stayed back to feast after performing the ceremony.

b. Relative pronouns such as which, that, whose, who, etc.

Examples:

12. The boy found the toy which had been lost.
13. The man that produced the formula has been discovered.
14. That is the man whose car was stolen.

c. Interrogative Pronouns like how, when, why, what, etc.

Examples:

15. How she got out is surprising to everyone.
16. They told her when it was time to enter the office.
17. Tell me why you stayed in the dormitory all day.

d. Indicative Pronouns, that

Examples:

18. He said that Ade was here as a witness.
19. That Tolu is the thinktank of the team cannot be denied.

e. Nominal verbs

20. Tobi applying to be a teacher is a continuation of the family tradition.
21. The lecturer standing beside the Dean's car has administered his test.

f. Prepositional elements like for, by, with, etc.

Examples:

22. The lady for whom the car was delivered has rejected his proposal.
23. The road by which we can get to the stream has been overtaken by bushes.

C. Compound Sentence

This is a sentence that is used to express two or more independent thoughts. Unlike the complex sentence, which would require the removal of the subordinating conjunction, before the clauses can make independent meaning, the compound sentence retains its independence in spite of the conjunction. The purpose of the conjunction, thus, is to serve as a linker. Bringing in the notion of constituent, the compound sentence has two or more clauses joined together by a coordinating conjunction. There are closed number of coordinating conjunctions in English. They include but, yet, and, but also, or.

Examples:

24. He tried so hard, yet he missed the opportunity to travel.
25. The boys waited for the lecture but were marked absent.
26. He did not only put his money to be used, but he also surrendered.

Punctuation marks could also be used as conjunctions to set up compound sentences. There are several punctuations that can be used as periods. These include comma, (,) semi-colon, (;), colon (:), and hyphen or dash.

Examples:

27. The boys are not here, they are at the other side of the compound.
28. All the students claim to be sick; hence, they begged to go home for treatment.

Note that the length of the sentence is not a factor in determining compound sentences, Also, there are imperative and exclamative statements that may not have subjects, to align with the SVOA condition for the independent clause.

Examples:

29. Wait a minute, the boy just arrived.
30. Pray, read and study hard; the examination is not easy.
31. What, it is a goal!

The question tag is a compound sentence. In this case, there is a declarative statement as one independent clause, and a follow up question as another independent clause.

32. You will join the team, won't you?
33. Temilade has gone to school, hasn't she?

D. Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence combines the features of compound and complex sentences, as the name suggest. However, in the combination, the compound takes the lead, because it is obligatory to have no fewer than two independent clauses, while it optional to have more than one dependent clause appearing with them. Another condition to note is that the independent clauses in the structure would be joined together by either a coordinating conjunction, or a punctuation, while the dependent clause(s) would be attached with a subordinating conjunction to any of the main clause. What we are trying to say here is that a compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses, and one, two or more dependent clauses.

Examples:

34. When our team won the match, we partied all through the night, but our opponents went home sad.
35. The boys tried so had yet they could not bring down the tree, which was fortified in its root.
36. The boys are in the field playing football, the girls are at the cafeteria celebrating, but the lecturers are in their offices marking the students' scripts because they have only a week to process and submit the results.

Types of Sentences by function

Sentences in English are used to perform four basic functions, which are imperative, declarative, interrogative, and exclamative. These communication functions determine the expectations of both the speaker and hearer when they are used. In other words, the statement and the expected response or reaction of the hearer makes the function of such statement clearer. Let us begin with the imperative sentence.

Imperative Sentence

This is used to make a demand of the hearer. The imperative sentence requires the hearer to perform an act. It gives direction as to what is required of the hearer to perform. When the imperative sentence is used the speaker expects the hearer to act either positively or negatively in some way.

Examples:

37. Pass me the handkerchief

38. Please, make me a cup of tea.

The two statements above require response, not in words, but action. One way or the other, the hearer must respond; for instance, the hearer in sentence 37 may respond by passing the handkerchief or respond by ignoring, while in sentence (38), the hearer may decide to prepare the tea, or not. The imperative sentence has sub or internal functions, some of which are explained and exemplified below.

A. Command: The imperative sentence gives a command to the hearer. Such commands could be authoritative, as in example (39) or subtle, in the case of example (40) or conditional in (41).

Examples:

39. Halt, Identify yourself.

40. Please, stand guard until the major leaves.

41. You may stand until the major leaves.

Note that in sentence (41) the hearer is not compelled to stand, the person must choose to respond positively or negatively, but it is still an order, which may be tied to the rank of the hearer. If the hearer is a junior officer, it becomes obligatory, but if a senior officer is involved, it is optional.

B. It is used to make a request. This can be direct, indirect, polite/subtle, and insistent. The examples below address these areas respectively.

Examples:

42. Give me water to drink.

43. I will love to have some water to drink.

44. Could you, kindly, give me some water to drink.

45. Once again, give me some water to drink.

C. It is used to give directive/direction or instruction.

Examples

46. Go straight, take the turning by the right and ask for white house.

47. Do not travel at night because of insecurity.

D. It is used for apologetic comments.

Examples

48. Please, forgive her.
49. You need to pardon all of them.
- E.** It is used for religious supplication

Examples

Oh Lord, please, forgive them.

Pray for real change in Nigeria.

F. The imperative sentence can be jussive or non-jussive. While the former is basically about the second person, that is excluding the speaker, the latter includes the speaker, who also partakes in the action.

Examples

50. Call me later (jussive).
51. Let us share this happy moment (non-jussive).

Interrogative Sentence

The interrogative statement, as the name suggests, is used to interrogate the hearer, that is, to ask questions, and to demand verbal action, rather than physical demonstration, as in the case of imperative treated above. There are also different kinds or forms of interrogative statements.

Yes/No interrogative sentence

This is used to elicit an affirmative – positive or negative verbal response from the hearer. They are either definite, set up by auxiliary verbs, or conditional, set up by modal (conditional) verbs. These kinds of verbs have modalities.

Examples

52. Did you bring the pen?
53. Have you had breakfast today?
54. Are you coming tomorrow?
55. Should I bring the basket along?

WH- informative-Interrogative Sentence

This is used to ask questions that require some information. The WH- informative statement is set up by the interrogative pronouns, why, how, and what.

Examples

- 56. Why did you get to class late?
- 57. How did you get past the guards?
- 58. What is economics?

WH-non-informative Interrogative Sentence

In this case, the hearer's response is not supposed to be informative or in detail. Such responses can be phrasal or witty. These questions can also be set up by interrogative pronouns such as which, when and what.

Examples

- 59. Which pen did you bring? (Sample Resp. The brown pen)
- 60. When are you going to the salon? (Sample Resp. At twelve noon).
- 61. What time is it? (Sample Resp. six pm).

Tag-Interrogative Question

This is an interrogative clause that is used to emphasise a statement. In other words, the question tag follows a statement and probes the hearer to accept or reject the notion of the statement.

Examples

- 62. You cannot drive, can you?
- 63. Tolu is your friend, isn't she?

There are basic rules for the question tag. The most basic rules have been exemplified above, which are, the bidirectional nature of the statement and question tag. In plain terms, a positive statement is followed by a negative question tag, and vice versa. Next, the question tag takes a do support for a statement that does not have an auxiliary verb. This is because, just like yes/no interrogative statement, the question tag is set by the auxiliary verb.

Examples

- 64. You eat rice, don't you?
- 65. We passed the difficult test, didn't we?

Note that the negative question tag always appears in the contracted form.

Rhetorical Question

This is a question that is obvious and thus, requires no answer from the hearer. In most cases, the speaker goes ahead to provide an answer in a different way in their utterance.

Example

- 66. Why are you so mean?
- 67. When will you learn your lesson?

Command Question

This is used to give a directive, in form of question, for the performance of an act, rather than the provision of verbal response.

Example

- 68. Will you set the table for us?

Declarative Sentence

The declarative communicative function is the act of stating something affirmatively. It covers a broad aspect of form and features. The declarative statements, rather than elicit action or response, requires the hearer to just receive or not receive the information, agree, or not agree to the issues raised, etc. The following are some of the declarative functions.

- A.** It is used to state facts/truths

Examples:

- 69. The sky is above.
- 70. The truth is that we are ready for the test.

B. The declarative sentence states how things are or are meant to be.

Examples:

71. Nigeria is a multiethnic nation.

72. All nations should be able to protect their citizens

C. It is used to state a wish or need.

Examples

73. I wish I had the money to buy a new car.

74. We need a new file for the documents.

D. It is used to state one's opinion or argument about something, somebody, or a topic of concern.

Examples

75. Our politicians are liabilities to the nation.

76. Over-dependence on oil is the cause of the rising cost of goods.

E. It is used to pass any kind of judgement or pronouncement.

Examples

77. You are, hereby, sentenced to three years in jail.

78. I now pronounce you husband and wife.

F. It is used to report events or actions.

Examples

79. The boy passed his examinations brilliantly.

80. We went to the house, but no one was around.

Exclamative Sentence

The exclamative sentence is limited in functions to the expression of surprise and shock. There are two most notable or significant things about the exclamative sentence.

A. Just like the imperative statement, it can be just a word, but in this case, not necessarily a verb or a phrase.

Examples

81. What!

82. How wonderful!

B. Any other type of sentence, declarative, imperative, or interrogative statement can be rendered in exclamative manner.

Example:

83. Hey, Shut that door!

84. Will you get out!

85. It is a goal!

In example (83), the imperative statement has been rendered in exclamation, while example (84) shows an interrogative statement that has been rendered in exclamation. Example (85) is from a football commentary, which is the environment for the highest number of declaratives, which are rendered as exclamative sentences.

Conclusion

In typifying a sentence by constituent, it is important to consider the structural form or constituents that make up the sentence. Hence, you may wish to first do a constituent analysis to determine factors like how many verbs are in the sentence, or even the location of the verbs and if they are performing predicative or nominative functions, among others. On the other hand, typifying a sentence by functions means interpreting what the hearer is required to do with or in response to the speaker's utterance. For instance, the imperative statement means that the hearer or both the hearer and speaker to respond physically or with action, while the interrogative statement requires the hearer to provide verbal response. Both declarative and exclamative do not require verbal or physical response, but for the hearer to agree or disagree with or share their positions and respond with reciprocal shock, respectively.

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CHAPTER 6
SENTENCE BLENDS FOR EFFECTIVE WRITTEN AND SPOKEN
COMMUNICATION

A.T. Akinmurele

Introduction

Effective communication (whether written or spoken) is anchored on how well a writer or speaker constructs their sentences and builds them up into paragraphs that make up fascinating content. It is very possible that a paragraph contains the basic components but still lacks the stylistic delicacy required to engage a reader. One of such aesthetics is sentence combination. Writers in the English language as second language situation sometimes tend to repeat the same sentence pattern throughout their writing. Such repetitive content can become monotonous and boring. Hence, one will communicate better if one allows some variety of sentence patterns.

Fine combination of sentences (for effective communication) goes beyond variation of sentence structural types (simple, complex, compound or compound-complex sentences) and functional types (declarative, exclamatory, interrogative or imperative). All these sentence types can be ‘manipulated’ or put in other various forms to create a fine discourse. For instance, variation in (grammatical voice) and style of reportage can be helpful in effective communication. The question here, then, is: what are the possible variations in this regard. To answer this question, this chapter discusses grammatical voice together with direct and reported speech. It is hoped that after going through the chapter, readers will be able to identify sentence varieties such as active and passive sentence, and direct and reported speeches. Also, they should be able to effectively combine these varieties towards achieving effective communication.

What is Voice in Grammar?

The verb is one of the most central elements in sentence construction. Apart from specifying the action performed in a sentence or showing the state of being, a verb can indicate some grammatical and discourse features. For instance, “I like Asian mythical stories” will not mean the same as “I liked Asian mythical stories”. With regard to grammar, one would simply say the two sentences differ in tense. Hence while the former carries a present tense, the latter is in the past tense. This difference in tense also informs difference in the discourse of the two. Thus, at the level of discourse, while the speaker is interested in “Asian mythical stories” in the former,

s/he is no longer interested in such stories, for whatever reasons. It may be imagined that there used to be certain features that s/he enjoyed in such stories but are not present anymore; perhaps they are not fascinating to him anymore, they are boring, they are not so professional as they used to be. One could go imagining the possible reason for the word, 'liked'.

Apart from tense, verbs are usually differentiated by other grammatical features such as number (singular/plural), aspect (progressive/perfective), finiteness (finite/non-finite), mood, person and voice. Voice, which is a focus in this chapter, is very significant feature/property of verb in English.

Voice is a grammatical category that applies to the verb in a sentence. It is the form of a verb that shows the relationship between the doer of an action (subject) and the receiver of that action (object). What is traditionally known is that the subject in a sentence is the performer of an action in a sentence. This is not entirely true. One may construct a sentence such that the subject is the performer of the action expressed in the sentence. On the other hand, one may construct a sentence such that the subject is the receiver of the action. In other words, voice is the form of the verb which indicates whether the subject does the work, or something has been done to it. These different forms of sentence construction are referred to as active sentence and passive sentence, respectively. When a sentence is written in the active voice, the subject performs the action but when it written is in the passive voice, the subject receives the action. In other words, voice refers to the system which allows users of the English language to make choices between active and passive verbs in communication.

Active Voice versus Passive Voice

Active voice is used to show that the subject of the sentence is performing or causing the action. As noted by *Merriam Webster's Dictionary*, the active voice asserts that the person or thing represented by the grammatical subject performs the action represented by the verb. Because the subject does or "acts upon" the verb in such sentences, the sentences are said to be in the active voice. The following examples illustrate this.

- | | | | | |
|----|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| | S | V | O | |
| 1. | I/ | love/ | my mother. | |
| | S | V | O | |
| 2. | President Muhammad Buhari/ | has opened/ | some of the borders in the North. | |

- S V O
3. Bolaji/ is learning/ Forex.
- S V O A
4. We/ will elect/ responsible leaders/ next year.
- S V O
5. Many civil servants/ have been seeking/ political appointments.

One thing that is common to the sentences above is that they all follow the subject-verb-object order. Another common feature is that the (main) verb in each of them is an action verb. It is to be noted, however, that an action verb is not the same as 'active' verb. Sentences 1-5 above can be contrasted with 6-10 below.

- S V C
6. I/ am/a mother.
- S V C
7. President Muhammad Buhari/ is/ from the North.
- S V C A
8. Many politicians/ are being/ nice/ in this election period.
- S V C
9. Those Edo ladies/ were/ nice to me.

The verbs and verb phrases in sentences 6-10 do not involve action. Hence, they are not action verbs. This is why they do not take objects, but complements. (Read about element of a sentence.) It is important to note here, therefore, that an 'action verb' is a necessary component of an active sentence. Also, it is striking that the subject in each sentence is the performer of the action expressed by the verb. These are the striking features of a sentence with the active voice.

On the other hand, "the passive voice makes the subject the person or thing acted on or affected by the action represented by the verb." In such case, the subject receives the action. In other words, the subject is acted upon by some other performer of the verb. The verb in such sentence is passive and as such, the grammatical subject is passive. The following sentences illustrate this.

- S V A
10. My mother/ is loved/ by me.

- | | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | S | V | O |
| 11. | Some of the borders in the North/ | have been opened/ | by President Muhammadu Buhari. |
| | S | V | A |
| 12. | Forex/ | is being learnt/ | by Bolaji. |
| | S | V | A A |
| 13. | Responsible leaders/ | will be elected/ | by us/ next year. |
| | S | V | O |
| 14. | Political appointments / | have been being sought/ | by many civil servants. |

Like sentences 1-5, the verbs in 10-14 are action verbs, but they are not active verbs. They are passive. This reinforces that ‘action verb’ is not the same as ‘active verb’. What are the features that make these verbs (in 10-14) passive? The first thing to note is that the subject in each case is not the performer of the action expressed by the verb. Also, in each sentence, the verb phrase necessarily takes a be-verb. Another feature worthy of mention is that the actual performer of the action occurs after the verb, and it does not have the grammatical function of an object. Rather, it comes as an adjunct. In addition, the sentences can be read without the adjunct element (A) that indicates the performer, and each of the sentences will still be grammatical. These features make it easy for language learners to effectively identify a passive sentence and distinguish it from an active sentence.

Active voice can help ensure clarity by making it clear to the reader who is acting in the sentence. Passive sentence can create some ambiguity. Sentences 15a and 15b below illustrate this.

15a. Everyone in this room speaks two languages

15b. Two languages are spoken by everyone in this room.

(Lamidi, 2016, pg 47)

In addition, the active voice stresses that the actor (or grammatical subject) precedes the verb, again, putting emphasis on the subject. Passive voice, on the other hand, focuses on the receiver of the action. The verb phrase in the passive voice contains forms of the be-verbs plus the participle form of the action/main verb in the sentence. This ‘be-verb + participle’ feature is not found in the active voice. According to Kramer (2022), the active voice differs from the passive voice in that the passive voice has a subtler tone than the active voice. Regardless of the

differences, passive sentences are derived from active sentence. Thus, for every passive sentence, there is a corresponding active sentence.

Changing from Active Voice to Passive Voice

Combining active and passive sentences enhances better written or spoken communication. Thus, having the knowledge of how to change an active sentence to its passive version is necessary for a language user/learner. Basically, three elements must be present in an active sentence before such can be converted to a passive sentence. These elements are the subject (performer), the verb (action performed) and the object (receiver). To change an active sentence to a passive one, certain steps to be discussed below should be followed.

Step 1: Move the direct object to the beginning of the sentence (in the subject position). [See sentences 11-15 in relation to 1-5]

Step 2: Retain all the auxiliary verbs (if any), without changing the tense. The only modification possible is on the basis of concord (number agreement) between the ‘new subject’ and the auxiliary verb. Compare sentences 16 a-c below:

16a. Many of us have bought the textbook

16b. *The textbook have been bought by many of us.

16c. The textbook has been bought by many of us.

(Note that sentence 16 b is not correct. This is because the auxiliary verb ‘have’ does not agree with the new subject ‘The textbook’. Hence, the number feature must change.) When there is no auxiliary verb in the active sentence, Step 2 does not apply.

Step 3: Insert a be-verb (after the auxiliary verb but before the main/action verb). It must be noted that the be-verb to be inserted must be such that has the features (number and tense) of the main verb in the active sentence. Consider sentences 17a-c below.

17a. All of us know the answer.

17b. The answer was known by all of us.

17c. The answer is known by all of us.

Sentence 17c is not the (correct) passive form of 17a. This is because the be-verb inserted has a past tense feature, while the verb in the active voice is in the present tense. (17b can only be the participle form of “All of us knew the answer”). It is also important to note that only one be-verb can be inserted. Any attempt to insert more than one be-verb (as shown in 17d below, in relation to 17a and b above) will give the passive version of a different active sentence.

17d. The answer is being known by all of us.

Sentence 17d above communicates something like an on-going gradual process of knowing (the continuous form), which is not the intent of 17a.

Step 4: Change the main verb to the participle form (just as the verbs in 11-15, 16c and 17c are in the participle form)

Step 5: Insert the preposition ‘by’ to introduce the performer. (See sentences 11-15 in relation to 1-5)

When to use Passive Voice

Underwood (2021) points out that the passive voice is often maligned by teachers as a bad writing habit. In academic writing, it is generally preferred to choose an active verb and pair it with a subject that names the person or thing doing or performing the action. Active verbs are stronger and usually more emphatic than forms of the verb “be” or verbs in the passive voice. The passive voice is necessary in certain kinds of writing.

Sometimes, a speaker may want to shield information about the agent of an action or when the performer is not known. In such case, using a passive voice will help in achieving this.

Examples

18. The scripts were graded.

19. The registrar’s car was stolen.

(Who marked the scripts? The agent is either not known or the marking was done by an authorised person, whose identity may be known to the speaker (take for example, a student). Here, the speaker perhaps chooses to shield the identity because it was wrong for a teacher to give such scripts to a student to grade.) This is common in writing reports of crimes or incidents

with unknown perpetrators. The thief in (19) is not known, which is usually the case in the first reportage of any crime.

A passive sentence can also be used when one wants to emphasize an action itself and the doer of the action is irrelevant or distracting.

Example

20. The next president will be sworn in on June 12, not May 29.

21. Awards are presented annually

In academic research, it is often encouraged that researchers should be impersonal. In writing research report there, the passive voice will be preferred as it will help the researcher to report the action carried out without necessarily saying 'I' or 'we'.

Examples

22. Using a convenience sample, 68 teachers **were invited** to participate in the survey by emailing them an invitation.

23. The works of the foremost scholars in Cybersecurity have been reviewed in this section.

A passive sentence is also helpful in stating established facts, especially if such does not originate from the speaker or the writer, without falling guilty of plagiarism.

24. It is well-known that the English language in Nigeria is favoured in most homes.

Similarly, the passive voice is often favoured in technical and scientific contexts/writings. Methodologies adopted in carrying out research are best stated using the passive voice. For instance, sentence 25a is suitable, as against 25b.

25a. The vegetative characters of the plants were evaluated.

25b. We evaluated *the vegetative characters of the plants*.

The value of the passive voice is also often seen in government circulars and official communication, as it allows anonymity. It is common to read sentences such as 26-28 in official communication

Examples

26. I am directed to inform you that the Council has confirmed your appointment as a Professor of Agronomy in Arewa University.

27. This is to inform you that the second semester examinations for 2021/2022 academic session have been postponed.

28. You are hereby advised to complete your registration before the end of May 2022.

While it is safe to use the passive voice in certain writings, it is not normal to combine both forms in a single sentence. For instance, while sentence 29a below is permissible, 29b is adjudged to be wrong.

29a. Many students need support services, and they can only get them from the University's Counselling Unit.

29b. Many students need support services, and they can only be got from the University's Counselling Unit.

In addition, sentences involving double passive (such as 30a below) should be avoided.

30a. Vlong contents on Forex were sought to be read by the young entrepreneurs.

30b. The young entrepreneurs sought to read vlong contents on Forex.

Sentence 30a illustrates what is known as double passive. It makes one's writing/speech untidy.

Direct and Reported Speech

There are two ways of relating what a person has said: it is either one repeats the original speaker's exact words, or one expresses the exact meaning of a speech, without necessarily using the speaker's exact words. These are known as direct speech and indirect speech, respectively. Direct speech is saying exactly what someone has said or quoting speaker's actual words. Since the original speakers' exact words are repeated in direct speech, the words must be enclosed in quotation marks (""). Hence it is also called quoted speech. Indirect speech is reporting someone else's speech without quotation or exact words. Thus, indirect speech is about 'reporting', not 'quoting' what has been said. It is therefore also called reported speech.

Changing from Direct Speech to Reported Speech

There are a number of linguistic changes that happen when reporting a speech, that is, when changing a direct speech to a reported speech.

A. *Change in Tense*

Indirect speech is usually introduced by a verb in the past tense. Therefore, present tense verbs contained in the direct speech have to be changed into a corresponding past tense. When the tense of the verb in the direct speech is in the past, then it has to be changed to a past perfect tense. However, it is important to note that change in tense does not apply if the statement being reported is not bound by time, if it is a universal fact and is not likely to change.

Also, it is to be noted that indirect speech can be introduced by a verb in a present tense, having something like: He says that... This is applicable when reporting a conversation/an event that is still going on, reading a letter and reporting what it says, reading instructions and reporting them, and reporting a statement that someone makes very often. For instance, Sola is in a phone conversation with Tolu, who is beside Tope. Jude says:

“I’m telling the boys some interesting story”.

Sola can report the same to Tope as:

He said he is telling the boys some interesting story.

e.g. Tom says that he’ll never get married. When the introductory verb is in a present, present perfect or future tense we can report the direct speech without any change of tense: PAUL (phoning from the station): I’m trying to get a taxi. ANN (to Mary, who is standing beside her): Paul says he is trying to get a taxi.

B. *Person Pronouns and Possessive Adjectives*

First and second person pronouns and possessive adjectives normally change to the third person except when the speaker is reporting his own words.

C. *Demonstrative Pronouns and Demonstrative Adjective*

It is commonly known that the four words ‘this’, ‘these’, ‘that’ and ‘those’ can be used as demonstrative adjectives or demonstrative pronouns. Examples are:

1. I bought this book yesterday.
2. I bought these books yesterday.
3. Bimpe will visit that boy next week.
4. Bimpe will visit those boys next week.
5. This is beautiful!
6. These are beautiful!
7. We found that in the suspect's room.
8. We found those in the suspect's room.
9. That is just the tip of the iceberg.
10. Those were the instructions to the old players.

As adjectives, they often precede a noun and they point at things in sentences (as shown in 1-4). While the first two point at things that are nearer the speaker, the latter two point at things that are farther away from the speaker. In changing from direct speech to a reported speech, the demonstrative pronouns 'this' and 'these' have to change to 'that' and 'those'. As pronouns, they do not precede any now (as shown in 5-10) and they denote specific nominal entity that is commonly known to the speaker and the listener. Similarly, the use of these words (as pronouns) underscores some distance between the speaker and the entity referred to: 'this' and 'these' refer to things that are nearer the speaker (perhaps at the speaker's reach) while 'that' and 'those' refer to things that are not at the speaker's reach (at least at the time of the conversation). However, when they are used in the direct speech as pronouns, they are changed to 'it', 'they'/'them' in the reported speech.

D. Expressions of Time and Place

There are a number of adverbs and adverbial phrases that indicate time and place in sentences. The original speaker in the direct speech uses adverbs and adverbial phrases to indicate specific time and places, indicating some precision. When reporting, the exactness is removed by changing the adverbial expressions to more remote ones. The table below shows some adverbial expressions that show precision, and their corresponding remote forms.

Today	That day
Yesterday	The previous day/a day before
Tomorrow	The following day/the next day

ago (such as two days ago, four years ago...)	Before (such as two days before, four years before)
next (such as next week, next month...)	The following (such as the following week, the following month)
last (such as last Wednesday, last year)	The Previous (such as the previous Wednesday, the previous year)
Here	There
Now	Then/at that moment
Hither	Thither
Hence	Thence

E. Change from Interrogative Verb to Affirmative Verb

It is not only statements that can be reported. Questions too can be reported. Questions (that is interrogative sentences) involve the use of interrogative verbs in which a first part of the verbal element in the sentence (the auxiliary) appears before the subject. For example:

My wife will not do that. (Affirmative)

Will my wife do that? (Interrogative)

In addition to the above linguistic changes, changing direct questions into indirect speech requires that the interrogative form of the verb changes to the affirmative form. This implies that the auxiliary will appear after the subject such that the auxiliary verb is followed immediately by the main verb. It is to be noted that if the direct question begins with a question word (when, where, who, how, why and the like; as in the case of open ended questions) the question word is repeated in the indirect question. If there is no question word (as it is in the case of polar questions), 'if' or 'whether' must be used. Also, inquiry verbs (such as 'asked', 'inquired') are used in reporting questions.

F. Use of Infinitive Form

Imperative sentence is one of the functional types of sentence in English. These are sentences used in giving commands, and they can be changed from a direct form to indirect speech too. Doing this requires the use of infinitival verb, in addition to the changes discussed in A-E

above. Verbs such as ‘advise’, ‘ask’, ‘beg’, ‘command’, ‘order’, ‘remind’, ‘tell’, ‘warn’ (depending on the action expressed in the direct speech) are used to introduce indirect commands while the specific command/advice given or request made is introduced with a infinitival verb.

It should be noted that if the command, advice or request involves a negator ‘not’ (that is, a negative commands, request and the like), the negator must appear before the infinitival verb in the indirect speech.

S/N	Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
1.	Original speaker’s exact words are used.	Original speaker’s exact words are not used.
2.	Use of quotation marks is necessary.	There is no need for quotation marks.
3.	A comma is placed after the reporting verb.	There is no comma after the reporting verb.
4.	It does not involve change in tense.	It involves change in tense, especially with regard to non-timeless and non-universal facts.

Conclusion

Voice is a term we use to describe It relates to the form of the verb that shows whether the subject of a sentence does an action or has an action done to it. Active and passive are the two grammatical voices in English; they communicate certain information about an action in relation to the activeness or otherwise of the subject. While neither is inherently better than the other, each is suited to certain types of writing. However, the two should not be combined in one sentence.

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CHAPTER 7

THE SEGMENTALS OF ENGLISH

Ayo Osisanwo

Introduction

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies how languages systematically organize or structure their phonemes. Phonology has two aspects: segmental and suprasegmental. While the segmental aspect focuses on the individual sound units – the English phonemes, the suprasegmental focuses on what is more than sound segment – the phonological property of more than one sound segment. This chapter focuses on the segmental aspect, while the next focuses on the suprasegmentals.

At the segmental level, emphasis is placed on the phonemes (vowels and consonants). The learning of the sounds of English affords the ESL (English as Second Language) learners the opportunity to become aware of how to pronounce words as correctly as possible, or to pronounce words to near perfection (Osisanwo 2019a&b). Hence the ESL users of English must be familiar with the available speech sounds and how each of them is articulated in order for them to attain near native speaker level or attempt to conform to the level of international intelligibility.

The segmental aspect of phonology studies the system of sounds in a given language. It examines how speech can be analyzed into discrete units or segments that constitute the basis of the sound system. This is the focus of this chapter. However, for a proper treatment of how the phonemes are produced, we begin with the examination of the human articulators which interact before the realisation of the speech sounds.

The Human Articulators

The English speech sounds are produced with the organs of speech, that is, the human articulators. Some of the human articulators include the oral cavity, nasal cavity, lips, teeth, alveolar/teeth ridge, hard palate, soft palate, uvula, tongue, pharynx, epiglottis, trachea/wind pipe, lungs, vocal cords and glottis, among others.

The **oral cavity**, which is generally called the mouth, is involved in the production of oral sounds. For phonological convenience, it can be divided into the upper region (upper lip, upper teeth, alveolar, hard palate, soft palate and uvula) and the lower region (lower lip, lower teeth

and the tongue). The **nasal cavity**, which is generally called the nose, is involved in the production of nasal sounds – sounds produced when the air passage has the nasal cavity as its only escape route. The **lips** are the two fleshy folds around the mouth, which assume different shapes called lip posture in the production of vowels and some consonants. The lips assist in the realization of labial sounds. The **teeth** are white (shining) segmented organs which assist in the realization of dental sounds. The **alveolar ridge**, which is a rim of flesh at the base of the inner part of the teeth, interacts with the tongue to produce alveolar sounds. The **hard palate** is a bony plate covered with moist tissue in the roof of the mouth, and is located right after the alveolar. The hard palate is mainly involved in the production of palatal and palato-alveolar sounds. The **soft palate**, otherwise known as the **velum**, is a movable fold of mucous membrane which is located right after the hard palate in the roof of the mouth. Mainly, it is responsible for the production of velar sounds, and plays a key role in determining if a sound is oral or nasal. The **uvula**, which is a dangling appendage located at the innermost end of the velum, closes the air passage into the nasal chamber when the velum is raised. The **tongue** is an extremely flexible muscle which is attached to the floor of the mouth. For the purposes of description, the tongue is usually subdivided into the tip, blade, front, back, centre, root, rims, edges and apex, depending on the focus of description.

The **lungs** – the main structures which initiate vocal activities – are a pair of spongy air-filled organs located on either side of the chest (thorax) used in breathing and respiration. Their major phonetic function is to initiate vocal activities by releasing the pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism which is used in the production of speech sounds in English. The **trachea/wind pipe** serves as air passage through which air passes to and from the lungs. The **vocal cords** – two small muscular folds located in the larynx at the top of the windpipe – are responsible for the production of voiced and voiceless sounds. When they are separated, air passes through easily, without causing vibration, hence voiceless sounds are realised; whereas when they are brought together, air forces its way through, thereby causing vibration, resulting in the production of voiced sounds. The **glottis** is the space between the vocal cords. It is responsible for the production of the glottal sound. The **pharynx** is a muscular tube located in the neck, lined with mucous membrane, which connects the nose and mouth with the trachea (windpipe) and oesophagus. It is the part between the uvula and the larynx, and is the cavity situated in the throat right behind the mouth. The **epiglottis** is a sort of tongue situated just above the larynx and is responsible for the production of epiglottal sounds.

Vowel Sounds

Vowel sounds are realized when there is no obstruction to the flow of air or when there is the least possible obstruction to the flow of air in the oral cavity. There are twenty (20) vowels in English.

Description of Vowel Sounds

Vowel sounds are described through different parameters. Five out of the numerous parameters include:

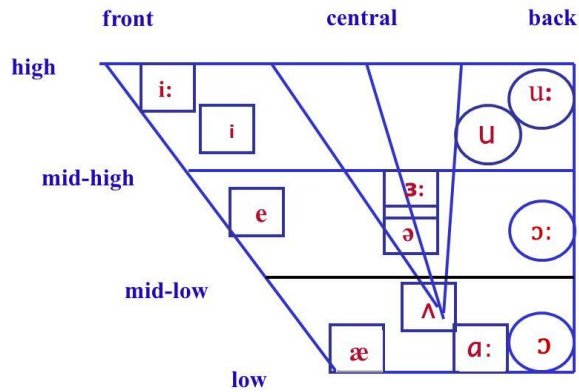
- (i) the position of the tongue along the vertical axis (close, half-close, half-open and open);
- (ii) the position of the tongue along the horizontal axis (front, central or back);
- (iii) the shape of the lips (spread/unrounded, neutral or rounded position);
- (iv) the vowel length (long or short); and
- (v) the vowel nucleus (monophthongs, diphthongs and or triphthongs).

Classifications of Vowel Sounds

Vowel can be classified into two or three: the pure vowels, also known as monophthongs, the diphthongs, and triphthongs (not universally accepted).

The Pure Vowels

The pure vowels, otherwise known as monophthongs, are sounds produced with single vowel nucleus. Their articulation involves the movement of the tongue in a single direction in vowel space. There are twelve pure vowel sounds in English, as represented on the chart below.



Vowel Charts: English Pure Vowels

Vowel Number	Vowel Sound	Vowel Description	Selected Features	Examples	Transcription Samples	Other Examples
1.	/i:/	Close front spread vowel	ee, ea, ie, ei, e, oe, eo, i	free, read	/fri:/, /ri:d/	bee, need, lean, chief, piece, receipt, legal, me, police, amoeba, foetus.
2.	/ɪ/	Half-close front spread vowel	i, y, e, ie, a, ay	sit, pit	/sɪt/, /pɪt/	rich, lynx, pity, houses, wicked, cities, village, savage, Monday.
3.	/e/	Half-open front spread vowel	e, ea, a, ai	dead, set	/ded/, /set/	met, breath, many, says.
4.	/æ/	Open front spread vowel	a, ai	man, plait	/mæn/, /plæt/	stab, sat, plaid.
5.	/ɑ:/	Open back neutral vowel	a, al, ear, ar	fart, pass	/fɑ:t/, /pɑ:s/	plaque, calf, alms, heart, yard.
6.	/ɒ/	Open back rounded vowel	o, a	pot, what	/pɒt/, /wɒt/	doll, off, cot, was, wash, rot.

7.	/ɔ:/	Half-open back rounded vowel	or, au, ou, awl, ore	sport, cord	/spɔ:t/, /kɔ:d/	ha <u>u</u> nt, ca <u>u</u> se, th <u>o</u> ught, sa <u>w</u> , ha <u>w</u> k, co <u>r</u> e.
8.	/ʊ/	Half-close back rounded vowel	u, oo, oul	could, book	/kʊd/, /bʊk/	full, put, wo <u>o</u> d, wo <u>o</u> l, sho <u>u</u> ld.
9.	/u:/	Close back rounded vowel	oo, ew, ui, u	broom, moon	/bru:m/, /mu:n/	cho <u>o</u> se, ne <u>w</u> s, sh <u>r</u> ew <u>d</u> , ju <u>i</u> ce, fr <u>u</u> it, to <u>m</u> b, mo <u>v</u> ie, p <u>n</u> eu <u>m</u> atic, Ju <u>n</u> e.
10.	/ʌ/	Open central neutral vowel	u, oo, o, ou	love, flood	/lʌv/, /flʌd/	ju <u>m</u> p, mu <u>ch</u> , blo <u>o</u> d, so <u>m</u> e, co <u>n</u> tr <u>y</u> , co <u>p</u> le.
11.	/ɜ:/	Half-close central neutral vowel	ir, ur, er, or, ear	gird, turn	/gɜ:d/, /tɜ:n/	bir <u>t</u> h, sk <u>i</u> rt, ch <u>u</u> rch, v <u>e</u> rb, wo <u>r</u> ld, wo <u>r</u> k, e <u>a</u> rn.
12.	/ə/	Half-open central neutral vowel	a, er, or	again, alone	/əgeɪn/, /ələʊn/	al <u>o</u> ne, ag <u>o</u> , aft <u>e</u> r, driv <u>e</u> r, doct <u>o</u> r, profess <u>o</u> r.

Diphthongs

Diphthongs – sounds produced when the tongue moves from one vowel position to another – are produced with double vowel nuclei.

Vowel Number	Vowel Sound	Vowel Description	Selected features	Examples	Transcripti on Samples	Other Examples
13.	/eɪ/	Closing diphthong	(a, et, ai, ay, ey, ei)	make, fade	/meɪk/, /feɪd/	ma <u>t</u> e, sach <u>e</u> t, cha <u>l</u> et, fa <u>i</u> th, cur <u>t</u> ail, pa <u>y</u> , sa <u>y</u> ,

						prey, <u>eight</u> , re <u>ign</u> .
14.	/əʊ/	Closing diphthong	(oa, o, ow, oe)	gold, toe	/gəʊld/, /təʊ/	co <u>al</u> , g <u>o</u> , c <u>o</u> ld, sh <u>ow</u> , h <u>o</u> e
15.	/aɪ/	Closing diphthong	i, y, ire, igh	tie, fly	/taɪ/, /flaɪ/	r <u>ise</u> , t <u>ry</u> , h <u>igh</u> , n <u>igh</u> t, p <u>ie</u> .
16.	/aʊ/	Closing diphthong	ou, ow, ough	cow, now	/kaʊ/, /naʊ/	m <u>ou</u> th, p <u>ou</u> nd, b <u>ow</u> , d <u>ow</u> ry
17.	/ɔɪ/	Closing diphthong	oy, oi, ouy	boy, oil	/bɔɪ/, /ɔɪl/	j <u>oy</u> , v <u>oi</u> ce, s <u>oi</u> l, n <u>oi</u> se.
18.	/ɪə/	Centering diphthong	eer, ear, ia, ere, eir, ea	mere, ear	/mɪə/, /ɪə/	st <u>ee</u> r, g <u>ea</u> r, h <u>er</u> e, w <u>ei</u> rd, p <u>ie</u> r, a <u>re</u> a, r <u>ea</u> l
19.	/eə/	Centering diphthong	eir, are, ear, ere	care, air	/keə/, /eə/	ch <u>ai</u> r, r <u>are</u> , sh <u>are</u> , sh <u>ea</u> r, sw <u>ea</u> r, wh <u>er</u> e, th <u>er</u> e.
20.	/ʊə/	Centering diphthong	ure, our, ue, oor	poor, tour	/pʊə/, /tʊə/	p <u>ur</u> e, a <u>mou</u> r, t <u>our</u> ist, m <u>oo</u> r

Triphthongs

Triphthongs are produced when the tongue moves from one articulation position to another, and then to another. They are realised in a situation where three pure vowels become a glide. They are realised when each of the five closing diphthongs combines with /ə/. However, they do not have specific numbers as vowels 1-20.

/eɪə/ - payer, slayer, sayer.

/əʊə/ - ower, sewer, mower.

/aɪə/ - plier, fire, choir.

/aʊə/ - flour, tower, bowel.

/ɔɪə/ - imployer, buoyant, royalty.

Consonant Sounds

Consonants are realized when there is a significant obstruction to the flow of air in the oral cavity. Each of the twenty-four (24) available consonants in English has its mode of articulation. The three major parameters for describing consonant sounds are: state of the glottis, place of articulation, and manner of articulation.

1. State of the Glottis

The state of the glottis explains the state that the glottis assumes when speech sounds are produced. It is responsible for the production of voiced and voiceless sounds. **Voiced sounds** are produced when the pulmonic egressive airstream forces its way through the vocal cords, resulting in the vibration of the vocal cords. There are fifteen voiced consonant sounds in English. They are /b/, /d/, /g/, /j/, /l/, /m/, /n/, /r/, /v/, /w/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /ð/, /ŋ/. **Voiceless sounds** are produced when the air finds an easy way through the vocal cords, creating no vibration. The nine voiceless (consonant) sounds in English are: /t/, /k/, /p/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /h/, /tʃ/, /θ/.

2. Place of Articulation

The place of articulation is the point where articulation or production of a speech sound takes place. It is the point where the greatest constriction occurs in the oral cavity. The organ involved in the production of a consonant sound determines if it is bilabial, labio-dental, interdental, alveolar, palato-alveolar, velar, and so on. **Bilabial sounds** (/p/, /b/, /m/, /w/) are produced when the upper and the lower lips interact with each other. **Labio-dental sounds** (/f/ and /v/) are produced when the upper teeth come in contact with the lower lip. **Inter-dental sounds** (/θ/ and /ð/) are made when the tip of the tongue articulates with the upper and the lower teeth. **Alveolar sounds** (/t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/, /r/ and /l/) are produced with complete blockage at the point where the tip of the tongue articulates with the alveolar ridge. **Palato-alveolar sounds** (/ʒ/ and /ʃ/) are produced when the tongue articulates with the point located between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. **Palatal sound** (/j/) is a sound made when the front of the tongue is raised and extended towards the hard palate. **Velar sounds** (/k/, /g/ and /ŋ/) are made when the back of the tongue is placed against the velum to cause a complete closure of the oral cavity. **Glottal sound** (/h/) is produced when there is constriction at the glottis.

3. Manner of Articulation

The manner of articulation has to do with the type of constriction made by the articulatory organs in the production of a sound. **Stops/plosives** (/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/ and /g/) are produced when there is a complete stoppage of airstream, followed by a sudden release with plosion in the articulatory chamber. **Fricatives** (/f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /ʒ/, /ʃ/, /θ/, /ð/ and /h/) are produced when there is an extreme narrowing of the air passage at the point of production such that air forces its way through. **Affricates** (/tʃ/ and /dʒ/) are produced when the flow of air is completely stopped and followed by a gradual release. **Nasals** (/m/, /n/ and /ŋ/) are produced when the velum is lowered and the articulatory chamber is closed off such that air only passes through the nasal cavity. **Liquids** are produced when the tongue is raised and air escapes through the sides of the tongue. There are two liquids in English: the lateral liquid /l/ and the roll liquid /r/. **Semi-vowels** (/j/ and /w/), otherwise called approximants or glides, are produced with articulators coming together but not completely as in the case of the other consonants.

Description of Consonant Sounds (with examples)

The English consonants manifest at initial, middle and final positions in words, as illustrated in the following table. However, where there is (-), it means there is a gap – no example of such occurrence.

Sound	Description	Selected features	Initial	Medial	Final	Transcription Samples
/p/	voiceless bilabial plosive	p, pp, ph	<u>p</u> ay, <u>p</u> art	shep <u>h</u> erd, happy	slap <u>p</u> , rap <u>p</u>	pay - /peɪ/
/b/	voiced bilabial plosive	b, bb, be	<u>b</u> ell, <u>b</u> ill	double, hubby	tab <u>b</u> , bulb <u>b</u>	bill - /bɪl/
/t/	voiceless alveolar plosive	t, tt, ed, te	<u>t</u> ap, <u>t</u> old	cater, latter	picked <u>t</u> , mate <u>t</u>	picked - /pɪkt/
/d/	voiced alveolar plosive	d, dd, de	<u>d</u> one, <u>d</u> eath	order, budding	led <u>d</u> , made <u>d</u>	made - /meɪd/
/k/	voiceless velar plosive	k, c, ch, que, cc	<u>k</u> ard, <u>k</u> hemist	anch <u>k</u> or, succ <u>k</u> our	bark <u>k</u> , fake <u>k</u> , plaque <u>k</u>	card - /kɑ:d/

/g/	voiced velar plosive	g, gg, gue, gh	<u>gh</u> ost, <u>g</u> o	regard, biggle	peg, plague	gold - /gəʊld/
/f/	voiceless labio-dental fricative	f, fe, ff, ph, gh	<u>f</u> ans, <u>ph</u> ysics,	refuse, nephew	stuff, tough, knife	fan - /fæn/
/v/	voiced labio-dental fricative	v, ve, f	<u>v</u> otes, <u>v</u> ex	diver, moving	grieve, of	votes - /vəʊts/
/θ/	voiceless interdental fricative	Th	<u>th</u> ink, <u>th</u> red	method, nothing	with, earth	thought - /θɔ:t/
/ð/	voiced interdental fricative	th, the	<u>th</u> at, <u>th</u> ose	weather, mother	bathe, clothe	that - /ðæt/
/s/	voiceless alveolar fricative	s, sc, ce, se, ps	<u>s</u> at, <u>s</u> um, <u>ps</u> eudo	muscle, inside	police, takes	sun - /sʌn/
/z/	voiced alveolar fricative	z, s, es, se	<u>z</u> ip, <u>z</u> oo	cousin, crazy	shoes, peruse	zoo - /zu:/
/ʃ/	voiceless palato-alveolar fricative	ss, ch, sch	<u>sh</u> op, <u>sch</u> edule	pressure, machine	rash, dish	shop - /ʃɒp/
/ʒ/	voiced palato-alveolar fricative	s, ge	Genre	treasure, vision	mirage, prestige	vision - /vɪʒən/
/h/	voiceless glottal fricative	H	<u>h</u> atch, <u>h</u> ouse	unhinder, ahead	-	hut - /hʌt/
/tʃ/	voiceless palato-alveolar affricate	ch, t, tch	<u>ch</u> icken, <u>ch</u> eat	nature, teacher	teach, switch, watch	chalk - /tʃɔ:k/
/dʒ/	voiced palato-alveolar affricate	j, g, ge, dg	<u>j</u> oy, <u>g</u> ist	enjoy, dangerous	merge, knowledge	joy - /dʒɔɪ/
/m/	voiced bilabial nasal	m, mb, mm, mn,	<u>m</u> anly, <u>m</u> ade	command, timing	programme, comb, damn	man - /mæn/

		me				
/n/	voiced alveolar nasal	n, kn, nn, gn	<u>n</u> ew, <u>gn</u> ash, <u>kn</u> ife	re <u>n</u> ame, <u>d</u> inner	kit <u>ch</u> en, pi <u>n</u>	knife - /naɪf/
/ŋ/	voiced velar nasal	n, ng, ing	-	wi <u>ng</u> er, <u>b</u> ank, stre <u>ng</u> th	ri <u>ng</u> , di <u>ni</u> ng	thing - /θɪŋ/
/l/	voiced alveolar lateral liquid	l, ll, le	<u>l</u> ad, <u>l</u> oad	be <u>l</u> ittle, be <u>l</u> iever	fe <u>l</u> l, tai <u>l</u>	lame - /leɪm/
/r/	voiced alveolar roll-liquid	r, rh, wr	<u>w</u> rite <u>r</u> ead, <u>w</u> rist	stro <u>ll</u> , <u>b</u> reed	-	rhyme - /raɪm/
/w/	voiced bilabial semivowel/glide	w, u	<u>w</u> eb, <u>w</u> eather	<u>q</u> uit, <u>s</u> wing	-	world - /wɜ:ld/
/j/	voiced palatal semi-vowel/glide	y, ew	<u>y</u> esterday, <u>y</u> oung	law <u>y</u> er, n <u>ew</u> s	-	yes - /jes/

Consonant Cluster, Silent Letters and Inflectional Endings

What are consonant clusters? What are silent letters? What are inflectional endings? How are they connected to the understanding of English sounds?

Consonant Cluster

Consonant cluster occurs in a situation where at least two consonant sounds appear in quick succession at the beginning, middle or end of a syllable structure. The technical representation of the structure of the syllable in English is $C^{0-3} V C^{0-4}$. In other words, between zero and three consonants can cluster at the beginning of a word and between zero and four at the end. The clusters can be two-consonant cluster (**blind**, **drug**, **from**), three-consonant cluster (**splash**, **spray**), four-consonant cluster (**sculpts**, **strengths**).

Silent Letters

Letters that are orthographically represented in a word but are not pronounced are regarded as silent letters. In other words, there is no one-to-one correlation between English letters and

sounds. In English pronunciation, therefore, words should be seen and pronounced as combination of sounds and not be seen as combination of letters. If a speaker treats different words as combination of letters, there is the tendency to articulate letters that should be silent. For example, the word ‘womb’ is often wrongly pronounced by Nigerian speakers of English as /wumb/, whereas, the correct pronunciation is /wʊm/, that is, the letter ‘b’ is silent. It is not represented as a sound in the word ‘womb’. Other examples are as represented in the table in section 8.3.5.

Markers/English Inflectional Endings

Three levels of markers will be discussed here. They are past tense markers, plural noun/possessive markers and present tense/singular verb markers.

i. Past tense markers: Most verbs, especially regular verbs in English realise their past tense forms by adding the suffix 'ed'/'d' to their base forms.

The summary of past tense markers can be indicated thus:

/-t/ after verbs that end with voiceless sounds

E.g. risk+ ed = risk**ed** /rɪsk**t**/ (/k/, the last sound of risk, is a voiceless sound, so **-ed** should be pronounced as /t/)

/-d/ after verbs that end with voiced sounds

E.g. bug+ed = bug**ged** /bʌg**d**/ (/g/, the last sound of bug, is a voiced sound, so **-ed** should be pronounced as /d/)

‘ed’ /-d/ after all vowels since all vowels are automatically voiced in English

E.g. fear+ed = fear**ed** /fiə**d**/ (/ɪə/, the last sound of *fear*, is a vowel sound, so **-ed** should be pronounced as /d/)

/-ɪd/ after the sounds /t/ and /d/.

E.g. start+ed = start**ed** /stɑ:t**ɪd**/ (since /t/ is the last sound of start, **-ed** should be pronounced as /-ɪd/)

blend+ed = blended /blendɪd/ (since /d/ is the last sound of **blend**, **-ed** should be pronounced as /-ɪd/)

ii. Plural Noun Markers: The plural form of most English nouns is realised through the addition of the letter 's'. There are some words that end in vowel sound before the 's' is added. We also have others ending in voiced or voiceless consonant sounds before the letter 's' is added.

The summary of past tense markers can be indicated thus:

‘-S’

/-s/ after nouns and verbs that end with voiceless sounds

E.g. take+s = takes /teɪks/ (/k/, the last sound of **teik**, is a voiceless sound, so **-s** should be pronounced as /s/)

/-z/ after nouns and verbs that end with voiced consonants. E.g. bag+s = bags /bægz/ (/g/, the last sound of **bag**, is a voiced sound, so **-s** should be pronounced as /z/)

/-z/ after nouns and verbs that end with vowels. E.g. go+es = goes /gəʊz/ (/əʊ/, the last sound of **go**, is a vowel which is a voiced sound, so **-s** should be pronounced as /z/)

/-ɪz/ after /s/, /z/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds

E.g. bush+es = bushes /bʊʃɪz/ (since /ʃ/ is the last sound of **bush**, **-es** should be pronounced as /-ɪz/)

iii. Present Tense/Third Person Singular Verb Markers: The third person singular form of English verbs is usually indicated by adding 's' to the base form of a word. For example, the word 'sing' has 'sings' as its singular form. However, just as we explained under plural nouns, the English words vary in spellings. Hence, various rules are attached to them depending on their format. The rules are as discussed in the previous section under plural noun markers. Other examples here are

S/N	Word	Transcription
(i)	Walks	/ wɔ:ks/

(ii)	Takes	/ teɪks/
(iii)	Tries	/ traɪz/
(iv)	Says	/ sez/
(v)	Shades	/ ʃeɪdz/
(vi)	Comes	/ kʌmz/
(vii)	Kisses	/ kɪsɪz/
(viii)	Rushes	/ ruʃɪz/

Words often wrongly pronounced

Second learners of English often wrongly pronounce some words, as evident among Nigerian speakers of English. Such words are many. However, for the purpose of space, only seventy of them have been identified and presented in the next table. The fourth column on the table represents the wrong forms, while the fifth column presents the actual realisation of the word.

S/N	WHAT TO NOTE	WORD	WRONG FORM	ACTUAL REALISATION
1	Silent 't'	Chalet	char-let	/ʃæleɪ/
2	Silent 't'	Beret	beh-ret	/bereɪ/
3	Silent 't'	Sachet	sa-chet	/sæʃeɪ/
4	Silent 't'	Listen	li-sten	-lɪsn/
5	Silent 'b'	Comb	komb	/kəʊm/
6	Silent 'b'	Bomb	bomb	/bɒm /
7	Silent 'b'	Debtor	debto	/ detə/
8	Silent 'b'	Plumber	plo-mba	/plʌmə/
9	Silent 'g'	Phlegm	flegm	/flem/
10	Silent 'g'	Gnash	gnash	/næʃ/
11	Silent 'h'	Honor	honour	/ ɒnə/
12	Silent 'h'	Honest	honest	/ ɒnɪst /
13	Silent 'h'	honorable	honourable	/ ɒn(ə)rəb(ə)l/
14	Silent 'l'	Yolk	yolk	/jəʊk/
15	Silent 'l'	Would	would	/wʊd/

16	Silent 'l'	Could	could	/kʊd/
17	Silent 'd'	Wednesday	wednes-day	/wenzdeɪ/
18	Silent 'n'	Column	co-lumn	/kʊləm/
19	Silent 'p'	psychology	psychology	/saɪkɒlədʒɪ/
20	Silent 'p'	pneumonia	pneumonia	/nju:məʊniə/
21	Silent 'p'	Coup	coup	/ku:/
22	Silent 'k'	Knife	knife	/naɪf/
23	Silent 'k'	knowledge	knowledge	/nɒlɪdʒ/
24	Silent 'd'	Handsome	handsome	/hænsəm/
25	Silent 'd'	Handkerchief	handkerchief	/hæŋkətʃɪf/
26	Silent 's'	Isle	isle	/aɪl/
27	Silent 's'	Debris	debris	/deɪbrɪ:/
28	Do not replace /tʃ/ with /k/	archbishop	ar-k-bishop	/ɑ:tʃbɪʃɒp/
29	Do not replace /k/ with /tʃ/	architect	ar-/tʃ/-itect	/ɑ:kɪtekt/
30	Do not replace /aɪ/ with /ɪ/	Stipend	sti-pend	/staɪpend/
31	Do not replace /i:/ with /aɪ/	Elite	e-lait or e-lit	/ɪli:t/
32	Do not replace /e/ with /ɪ/	Senate	si-neit	/senɪt/
33	Do not replace /ɪ/ with /u/	Lettuce	le – tus	/letɪs/
34	Do not replace /f/ with /v/	Off	ov	/ɒf/
35	Do not replace /v/ with /f/	Of	of	/əv/
36	Do not replace /θ/ with /t/	Three	/triɪ/	/θri:/
37	Do not replace /ʃ/ with /tʃ/	Chicago	chee-ka-go	/ʃɪkɑ:gəʊ/
38	Do not replace /t/ with /θ/	Thomas	θ - omas	/tɒməs/
39	Do not replace /ð/ with /d/	Them	dem	/ðem/
40	Do not replace /tʃ/ with /ʃ/	Rapture	rap-shure	/ræptʃə/
41	Do not replace /ŋ/ with n/	sing	sin	/sɪŋ/
42	Do not replace /ʒ/ with /j/	Measure	meyo	/meʒə/
43	Do not replace /g/ with /dʒ/	Gear	dʒia	/gɪə/
44	Do not replace /i:/ with /ɒ/	Suite	sɒt	/swi:t/
45	Do not replace /ɔ:/ with /ɒ/	Sport	spot	/spɔ:t/
46	Do not replace /u:/ with / ʊ /	Fruit	frut	/fru:t/

47	Do not replace /ɑ:/ with /æ/	Aunt	ant	/ɑ:nt/
48	Do not replace / æ / with / ɑ: /	Ant	aant	/ænt/
49	Do not replace / ʌ / with / ɒ /	Love	lov	/lʌv/
50	Do not replace / ɜ:/ with /ɒ/	Curve	kov	/kɜ:v/
51	Do not replace / ɜ:/ with /eɪ/	Nurse	nos	/nɜ:s/
52	Do not replace /ɪə/ with /eə/	Ear	eə	/ɪə/
53	Do not replace /eə/ with //ɪə/	Air	ɪə	/eə/
54	Misrepresentation of word with /ɔɪ/	Oil	oyel	/ɔɪl/
55	Misrepresentation of word with /i:/	Amoeba	amo-eba/ amo-iba	/əmi:bə/ or /æmi:bə/
OTHER OFTEN MISPRONOUNCED WORDS				
56		brochure	bro-kio	/brəʊʃə/
57		Juice	juwees	/dʒu:s/
58		lieutenant	li-u-te-nant	/leftənənt/
59		Colonel	ko – lo-nel	/kɜ:n(ə)l/
60		hyperbole	hai-pa-bol	/haɪpɜ:b(ə)l/
61		Library	lai-bri	/laɪbr(ə)rɪ/
62		Sword	suwod	/sɔ:d/
63		Google	go-gu	/gu:g(ə)l/
64		Goggle	go-gu	/gɒg(ə)l/
65		especially	expecially	/ɪspeʃ(ə)lɪ/ or /espeʃ(ə)lɪ/
66		Façade	fa-keyd	/fəsa:d/ or /fæsa:d/
67		Cavalry	calvary	/kæv(ə)rɪ/
68		Dilate	daialate	/daɪleɪt/
69		epoch-making	epok-making	/i:pɒkmeɪkɪŋ/
70		Arena	a-re-na	/əri:nə/

Conclusion

We have discussed the segmental aspect of the English phonology in this Unit. In discussing the English sounds, we have examined the human articulators used in generating the sounds. The sounds of English are broadly divided into consonant and vowel sounds. We have discussed that while vowels are sounds produced when there is no impediment to the flow of air in the oral cavity, consonants are sounds produced when there is a significant obstruction to the flow of air in the oral cavity. In order to easily correlate the sounds, we have given samples of transcription on each of the sounds and identified 70 word-samples that are often mispronounced by Nigerian speakers of English.

Practice Question

Section A

1. What are human articulators?
2. List ten human articulators.
3. What is a consonant sound?
4. What is a vowel sound?
5. Differentiate between vowel and consonant sounds.
6. What is a consonant cluster?
7. What is significant about silent letters?
8. What are inflectional endings?

Section B

From the words letter A to D, choose the word that has the same vowel sound as the one represented by the letter(s) underlined. An example is given below:

Example: seat A: sit B: cite C: set D: key.

The correct answer is D because only key contains the same vowel sound as the one underlined in seat.

1. float A: oven B: hoard C: poll D: hop
2. fair A: dear B: hear C: bier D: rare
3. bet A: pretty B: leisure C: exact D: penal

4. book A: pool B: brush C: food D: push
5. bus A: pocket B: donkey C: money D: bottle
6. curve A: surprise B: bury C: word D: course
7. about A: message B: seizure C: respect D: rescue
8. fork A: work B: story C: worry D: hurry
9. later A: gauge B: latter C: laud D: crab
10. tie A: eight B: height C: piece D: canes

Section C

From the words lettered A to D, choose the word that contains the consonant sound represented by the given phonetic symbol. An example is given below.

Example: /b/ A: yell B: plumber C: boy D: idiot

The correct answer is C because only 'boy' contains the consonant sound represented by the given symbol. Now, answer the following questions:

1. /dʒ/ A: regime B: forge C: barrage D: forget
2. /ʒ/ A: mirage B: knowledge C: hedge D: join
3. /j/ A: blue B: jug C: new D: gist
4. /ŋ/ A: reign B: bring C: strange D: plunge
5. /ʒ/ A: garbage B: ledger C: measure D: knowledge
6. /z/ A: resume B: dispense C: recess D: perspire
7. /ʃ/ A: cheat B: match C: clash D: forge
8. /θ/ A: writhe B: smooth C: northern D: worth
9. /w/ A: saw B: pawpaw C: plague D: weight
10. /k/ A: scheme B: scene C: known D: knee

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CHAPTER 8

THE SUPRASEGMENTALS OF ENGLISH

Ayo Osisanwo

Introduction

As stated in the previous chapter, phonology has two aspects: segmental and suprasegmental. Also called nonsegmental, the term suprasegmental, which was coined by American structuralists in the 1940s, is used to refer to functions that are "over" or "above" vowels and consonants. The suprasegmental aspect focuses on what is more than sound segment. It considers the phonological property of more than one sound segment. Having examined the segmental aspect in the previous chapter, this chapter examines the suprasegmentals of English.

The suprasegmental aspect essentially deals with phonological issues above the segment. The suprasegmental aspect is concerned with syllable, stress, rhythm and intonation. Suprasegmental information applies to several different linguistic phenomena, including pitch, duration, loudness and so forth. Suprasegmentals are often regarded as the "musical" aspects of speech. Suprasegmental phonology involves the melody of spoken language; this includes awareness of speech rhythm, and perception and production of stress placement and word boundaries. Discussion in this section covers the four main aspects of the suprasegmentals: syllable, stress, intonation and rhythm.

Syllable

The syllable is the smallest pronounceable unit in a given language. It is broadly viewed as a segment of speech that consists of a vowel, with or without one or more accompanying consonant sounds. It is a unit of spoken language that consists of one or more vowel sounds alone, a syllabic consonant alone, or any of these with one or more consonant sounds. The syllable is the phonological unit that could be produced comfortably within a breath effort. It is the number of peaks of prominence we can receive in a given word. The syllable plays a very crucial role in the understanding of the suprasegmentals because the other suprasegmental features have the syllable as their basic domain of operation. Without the syllable, it is difficult if not impossible to determine the others.

Syllable and words

Words are usually classified on the basis of the number of syllables they have monosyllabic, disyllabic or polysyllabic.

1. Monosyllabic words are words made up of one syllable. Examples include:

- i. Seat
- ii. Girl
- iii. House
- iv. Mosque
- v. School

2. Disyllabic words are words made up of two syllables. Examples include:

- i. Alone (a-lone)
- ii. Ruler (ru-ler)
- iii. Doctor (doc-tor)
- iv. Father (fa-ther)
- v. Event (e-vent)

3. Polysyllabic words are words with more than two syllables. They can be made up of three or more syllables thus:

- i. **Three-Syllable words like** experience (ex-pe-rience), important (im-por-tant), attention (a-tten-tion)
- ii. **Four-Syllable words like** calculator, political, education
- iii. **Five-Syllable words like** international, examination, contemporary.
- iv. **Six-Syllable words like** insubordination, internationally, educationally.
- v. **Seven-Syllable Words: words like** Internationalism, postcolonialism, multinationalism.

Syllable Structure

The syllable structure refers to the manner in which vowels and consonants may come together to form a syllable. The elements in the structure of the English syllable can be represented as $(C^{0-3}) V (C^{0-4})$. A syllable is made up of three parts: **onset**, **nucleus/peak** and **coda**. The **onset** refers to the consonant(s) before the vowel. The **nucleus/peak** refers to the vowel in the

syllable. The **coda** refers to the consonant(s) after the vowel. The nucleus/peak is an obligatory element in a syllable, while the onset and coda are optional elements.

Syllable structure in monosyllabic words: The words in the following table illustrate the syllable structure in selected monosyllabic words.

Word	Transcription	Structure
Are	/a:/	v
Eat	/i:t/	vc
To	/tu:/	cv
Tell	/tel/	cvc
Ask	/æsk/	vcc
Task	/ta:sk/	cvcc
Asked	/æskt/	vccc

Syllable structure in disyllabic words: The words in the following table illustrate the syllable structure in selected disyllabic words.

Word	Transcription	Structure
Arrive	/əraɪv/	vcvc
Accept	/əksept/	vccvcc
Extend	/ɪkstend/	vcccvcc

Syllable structure in polysyllabic words: The words in the following table illustrate the syllable structure in selected polysyllabic words.

Word	Transcription	Structure
Impediment	/ɪmpedɪmənt/	vccvcvcvcc
Forgetfulness	/fəgetfulnes/	cvcvccvccvc
Navigator	/nævigeɪtə/	cvcvcvcv

Stress

Stress has to do with the prominence placed on a particular syllable in relation to other syllables in a word. Stress is the degree of force (vocal) with which a syllable is produced or uttered. Stress, as a suprasegmental feature in phonology, can be approached from two perspectives: **production** and **perception**. From the perspective of production, the speaker uses more muscular energy for a stressed syllable than for an unstressed syllable. In the articulation of successive syllables in a word, it is not the same degree of prominence that is given to all the syllables. From the angle of production, therefore, stress is the amount or degree of articulatory energy exerted on a particular syllable. It can also be said to be the degree of force with which a syllable is produced.

On the other hand, that is, from the angle of perception, the hearer perceives a stressed syllable as being more prominent than an unstressed syllable. To know that a syllable is more prominent than the others, four major factors point to prominence: **pitch** (a stressed syllable has a higher pitch than an unstressed syllable), **length of the syllable** (a stressed syllable is longer than an unstressed syllable), **quality of the vowel** (a stressed syllable is also usually stronger than an unstressed syllable), and **loudness** (a stressed syllable is louder than an unstressed syllable).

Stress can also be examined in relation to word and sentence stress. Let us begin with word stress.

Word Stress

It is very crucial for learners to be able to clearly differentiate between content and grammatical words. While content words are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, grammatical or structural words are auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, and so forth. If a monosyllabic word is a content word, the stress placement is simple: the monosyllabic word is stressed. For example, the words: house (noun), sit (verb), fine (adjective) and slow (adverb) are all content words and monosyllabic words. On the other hand, monosyllabic grammatical words are not expected to be stressed in context or rapid speech, except when they are to be stressed for emphasis. Learners, especially of English as a second language like Nigerians, often associate the problematic aspect of stress placement with disyllabic and polysyllabic words. This problem is due to the fact that what obtains in English is different from what obtains in the indigenous languages in Nigeria.

Degrees of stress

Three main degrees of stress are identified in English: **primary** stress, **secondary** stress, and **tertiary** stress. The primary stress is assigned to the most prominent syllable in a word, and indicated by placing a superscript stroke (ˈ) at the beginning of the syllable or by capitalising the syllable that receives the primary stress. The secondary stress is assigned to the syllable that is next in prominence to the primary stress. It usually occurs in polysyllabic words. It is indicated by placing a subscript stroke (ˌ) at the beginning of the syllable. And the last, the tertiary stress is a syllable that is weakly produced. The syllables that receive the tertiary stress are usually not marked.

Stress Placement in English

Stress placement in English requires much attention than those of some other languages. Unlike some other languages, like French which operates a fixed stress system, English, which operates a free stress system, is not predictable. The inability to predict stress assignment in English makes the learning of English, especially by non-native speakers, a very challenging task. Therefore, there is a need to consciously study the words of English to know which syllable is stressed in disyllabic and polysyllabic words.

After a close study of the characteristics of some English words, some rules have been suggested in assigning stress to some words. The rules are not unusually with exceptions. Let us consider some of the rules associated with disyllabic and polysyllabic words.

Stress Placement in Disyllabic words

In assigning stress to disyllabic words, the following salient points should be noted:

1. Do not stress the syllable with the schwa /ə/. For example:

alone = ə ˈləʊn

2. Consider the syllable with a long vowel for possible stress. For example,

balloon = /bə ˈluːn/

3. Consider the syllable with a diphthong for possible stress. For example,

design = /di ˈzeɪn/

4. Need to stress the other syllable other than the one with the syllabic consonant. For example,

bottle = /ˈbɒtl/

5. Do not stress the syllable with /i/ but the other except if it is schwa /ə/. For example:

funny = `fʌ ni

6. When each of the two syllables has either of /i/ or /ə/, stress the syllable with /i/ in most cases. For example: figure = `fi gə

7. Most nouns are stressed on the first syllable while verbs are stressed on the second syllable. For example:

Word	Noun	Verb
convict	CONvict	conVICT
refuse	Refuse	ReFUSE
Rebel	Rebel	reBEL

8. Most adjectives are stressed on the first syllable, while verbs are stressed on the second syllable. For example:

Word	Adjective	Verb
frequent	FREquent	freQUENT
absent	ABsent	abSENT

9. Most compound words that combine two words where the first is an adjective and the second is a noun are stressed on the first syllable. For example:

whitehouse = WHITEhouse

10. Most compound words that combine two nouns are stressed on the first syllable, for example:

tea-cup = TEAcup

11. Most compound words, that combine two words, where the first word is a number, should stress the non-number word. For example:

first-hand = first-HAND

12. Most compound words that function as adverbs are stressed on the second syllable, for example:

upstairs = upSTAIRS

Stress Placement in Polysyllabic words

In assigning stress to polysyllabic words, learners should take note of the prefixes or suffixes of the given words:

13. Most words that end with the suffix; '-ion', '-ity', '-ic', '-ial', '-ian', have their primary stress on the syllables preceding the suffix, for example

Suffix	Word	Stress
-ion	foundation	founDAtion
-ic	academic	acaDEmic
-ial	confidential	confiDENtial
-ian	grammarian	graMMARian
-ity	community	coMMUNity

14. Most words that end in '-ate', '-cal', '-al', '-fy', have their primary stress on the third to the last syllable, for example

Suffix	Word	Stress
-al	educational	eduCATional
-cal	economical	ecoNOMical
-ate	Humiliate	HUMilate
-fy	Intensify	inTENSify

15. Most words that end with the suffixes: '-ive', '-ious', '-graphy', '-oous' have their primary stress on the last syllable of the root word, for example,

Suffix	Root Word	Stress Placement
-ive	Super	suPERlative
-graphy	Typo	tyPOgraphy
-ious	Pretense	preTENtious
-oous	Courage	couRAGEous

16. The following suffixes take the stress themselves wherever they occur: ‘-ee’, ‘-eer’, ‘-ese’, ‘-ette’ and ‘-esque.’ For example:

Suffix	Word	Stress
-ee	Payee	payEE
-eer	Volunteer	volunTEER
-ese	Journalese	journaleSE
-ette	Banquette	banQUETTE
-esque	picturesque	picturESQUE
-aire	Millionaire	millioNAIRE

Intonation

When we speak as humans, we do not maintain a level range in our voices. The range in the voice is called pitch. The rise and fall in the pitch level during an utterance is known as intonation. Intonation refers to the variations in the pitch of a speaker’s voice which is used to convey or alter meaning while speaking. To have the human voice in a static position throughout a speech will result in a monotonous, uninteresting and flat communication mode. It will also deny the listener or hearer access to real meaning. Hence, intonation is very important in giving meaning to utterances. Different tunes are assigned to utterances when speaking. The tune assigned to a sentence or an utterance depends on what the speaker intends to convey. Whereas English is an intonational language, the Nigerian indigenous languages are mainly tonal languages. It is important to discuss the patterns and functions of intonation.

Intonation Patterns

Tune is often assigned to the tonic syllable or the last syllable that is stressed in a sentence. The nuclear stress is indicated with the downward mark/curve (↘) to show a fall in voice and an upward mark/curve (↗) to point to a rise in voice. For this text, we will discuss four intonation tunes: fall tune, rise tune, fall-rise and rise-fall.

1. Fall Tune

A fall tune has to do with a fall in pitch on the stressed syllable of the nuclear word. It is indicated with a downward curve. It is a downward movement in the voice pitch in an

utterance. The English sentences that use the fall are simple declarative statements, imperative statements, wh-questions, exclamations. For example,

- i. John bought a house. (Simple declarative)
- ii. Shut the gate. (simple command)
- iii. What is your name? (wh-question)
- iv. Oh my God! (Exclamation)

2. Rise Tune

A rise tune has to do with a rise in pitch on the stressed syllable of the nuclear word. It is an upward movement in the voice pitch in an utterance. The types of English sentences or structures that use the rise tune are polar questions, polite request, statements changed to questions. For example,

- i. Did you see the student? (Polar question)
- ii. Please shut the gate. (Polite request)
- iii. John bought a house. (Statement changed to question)

3. Fall-rise Tune

The fall-rise tune is a combination of the fall and the rise tunes. It is used to indicate a variety of dispositions: to indicate doubt, to make a request, for reproach, for encouragement, for warning, and so on. An utterance that ends with tag questions will combine the fall and rise tunes. For example,

- i. He will win the election. Won't he?
- ii. The woman was hired this year. Wasn't she?

4. Rise-fall Tune

The rise-fall tune is a combination of the rise and fall tunes. It is mainly used for sentences with two parts. It is used in listing, on alternative questions, and so on.

- i. They are one, two, three, four and five. (listing)
- ii. Do you want to eat or sleep? (alternative question)
- iii. When he came, we left. (subordinate-main)

Functions of Intonation

Intonation performs different functions in speech. For the purpose of this text, we will discuss four: Attitudinal function, Accentual function, Grammatical function, and Discourse function.

1. Attitudinal function: The attitudinal function of intonation refers to the use of intonation to display emotions and feelings or to show our attitude towards the person we are talking to, or what we are discussing. It gives speakers the opportunity to express emotions and attitudes as they speak, which eventually adds a special kind of meaning to spoken utterances. In using utterances to perform the attitudinal function, one discovers that the same sentence can be said angrily, happily or gratefully. The different intonation patterns are used to show the attitude of the speaker. For instance, while the fall tune is used to show finality, rise tune can be used to make enquiries, fall-rise to show uncertainty, rise-fall to show surprise, and so on.

2. Accentual function: The accentual function is otherwise known as the contrastive function of intonation. It is concerned with marking out a syllable by placing the tonic stress on it in order to convey the speaker's intention. Such an emphatic stress may even be assigned to a grammatical or function word, which ordinarily should not be stressed. For example:

Paul bought a new CAR. (In other words, not just a bag, a book or plate of food, but CAR.)

Paul bought a new CAR. (In other words, not just any car, but a NEW one.)

3. Grammatical function: At the grammatical level, intonation is used to show the grammatical or syntactic structure of an utterance. It helps in placing boundaries between phrases, clauses and sentences. The grammatical function of intonation is also the use of intonation to show the grammatical or syntactic structure of an utterance. It could be:

a. to show the boundaries of grammatical units: words, phrases, clauses or sentences:

i. Word: I need a spoon, fork, plate and knife. (Rise-Fall tune)

ii. Clause: If you desire, you will succeed. (Rise-Fall tune)

b. to show the type of sentence:

i. Declarative sentence: I have a class. (Fall tune)

ii. Imperative sentence: Get out. (Fall tune)

iii. Interrogative sentence (wh-question): What is your class? (Fall tune)

iv. Interrogative sentence (polar question): Do you want to sleep? (Rise tune)

c. to disambiguate sentences whose written forms are ambiguous. For example:

i. The people who came quickly, met the president.

- ii. The people who came, quickly, met the president.

Interpretation: Sentence 'i' means that the people who met the president were those that came quickly. Sentence 'ii' means that all the people who came met the president as quickly as possible. Based on the grammatical function, therefore, intonation can help to disambiguate sentences whose written forms are ambiguous.

Intonation can also help to distinguish between declarative and interrogative sentences in which both have declarative pattern, but the only point of difference is the punctuation mark that appears after the sentence. For example:

- i. We need to eat now. (fall intonation for declarative statement)
- ii. We need to eat now? (rise intonation for interrogative statement)

4. Discourse function: Discourse function has to do with the peculiar functions ascribed to intonation based on a given conversation. It shows the speaker's attitude, especially in a discourse or conversation. It is the duty of a good listener to pick up or discover these attitudes of a speaker by a close examination of the variations in the pitch and loudness of his voice. From the angle of discourse in intonation, we can identify two areas which are:

- i. to focus the listener's attention on the most important aspect of the given message or to focus on the new/given information.
- ii. to regulate the conversational behaviour.

Rhythm

Rhythm, obtained through the regular occurrence of stress in a sentence or speech, is the measured undulation of accented and unaccented syllables. The rhythm of a language is determined by how chest-pulses and stress-pulses recur and their mode of succession and coordination. This has given rise to two main kinds of speech rhythm: stress and syllable-timed. In a syllable-timed rhythm, like Yoruba and most Nigerian languages, the language is described as syllable-timed. In such a situation, the periodic recurrence of movement is supplied by the syllable producing the chest pulses; hence all syllables recur at equal intervals of time – isochronicity. Isochronicity is the term used to refer to recurrence at equal intervals of time. On the other hand, if it is stress that is isochronous, the language, like English, is described as

stress-timed. In a stress-timed rhythm, the periodic recurrence of movement is supplied by the stress producing process. The stress pulses and the stressed syllables are isochronous.

It is important to note that the unit of rhythm is the foot. The foot is made up of a stressed syllable and all the following unstressed syllables up to the next stressed syllable. When English is spoken, the speaker/reader is expected to group and pronounce together a syllable that is stressed with all the following syllables that are not stressed in the group. Every stressed syllable with all the unstressed syllables after it is called a **rhythm word**. The stresses mark the boundary for the rhythm word. Let us consider the following example.

When John was arrested, he desired to escape.

WHEN JOHN was a RRESTed he deSIREd to e SCAPE.

1 2 3 4 5

The example has eight words. However, the rhythm word is determined by the number of stressed syllables in the sentence, and that is five. The sentence has to be read thus:

WHEN/ JOHN was a /RRESTed he de /SIREd to e /SCAPE.

OR

WHEN/ JOHN/ was a RREST/ed he deSIREd/ to eSCAPE.

In the reading, it is observed that only one stressed syllable is realised in the group.

Strong and weak forms of words in suprasegmentals

It is important to note the relevance of strong and weak forms of words in suprasegmentals. The way sounds are produced when they occur in isolation is different from the way they are produced when they occur in connected speech. The occurrence or realization of words in isolation and sentences has been divided into two forms which are (i) strong forms (ii) weak forms. Strong forms occur when the word is produced or used in isolation. The strong forms are usually stressed in pronunciation while the weak forms are usually unstressed. The weak form is a variant form of a word used when it is unstressed. Words which have weak forms are mostly function words, that is conjunctions (and, but, or) articles (a, an, the), pronouns (he, she, her), prepositions (for, to, at), some modal and auxiliary verbs (do, should, could, must).

Whenever a word occurs in unstressed position in rapid speech, its weak form is used. On the table that follows, there are strong forms and weak forms of selected words:

S/N	Word Class	Word	Accented/Strong form	Unaccented/Weak form
1	Article	The	/ði:/	/ðə/, /ðɪ/
2	Article	A	/ei/	/ə/
3	Article	An	/ æn/	/ən/
4	Conjunction	And	/ ænd/	/ən/, /n/
5	Conjunction	But	/bʌt/	/bət/
6	Conjunction/Pronoun	That	/ðæt/	/ðət/
7	Pronouns	His	/hɪz/	/hɪz/, /ɪz/
8	Pronouns	He	/hi:/	/hɪ/, /i:/, /ɪ/
9	Pronouns	Him	/hɪm/	/ɪm/
10	Pronouns	Her	/hə/or/hɜ:/	/ɜ:/, /ə/, /ər/
11	Pronouns	She	/ʃi:/	/ʃɪ/
12	Pronouns	We	/wi:/	/wɪ/
13	Pronouns	Us	/ʌs/	/əs/, /s/
14	Pronouns	You	/ju:/	/ju/
15	Pronouns	Your	/jɔ:/	/jə/, /jər/
16	Pronouns	Them	/ ðem /	/ðəm/
17	Preposition	To	/tu:/	/tu/, /tə/
18	Preposition	Of	/ɔv/	/əv/
19	Preposition	From	/frɔm/	/frəm /
20	Preposition	For	/fɔ:/	/fə/, /fər/
21	Preposition	At	/ æt/	/ət/
22	Preposition	As	/ æz/	/əz/
23	Verb (auxiliary)	Have	/hæv/	/həv/, /əv/, /v/
24	Verb (auxiliary)	Has	/hæz/	/həz/, /əz/, /s/, /z/

25	Verb (auxiliary)	Had	/hæd/	/hæd/, /əd/, /d/
26	Verb (auxiliary)	Is	/ iz/	/s/, /z/
27	Verb (auxiliary)	Was	/ wɔz/	/wəz/
28	Verb (auxiliary)	Are	/a:/	/ə/, /ər/
29	Verb (auxiliary)	Am	/æm	/əm/, /m/
30	Verb (auxiliary)	Were	/wɜ:/	/wə/, /wər/
31	Verb (auxiliary)	Be	/bi:/	/bɪ/
32	Verb (auxiliary)	Been	/bi:n/	/bɪn/
33	Verb (auxiliary)	Can	/ kæn/	/kən/
34	Verb (auxiliary)	Could	/kud/	/kəd/
35	Verb (auxiliary)	Shall	/ ʃæl /	/ ʃəl /
36	Verb (auxiliary)	Should	/ ʃud/	/ ʃəd /
37	Verb (auxiliary)	Must	/mʌst/	/məst/, /məs/
38	Verb (auxiliary)	Do	/du:/	/də/, /du/
39	Verb (auxiliary)	Does	/dʌz/	/dəz/
40	Adjective	Some	/ sʌm /	/səm/, /sm/
41	Adjective	Than	/ ðæn /	/ðən /
42	Adjective	There	/ ðeə /	/ðə/, /ðeər/

Culled from Osisanwo (2012: 125-127)

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have examined the suprasegmental features of English. We began by considering the syllable which is the domain of the suprasegmental features. After that, we examined the other features: stress, intonation and rhythm. The considerations in this text have been peripheral since the target readers are being prepared for a general English course. More detailed considerations are often taught in an English class. Nevertheless, since English is a second language to many, especially the students of GES, it is important for such users of the language to consciously master the suprasegmental features. Learners need to deliberately learn the rules in order to be better communicators. Besides the conscious efforts made in learning the discussions in this unit, learners need to interact more with their English dictionaries and consciously expose themselves to the colloquial use of the language via appropriate videos,

audios, other internet sources and, communicating with good native speakers virtually or physically.

Practice Questions

1. Determine the syllable structure of the following words, e.g. teach (cvc):

- i. Girl
- ii. School
- iii. Classroom
- iv. Teacher
- v. Entertain

2. In each of the following questions, the main/primary stress is indicated by writing the syllable on which it occurs in capital letters. From the words letter A to D, choose the one that has the correct stress. An example is given below. Example:

democratic **A.** De-mo-cra-tic **B.** de-MO-cra-tic **C.** de-mo-CRA-tic **D.** de-mo-cra- TIC

The correct answer is **C** because the main/primary stress of the word democratic is on the third syllable. Now answer the following questions.

- i. manipulate **A.** ma-nip-u-LATE **B.** MA-nip-u-late **C.** ma-NIP-u-late **D.** ma-nip-U-late
- ii. facilitate **A.** FA-cil-i-tate **B.** fa-CIL-i-tate **C.** fa-cil-I-tate **D.** fa-cil-I- TA TE
- iii. intensify **A.** IN-ten-si-fy **B.** in- TEN-si-fy **C.** in-ten-SI-fy **D.** in-ten-si-FY
- iv. exhibition **A.** EX-hi-bi-tion **B.** ex-HI-bi-tion **C.** ex-hi-bi-TION **D.** ex-hi-BI-tion.
- v. politician **A.** pol-i-ti-CIAN **B.** pol-I-ti-cian **C.** POL-I-ti-cian **D.** pol-i-TI-cian

3. Categorise the following statements into the fall and rise tunes.

- i. Stop that now.
- ii. Who stole the meat?
- iii. Did David come?
- iv. Jane slapped the boy.
- v. When daddy returned from work, we had to jug.

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CHAPTER 9 OUTLINING AND PARAGRAPHING

Fredrick John

Introduction

It is important to state that every form of writing goes through different processes. The topic of this chapter mirrors two important and significant processes that are often taken for granted by students when writing essays. It is also important to state, before discussing the issues in detail, that every form of writing has its own unique style of outlining, while the description of the paragraph may suit various forms of writing. One last thing to state, as a background, is that the outline is an interface between the pre-writing and writing processes, while the paragraph is the organiser of points and meaning in the essay. Having said these, we shall turn our attention to discussing the two concepts one after the other, beginning with the outline.

Outlining

An outline is a template containing all the main points that the individual wants to express in writing, in a given essay. As a template, the outline gives the skeletal framework of the entire writing process. In other words, it structures the procedure that the writer will follow, not only in presenting his main points, but also the outlook of how the points required would be placed or arranged. Another simple analogy that can be used to explain an outline really is said to be a 'plan'. Just like in architecture, every good house begins with a good 'plan'. This plan must capture the entire building plan, from the beginning to the end. It therefore follows that a good essay begins with a great plan, which the writer must draft, and follow. To this end, the main reason for an outline should be that it must be followed.

An outline is the structure of how the writer has organised the write-up. It gives a clear picture of the writer's flow of thought, because the process of drawing an outline is, technically, the expression of the writer's ability to reason, and then intuitively and logically develop a line of argument for the writing. The outline functions as a summary of all the delineated main ideas that would be addressed in the essay. In some writing forms like academic research, articles or term papers, the outline is clearly stipulated even in the writing. But for other writings like essays, newspaper contributions and the like, the outline may just be a rough sketch, which may not be topicalised in the body of the writing.

Things to Consider before Writing an Outline

There are so many points to note or consider before or when writing an outline. While most of these apply generally, some are only applicable or restricted to special writing forms. These points are itemised in form of questions and are explained below.

i. What is the Purpose of the Essay? For every writing form, there is a specific purpose, otherwise called the theme or focus of writing. In most cases, the topic of the essay defines the purpose. It is the purpose of the essay that will determine or guide the content of the essay. The topic also must be clearly stated and subsequently interpreted by the writer before they can come up with a good outline. Take for instance, the topic: *'how politicians justify institutional corruption'* may be interpreted in two ways; first, as corruption in public (political) institutions; and second, as corruption that has been institutionalised. These would require two different contents. The former, focusing on corruption among public office holders, while the later will focus on the notorious forms of corruption that have become part of people in the country in general. However, the mention of 'politicians' in the topic streamlines the purpose of the essay to the former.

ii. Who are your Audience? Writing is for specific groups of individuals; even your response to questions or essay in an examination condition is for an audience, in this case, your assessor. But imagine that the essay goes beyond the assessor to a sect. This means that you should consider certain factors like the status(es) of the audience, the most preferred issues that concern the sect you are addressing, among others. This will also help your writing process in terms of the language and style to use.

iii. What are the Requirements? Some forms of essay, academic essays to be precise, have stipulated requirements, which determine their form. There are standard outline procedures for all academic writings.

iv. What Information do you have about the topic? Any kind of writing thrives on adequate information. This is got from reading materials, browsing the net, reading newspapers, or watching news contents or other programmes aimed at enlightening their audience.

v. What is your thesis statement? This affects only academic writings. The thesis statement is the sentence that summarises the essay and conveys its central idea to the reader.

vi. What are the gaps that your writing is filling? This is also particular to academic writing. The gap is found in other essays that are related to yours. What this implies is that you

consider what others have done in the same field as yours and identify what has been left undone in such previous writings which your own writing will address.

vii. What are the unresolved questions on the topic? The questions on the topic must be resolved to avoid wasting time. The fact is that all idea cannot be lumped into one essay. This means that every essay poses significant question(s), and the outline must be written with the mind to answer these questions.

viii. What are the Subtopics? You must also consider that the theme must be broken down into subthemes or subtopics. In fact, the details of the outline must bear the subtopics or subthemes.

The Purpose of an Outline

The outline is meant to achieve the following purposes.

- 1. Precision:** The outline guides the entire writing process, making it possible for the writer to focus exclusively on the main points. Inversely, it will guide against beating about the bush, and going straight to what is expected, since these are the contents of the outline.
- 2. Balance:** The outline aids balance of the essay. Since it gives the opportunity for the writer to carefully structure how the points will appear. In an outline, points and the prospective contents are arranged in order of how they should appear.
- 3. Organisation:** The outline gives the essay good organisation. It helps the writer to organise the thought flow of the essay. Any writing that is carefully planned will always be better organised than the ones that are spontaneously written.
- 4. Prevents Block:** There is a concept called writer's block, a stage that the writer is unable to write, because of loss of ideas. An outline prevents this eventuality, since it has given the writer the template to work with.

Characteristics of a Good Outline

- i.** A good outline must be parallel in terms of structure. All the headings and contents in the paragraph must be parallel to the topic of the essay or write-up.
- ii.** A good outline must be coordinated. In sequence, one point must lead to another. The way the points or contents are arranged will determine how the writer wants them to appear in the write-up; hence, a coordinated – well-arranged outline will sequence to a good write-up.

iii. It must have clear delineation or division of the points that the writer wishes to express in the write-up. An outline is a statement of the main and sub points. Therefore, it must be written in a way that both the main and subordinate points would be clearly identified.

Illustration 1

Below is a sample outline for Chapters One and Two of an undergraduate project (note that this is just a sample, it may differ, in style, from what is applicable in some colleges and departments).

Chapter One

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Background to the Study
- 1.2 Statement of the Problem
- 1.3 Aim and Objectives
- 1.4 Research Questions
- 1.5 Scope of the Study
- 1.6 Significance of the Study
- 1.7 Definition of terms
- 1.8 Methodology
- 1.9 Summary

Chapter Two

- 2.0 Chapter Introduction
- 2.1 Conceptual Review
 - 2.1.1 Politics in Relation Power Tussle
 - 2.1.2 Politics and Resource Allocation
 - 2.1.3 Politics in African Countries
- 2.2 Empirical Review
 - 2.2.1 Studies on Political Conflict
 - 2.2.2 Studies on Mediation in Politics
- 2.3 Theoretical Review
 - 2.3.1 Review of Political functionalism
 - 2.3.2 Review of Guild Socialism

2.3.3 Arriving at Socio-functionalism

The following is a sample outline for an essay on the topic: ‘The effects of and solutions to the Rising cost of Living in Nigeria’.

Illustration 2

- A. Introduction
 - i. Historical Trend of the Rising Cost of Living
 - ii. Comparison of Cost of Main Commodities Across Times
- B. Body
 - i. Effects of Rising Cost of Living:
 - (a) high Standard of Living;
 - (b) hunger and Starvation of the Masses;
 - (c) economic Imbalance.
 - ii. Solutions to Rising Cost of Living
 - 1. From Peoples’ Perspective:
 - (a) engagement in production;
 - (b) engagement in subsistent agriculture;
 - (c) buying commodities in bulk when it is cheap.
 - 2. From Government’s perspectives:
 - (a) investment in local production;
 - (b) limiting importation;
 - (c) currency devaluation.
- C. Conclusion
 - i. Summary
 - ii. Concluding Remarks

Paragraphing

Unlike outlining which deals with cataloguing main and subordinate points that writers want to use, paragraphing deals with not only the subjective arrangement of the points, but also developing them in a way that aids understanding. In other words, paragraphing involves laying out points and developing them. A simple analogy to describe paragraphing is that it is like building the rooms of a house. In the end, the rooms are connected to give the house its

complete shape. Paragraphing entails building and developing each component (points) of a write-up. For the purpose of diverting to the main area of this topic, which is the paragraph, it is significant to define paragraphing as the act of writing paragraphs. What then is a paragraph?

Paragraph can be explained from two categorical dimensions, first, in terms of structure or form, and second, in terms of contents. In terms of structure, a paragraph can be defined as a group or body of sentences with a central idea. It therefore follows that, for you to have a paragraph, there must be different sentences that have been joined together. With respect to the number of sentences that a paragraph contains, writers or scholars do not have a unanimous agreement. However, annexing their views, it can be said that a minimum average of four and a maximum average of seven sentences are required. Also, in terms of structure, paragraphs are the structural thread that hold the essay together.

In terms of content, first, it should be noted that a paragraph is a group of sentences that expresses only one main point. In some exceptional cases, it can also be used to merge points. But the most characteristic function of the paragraph is that it contains a point, stated as the topic sentence, and other sentences that are used to develop it. The implication is that a paragraph cannot be one or two sentences; if it contains one main point, this will be stated using one sentence, while the development will be done using at least two sentences, going by the types of sentences in a paragraph, which shall be discussed in subsequent sections.

Conditions for Writing Paragraphs

These are four conditions which must be put in mind or followed in writing a paragraph. They are coherence, emphasis, completeness, Transition. These are discussed below.

1. Coherence: A paragraph must be coherent, such that the topic sentence and the developments must be clearly comprehended. Apart from this, they must cohere, that is agree. There must be inter agreement, that is within the main point and the developing sentences, and inter agreement, that is the agreement between that paragraph and other paragraphs in the entire write-up.

2. Emphasis: Every sentence in a paragraph must be aimed at emphasising only one point, which is contained in the topic sentence. While the topic sentence emphasises the points of the write-up, the other sentences are used to emphasise on the main point. Hence, for the purpose of

emphasis, some adverbs like occasionally, sadly, hurriedly, etc. could be used to draw attention to the topic sentence.

3. Completeness: A paragraph must introduce and complete a new topic or idea. In other words, everything one needs to find out about the point raised, in relation to the given topic, must be completely presented in the paragraph. There are instances where the writer may need to break a paragraph, especially when there are so much to say under the point, and the structural condition for a paragraph has been exhausted. This frequently occurs in academic writings that are lengthy. In simple essays, this is rare, because the writer needs to get to other points as quick as possible.

4. Transition: The paragraph must show clear transition, both within and outside. There must be a dynamic way to connect the sentences in the paragraph together. Some of the strategies to align or connect the sentences include transition markers like ‘hence’, therefore, in view of this, consequently, thus, etc., conjunctions, both subordinating and coordinating (while subordinating conjunctions connect clauses to make up complex sentences, coordinating conjunctions connect clauses to make compound sentences), and fillers like, in addition, more so, etc.

Writing a Paragraph

A. Indentation

There are two indentation style in paragraph writing. The first is the most familiar, and it is used in conventional writings in notebooks or writing papers. This is the space indentation format. Here the writer is supposed to give between 1.5cm and 2cm from the baseline.

Illustration 3:

The rising cost of fuel is not only an indication of a failed economy, but also a proof that the government is not really concerned about the welfare of the ordinary Nigerian citizen. In many nations of the world, there are conscious attempts of the government to regulate prices of goods and services that are indispensable to the survival of the entire citizenry...

The second format is the block type, which is mostly used in official writings, especially when the documents are typeset. Here, there is the use of line, rather than space, for indentation. The writer skips a complete line, as indentation, which then compels them to write on the baseline.

Illustration 4:

The rising cost of fuel is not only an indication of a failed economy, but also a proof that the government are not really concerned about the welfare of the ordinary Nigerian citizen. In many nations of the world, there are conscious attempts of the government to regulate prices of goods and services that are indispensable to the survival of the entire citizenry...

B. Sentence Types.

A paragraph has two main components, which are occupied by three kinds of sentences, which would be explained and exemplified below. These are identified as the paragraph's theme or focus (topic or thesis), which is made up of the topic sentence, and the paragraph's development which is made up of premise or reference, and analogy.

The Paragraph's Theme or Focus: As said above, every paragraph is focused on projecting one main point. In other words, the theme or focus is the topic of the paragraph, which must be conveyed to the reader, using one sentence, which is known as the topic sentence. In most traditional essays or write-ups, the topic sentence is the opening sentence, that is, it is used to introduce the paragraph. The implication of this approach is that the topic sentence comes before any other sentence in the paragraph. See the underlined expression in the illustration below.

Illustration 5:

One of the notorious effects of poverty is hunger and starvation. One of the ways we have conceptualised it is the inability to afford basic necessities of life such as food. If people cannot afford to buy food, the implication is that they will go hungry, which may lead to more disastrous consequences...

For the purpose of dynamism in writing, writers may shift from the conventional approach and structure their paragraphs, once in a while, either at the middle or end of the paragraph. If this is the case, the topic sentence will be introduced or set up by a transition marker, some of which have been mentioned above. See the underlined part of illustration 4.

Illustration 6.

So many countries taking the side of Russia in the war against Ukraine are beginning to realise their mistake. Many of them, who did not weigh the pros and cons initially are now asking what the basis of the war is, if not for a share waste of human life, and bringing back to square zero a nation that is already on its way to full development. Hence, war can be said to be a spontaneous action taken by the various agents connected to it. This applies to those who are fighting the war and those who are supporting it.

The Paragraph's Development

Paragraphs left undiscussed would be naked and empty. They would not even live up to the expectation of what defines a paragraph structurally. Thus, the discussion of the topic sentence is here referred to as the development. There are three ways (or sentences used) to develop a topic sentence and the paragraph.

Premise: Premises are seeming points made without conclusion. They are left to the readers inference as related issues that could be linked to the topic sentence. Using illustration four, for instance, sentences one and two are premises that are established around two areas relating to the topic sentence. One establishes the premise that spontaneous actions or decisions are regrettable, while two establishes the premise that spontaneous decisions and actions are not critically evaluated.

Reference: This is a referential way of explaining the topic sentence for the sake of clarity to the readers. In other words, they explain the content of the main point further. They can be in form of rhetorical questions, puzzle and redefinition or reexamination of the topic sentence. See example on the paragraph on poverty below.

Illustration 7

One of the effects of poverty is political apathy. A poor man feels he has nothing to contribute to the politics of the nation. This is because the political space is dominated by the rich class...

The second and third sentences, respectively, are references used to support the main points. While the second refers to the inability of the poor man to contribute to the politics of the nation, the third sentence is referenced to the reason he is unable to contribute.

Analogy: This is the provision of examples, data or statistics to support one's claim in the topic sentence. The essence of the analogical sentence is to substantiate or validate the points raised in the topic sentence or even the premise in the paragraph. An example is provided below.

Illustration 8

The most notorious effect of poverty, especially in third-world countries, lack of education. The UNESCO statistics shows that there are over forty-six million children out of school in these countries. There is a fair share of this here, in Nigeria. For instance, in a research conducted by Universal Basic Education (UBE), it was discovered that there are about five million without primary education...

Note that for cohesion and balance, the analogical sentence may be introduced by a preamble, more like a filler, such as, for instance, take for example, etc.

Conclusion

Considering the condition of clarity of (in) the paragraph, it is advisable that writers should limit their choice of sentence constituents to, mostly, simple, and sparsely, compound and complex sentences. Compound-complex sentences should be completely avoided, except they are terminated at short range where completeness and meaning relation could be quickly identified. Even complex sentences that are unnecessarily lengthy, with more than two subordinating conjunctions should not be used. The understanding of the essay rests solely on the clarity of each paragraph.

Practice Questions

Exercise 1

1. Observe that in illustration 1 shows the outline of chapters one and two of an undergraduate project on 'Political Conflicts in Nigeria'. Complete the outline, writing for the chapters on analysis and conclusion.
2. You have been asked to write an essay on the gains of Private University Education in Nigeria. Write a good outline for the essay.

Exercise 2

1. Mention four things to consider when writing an outline.

2. Explain in your own words, the characteristics of a good outline.
3. What effect does a poor or no outline have on a write-up?
4. List and explain the purposes of outlining

Exercise 3

1. Define, in your own words, a paragraph.
2. What are the conditions for writing a good paragraph?
3. What is the relationship between an outline and a paragraph?

Exercise 4

Using the topic: ‘How nations are tackling the new trends of COVID-19’, answer the following questions.

1. Write three topic sentences for three points that can be developed in the essay.
2. Write two premises for each of the topic sentences.
3. Write one analogy each for both the topic sentence and premises.

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CHAPTER 10

FORMS OF ESSAY AND OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE

James A. AKINOLA

Introduction

This resource begins with a general description of essay writing and moves to a discussion of common essay genres students may encounter across the curriculum. The four genres of essays (description, narration, exposition, and argumentation) are common paper assignments you may encounter in your writing classes. This genre has often been identified as the mode of discourse, but some scholars have criticised this nomenclature. Whatever the case, writing is a very important aspect of every human communication. It is a skill needed to be successful in nearly all human endeavours. Unlike listening and speaking which may be naturally acquired at infancy, writing alongside reading must be learned. Many world greats have become known today as a result of their writing skills. Irrespective of the volume of writing, all written works can be categorised as one form of essay or the other. Do you know that your writing on social media nowadays can be categorised as an essay? It all depends on the length and your motivation for writing it and who your target audience is.

Forms of Essay: An Overview

As earlier hinted, the essay is a commonly assigned form of writing that every student encounters while studying. It is, therefore, very important for all students to become capable and comfortable with this type of writing early on in their training. Essays can be a rewarding and challenging type of writing and are often assigned either to be done in class, or as assignments which require previous planning and practice, and a certain amount of preparation. Many poorly crafted essays have been produced on account of a lack of preparation and confidence. However, students can avoid the discomfort often associated with essay writing by understanding some common genres. Before delving into its various genres, let's begin with a basic definition of the essay.

What is an Essay?

Though the word *essay* has come to be understood as a type of writing in Modern English, its origins provide us with some useful insights. The word comes into the English language

through the French influence on Middle English; tracing it back further, we find that the French form of the word comes from the Latin verb *exigere*, which means "to examine, test, or (literally) to drive out." Through the excavation of this ancient word, we are able to unearth the essence of the academic essay: to encourage students to test or examine their ideas concerning a particular topic.

In academic settings, essays are shorter pieces of writing that often require the student to hone a number of skills such as close reading, analysis, comparison and contrast, persuasion, conciseness, clarity, and exposition. As is evidenced by this list of attributes, there is much to be gained by the student who strives to succeed at essay writing.

Why Students Write Essays.

The purpose of an essay is to encourage students to develop ideas and concepts in their writing with the direction of little more than their own thoughts. The essay can be considered a type of research paper. Therefore, essays are (by nature) concise and require clarity in purpose and direction. This means there is no room for the student's thoughts to wander or stray from his or her purpose; the writing must be deliberate and interesting. This resource should help you become familiar and comfortable with the process of essay writing or composition as it explores each essay genre one after the other.

Expository Essays

The expository essay is a genre of essay that requires the student to investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound on the idea, and set forth an argument concerning that idea in a clear and concise manner. This can be accomplished through comparison and contrast, definition, example, the analysis of cause and effect, etc. This genre is commonly assigned as a tool for classroom evaluation and is often found in various examination formats. In other words, expository essays are often assigned as a writing exercise or as part of an exam. This is usually a five-paragraph essay of between 350 to 800 words or as the instructor deems necessary.

Characteristics of Expository Essays

The structure of the expository essay is held together by the following:

A clear, concise, and defined thesis statement that occurs in the first paragraph of the essay.

It is essential that thesis statement is appropriately narrowed to follow the guidelines outlined in the writing task. If the student does not master this portion of the essay, it will be quite difficult to compose an effective or persuasive essay. Your thesis statement should be specific; it should cover only what you will discuss in your paper and should be supported with specific evidence. If your topic changes as you write, you will need to revise your thesis statement to reflect exactly what you have discussed in the paper.

Clear and logical transitions between the introduction, body, and conclusion

Transitions are the mortar that holds the foundation of the essay together. Without logical progression of thought, the reader is unable to follow the essay's argument, and the structure will collapse.

Body paragraphs that include evidential support

Each paragraph should be limited to the exposition of one general idea. This will allow for clarity and direction throughout the essay. Such conciseness creates an ease of readability for one's audience. It is important to note that each paragraph in the body of the essay must have some logical connection to the thesis statement in the opening paragraph.

Evidential support (whether factual, logical, statistical, or anecdotal)

Oftentimes, students are required to write expository essays with little or no preparation; therefore, such essays do not typically allow for a great deal of statistical or factual evidence.

A bit of creativity!

Though creativity and artfulness are not always associated with essay writing, it is an art form nonetheless. Try not to get stuck on the formulaic nature of expository writing at the expense of writing something interesting. Remember, though you may not be crafting the next great novel, you are attempting to leave a lasting impression on the people evaluating your essay.

A conclusion that does not simply restate the thesis but readdresses it in light of the evidence provided.

It is at this point of the essay that students begin to struggle. This is the portion of the essay that leaves the most immediate impression on the mind of the reader. Therefore, it must be effective and logical. Do not introduce any new information into the conclusion; rather, synthesise and come to a conclusion concerning the information presented in the body of the essay.

Making a complete argument

When you are writing an expository essay, it is great to think of it as a conversation or debate with a classmate. If one is to discuss the cause of the insecurity in Nigeria and its current effect on those who are living in the country or those outside thinking of travelling to Nigeria, there would be a beginning, middle, and end to the conversation. In fact, if one was to end the exposition in the middle of the second point, questions would arise concerning the current effects on those who have lost loved ones to the menace of insecurity. Therefore, the expository essay must be complete, and logically so, leaving no doubt as to its intent or argument.

The Five-paragraph Expository Essay Structure

A common but not standard method for writing an expository essay is the five-paragraph approach. This is, however, by no means the only formula for writing such essays. If it sounds straightforward, that is because the method consists of:

- An introductory paragraph
- Three evidentiary body paragraphs
- A conclusion

Descriptive Essays

The descriptive essay is a genre of essay that asks the student to describe something such as object, person, place, experience, emotion, situation, etc. This genre encourages the student's ability to create a written account of a particular experience. It allows for a great deal of artistic freedom in line with its goal which is to create an image that is vivid and moving in the mind of the reader.

Guide for Writing a Descriptive Essay

Take Time to Brainstorm: If your instructor asks you to describe your favourite sport, make sure that you jot down some ideas before you begin describing it. For instance, if you choose football, you might start by writing down a few words: players, pitch, referees, rules, entertainment, etc. Once you have written down some words, you can begin by compiling descriptive lists for each one.

Use Clear and Concise Language: This means that words are chosen carefully, particularly for their relevance in relation to that which you intend to describe.

Choose vivid language: Why use *horse* when you can choose *stallion*? Why not use *tempestuous* instead of *violent*? Or why not *miserly* in place of *cheap*? Such choices form a firmer image in the reader's mind and oftentimes offer nuanced meanings that serve better one's purpose.

Use your senses: Remember, if you are describing something, you need to appeal to the senses of the reader. Explain how the thing smelled, felt, sounded, tasted, or looked. Embellish the moment with senses.

What were you Thinking: If you can describe emotions or feelings related to your topic, you will connect with the reader on a deeper level. Many have felt crushing loss in their lives, or ecstatic joy, or mild complacency. Tap into this emotional reservoir in order to achieve your full descriptive potential.

Leave the Reader with a Clear Impression: One of your goals is to evoke a strong sense of familiarity and appreciation in the reader. If your reader can walk away from the essay craving the very pizza you just described, you are on your way to writing effective descriptive essays.

Be organized: It is easy to fall into an incoherent rambling of emotions and senses when writing a descriptive essay. However, you must strive to present an organised and logical description if the reader is to come away from the essay with a cogent sense of what it is you are attempting to describe.

Narrative Essays

When writing a narrative essay, one might think of it as telling a story. These essays are often anecdotal, experiential, and personal. This genre allows students to express themselves in a creative and, quite often, moving ways.

Guide to Writing a Narrative Essay

If written as a story, the essay should include all the parts of a story. This means that you must include:

Introduction,

Plot,

Characters,

Setting,

Climax, and

Conclusion.

When would a Narrative Essay not be Written as a Story?

A good example of this is when an instructor asks a student to write a book report. Obviously, this would not necessarily follow the pattern of a story and would focus on providing an informative narrative for the reader. The essay should have a purpose:

Make a Point: Think of this as the thesis of your story. If there is no point to what you are narrating, why narrate it at all?

The Essay should be Written from a Clear Point of View: It is quite common for narrative essays to be written from the standpoint of the author; however, this is not the sole perspective to be considered. Creativity in narrative essays oftentimes manifests in the form of an authorial perspective.

Use Clear and Concise Language throughout the Essay: Much like the descriptive essay, narrative essays are effective when the language is carefully, particularly, and artfully chosen. Use specific language to evoke specific emotions and senses in the reader.

The use of the first-Person Pronoun ‘I’ is Welcomed: Do not abuse this guideline! Though it is welcomed, it is not necessary, neither should it be overused for lack of clearer diction.

As Always, be Organized: Have a clear introduction that sets the tone for the remainder of the essay. Do not leave the reader guessing about the purpose of your narrative. Remember, you are in control of the essay, so guide it where you desire (just make sure your audience can follow your lead).

Argumentative Essays

The argumentative essay is a genre of writing that requires the student to investigate a topic; collect, generate, and evaluate evidence; and establish a position on the topic in a concise manner.

It is possible to confuse the argumentative essay for the expository essay and vice versa. These two genres are similar, but the argumentative essay differs from the expository essay in the amount of pre-writing (invention) and research involved. The argumentative essay is commonly assigned as a capstone or final project in first-year writing or advanced composition courses and involves lengthy, detailed research. Expository essays involve less research and are shorter in length. Expository essays are often used for in-class writing exercises or tests, such as the WAEC, NECO, GCE, IELTS, TOEFL, GRE and other standardized exams.

Argumentative essay assignments generally call for extensive research of literature or previously published material. Argumentative assignments may also require empirical research where the student collects data through interviews, surveys, observations, or experiments. Detailed research allows the student to learn about the topic and to understand different points of view regarding the topic so that she/he may choose a position and support it with the evidence collected during research. Regardless of the amount or type of research involved, argumentative essays must establish a clear thesis and follow sound reasoning.

Structure of the Argumentative Essay

The structure of the argumentative essay is held together by the following.

A clear, concise, and defined thesis statement that occurs in the first paragraph of the essay.

In the first paragraph of an argument essay, students should set the context by reviewing the topic in a general way. Next, the student should explain why the topic is important (**exigence**) or

why readers should care about the issue. Lastly, students should present the thesis statement. It is essential that this thesis statement be appropriately narrowed to follow the guidelines set forth in the assignment. If the student does not master this portion of the essay, it will be quite difficult to compose an effective or persuasive essay.

Clear and logical transitions between the introduction, body, and conclusion

Transitions are the mortar that holds the foundation of the essay together. Without logical progression of thought, the reader is unable to follow the essay's argument, and the structure will collapse. Transitions should wrap up the idea from the previous section and introduce the idea that is to follow in the next section.

Body paragraphs that include evidential support

Each paragraph should be limited to the discussion of one general idea. This will allow for clarity and direction throughout the essay. In addition, such conciseness creates an ease of readability for one's audience. It is important to note that each paragraph in the body of the essay must have some logical connection to the thesis statement in the opening paragraph. Some paragraphs will directly support the thesis statement with evidence collected during research. It is also important to explain how and why the evidence supports the thesis (**warrant**). However, argumentative essays should also consider and explain differing points of view (refutation) regarding the topic. Depending on the length of the assignment, students should dedicate one or two paragraphs of an argumentative essay to discussing conflicting opinions on the topic. Rather than explaining how these differing opinions are wrong outright, students should note how opinions that do not align with their thesis might not be well informed, how they might be out of date, or how such is less important to the main point being advanced.

Evidential support (whether factual, logical, statistical, or anecdotal).

The argumentative essay requires well-researched, accurate, detailed, and current information to support the thesis statement and consider other points of view. Some factual, logical, statistical, or anecdotal evidence should support the thesis. However, students must consider multiple points of view when collecting evidence. As noted in the paragraph above, a successful and well-rounded argumentative essay will also discuss opinions not aligning with the thesis. It is unethical to exclude evidence that may not support the thesis. It is not the student's job to point

out how other positions are wrong outright, but rather to explain how other positions may not be well-informed or up to date on the topic.

A conclusion that does not simply restate the thesis but readdresses it in light of the evidence provided.

It is at this point of the essay that students may begin to struggle. This is the portion of the essay that leaves the most immediate impression in the reader's mind. Therefore, it must be effective and logical. Do not introduce any new information into the conclusion; rather, synthesize the information presented in the body of the essay. Restate why the topic is important, review the main points, and review your thesis. You may also want to include a short discussion of more research that should be completed in light of your work.

Arguments must be Complete: Just like we earlier mentioned, you should think of an essay in terms of a conversation or debate with a classmate. If I were to discuss the cause of Russian vs Ukrainian War and its current effect on social, political, economic, and political affairs of the world, there would be a beginning, middle, and end to the conversation. In fact, if I were to end the argument in the middle of my second point, questions would arise concerning the current effects on those who lived through the conflict. Therefore, the argumentative essay must be complete, and logically so, leaving no doubt as to its intent or argument.

The Five-Paragraph Argumentative Essay Structure

In many instances, an argumentative essay adopts the five-paragraph approach. By now, you should realise that this is not the only structure for writing essays, including this genre. However, note that if it sounds straightforward, that is because it is; in fact, it consists of:

- a. An introductory paragraph
- b. Three evidentiary body paragraphs that may include a discussion of opposing views, and
- c. A conclusion.

It is important to mention that longer argumentative essays are different in length and structure. This is because complex issues and detailed research call for complex and detailed essays. Argumentative essays discussing a number of research sources or empirical research will most certainly be longer than five paragraphs. Authors may have to discuss the context surrounding

the topic (background), sources of information and their credibility (existing literature), as well as a number of different opinions on the issue before concluding the essay. Many of these factors will be determined by the nature of the task or assignment.

Official Correspondence

Introduction

Correspondence is the most important channel through which business communication or official communication takes place in any written or digital form between two or more parties. It may be in the form of letters, memos, e-mail messages, text messages, fax messages, voicemails, notes etc.

People working in organisations have to write a large number of letters for various kinds of enquiries, letters, purchase orders, money collection, complaints, commendations, petitions, etc within their own organisations to other organisations for various reasons. Part of this may be to document important activities within the organisation or for maintaining relationship with other organisations.

A good official correspondence adheres to the 7C's of Communication. These are:

Clarity,
Completeness,
Conciseness,
Consideration,
Correctness,
Courtesy, and
Concentration.

In this guide, you will learn the different styles of business letters and official correspondence such as memos, notices, office orders, demi-official (do) letters and office note and learn about the different formatting techniques. In doing this, you will be able to: identify official correspondence, familiarise with basic principles of official correspondence, prepare the format and arrangement of official/business letters among others.

Business Correspondence: A Description

Business letters (also known as business correspondence) refer to any written communication inside an organisation (intra-organisation i.e., within a business), between two or more organisations (inter-organisation, and between the customer and organisation to achieve a specific purpose. Nowadays, electronic business correspondence has also become extremely essential for modern businesses.

It is a norm or standard that a business correspondence should, most preferably, be done on the letterhead of the organisation or the business outfit. It is through such letters that an organisation can build good relations with different parties, that is customers, suppliers, and service providers. The image of an organisation depends on what impression is conveyed through the official letters.

Types of Official Correspondence

Official correspondence can be categorised into 5 distinct classes. These are

1. **Internal Correspondence:** Correspondence between the individuals, departments, sections, and branches of the same organisation. Common name for this type is internal memorandum or memo.
2. **External Correspondence:** Refers to correspondence made with outsiders of the organisation who are individuals, customers, suppliers, banks, financial institutions, money lenders, government departments, educational institutions, charitable trust and so on. Examples include memorandum of understanding, court petitions, invitation letters, press communiqué (press release/statement), etc.
3. **Routine Correspondence:** Refers to correspondence on routine matters like inquiries, acknowledgements, replies, orders, invitations, and appointment letters.
4. **Sales Correspondence:** It refers to correspondence relating to sales. They are sales letters, sales reports, invoices, offer and discount letters, statement of accounts, confirmation of order, collection letters, delivery letters, debit, and credit notes letters, etc.

5. **Personalised Correspondence:** Emotional factors are responsible for personalised correspondence. The letters relating to requesting, granting, or refusing cooperation, favour, letters intimating gratefulness, appreciation, congratulation or commendation, letter of introduction or recommendation of an individual, letters of sympathy or censure etc.

6. **Circulars:** When a common matter is communicated to a large number of persons or firms, this is treated as circulars. Examples include notices of change of address, change of telephone numbers, opening of a new branch, introduction of a new product and product line, notices regarding meetings to shareholders, debenture holders, depositors, financial institutions, etc. These forms of writing are cyclostyled, duplicated, or printed.

Memo

The Office Memorandum is known as 'Memo' and is commonly used for interoffice correspondence in different offices. A memo is a message in writing sent by one person or department to another 'within the same organisation'. It is usually used in offices for routine matters like granting of annual increments, confirmation in services, making announcements, requests, policy statements, notices, reminders, suggestions, acknowledgements, congratulations, informal invitations, salary and leave adjustments etc. It is usually drafted by superior officers for and to their subordinates. It includes the name of the originator, the intended person(s) to whom it is addressed, the date of issue, the general topic or subject and the body of the document.

The memo may seem like a thing of the past, long ago supplanted by the email message. However, its general format can be applied to electronic communications, and the hard-copy memo still has its place in businesses and other organisations, especially when providing context for a print publication or another physical object being distributed among a group of people. The full form of *memo* is known as *memorandum*. Other equally acceptable plural forms are *memoranda* and *memorandums*. The meaning implies "to be remembered". Therefore, memos often serve as reminders, they may also introduce a resource or call attention to an event, a policy, or an issue.

Memos are used within organisations to communicate everything from routine details to complete proposals and reports. Memos are often only a few short paragraphs, but they can be much longer, depending on their purpose. Here are some typical uses of memos:

- to inform others about a new or changed policy, procedures, organisational details
- to announce meetings, events, changes
- to present decisions, directives, proposals, briefings
- to transmit documents (internal)

Memo Format

Company and/or department name (without address)

Heading

To (who gets it)

From (who sent it)

Subject (what it's about)

Date (when it was sent)

Body (conveys the message)

Introduction

Main points

Close

Memo Style

Concise: Make your sentences, paragraph, and overall memo as brief and as focused as possible.

Clear: Get your purpose straight before you start, then plan what you want to say and in what order. Use your memo layout to help your reader (headings, bulleted lists, white space, as appropriate).

Direct: Speak directly to your reader, as you would in person or on the phone. Do not pad your ideas with unnecessary details. Think of what questions your reader wants to be answered, and then answer them.

Clean: Reread, revise, copyedit, and proofread.

General Features of a Memorandum

Some of the important features of the memorandum are:

It is written in the third person,

It is written in direct style;

It does not have either salutation or subscription;

The address of the addressee is written in the left-hand bottom corner after the signature;

It contains either the name or the designation of the officer signing the letter.

Memo Structure

Subject Line: Summarise the main idea; think of it as being preceded by the words "This memo is about."

Introductory paragraph: Quickly orient the reader to what the memo is about.

Give your purpose for writing.

Supply any relevant background information.

Identify any task the memo is related to.

Body: Conveys the information and supporting details relevant to the memo's purpose

Keep paragraphs short and focused; one main idea per paragraph.

Keep sentences tight and informative

Use bullets to list information

Close: End courteously (think of a phone call or face-to-face meeting), stating any expected outcome, action, or other information appropriate to your purpose. For example,

“Please send me your comments and suggestions by January 16.”

"Let's meet next week to go to the next stage of the plan."

Official Correspondence

Official correspondence defines an official work letter and includes all actions of work in an office. The letters are written between different offices and departments of government,

autonomous bodies and government and semi-government bodies. It includes the letters written between two governments, inter-government, from one state government to another state government or the central government or vice versa. Like business letters – the official letters are not friendly. There is no personal touch. These letters are formal letters and demand special care of dignity and designation of the person or officer writing the letter. The letter heading in an official letter is mostly followed by the words ‘From’ and the addressee’s name, and the address is followed by the word ‘To’. They have different layouts, styles, language etc. These letters have to be a fine blend of clarity, correctness and conciseness in all aspects.

Whether it is a business letter or any other official correspondence, it helps to bridge the gap between parties and enhances the brand. Since the basic objective of an official letter is directly or indirectly to increase the business of the company or organisation, it should be drafted and typed with utmost care, accuracy and displayed in such a way that it gives a pleasing appearance. Hence, it is important to be familiar with various styles of writing these letters.

Styles of Typewritten Letters

The layout of business letters depends on the choice of individual firms concerned. Yet, some common styles have been standardized and adopted over the years. The common styles of business correspondence are indented style, block style/fully blocked style, and semi-block style. Let’s discuss them

Indented Style

This is the oldest style of typewriting the letters. The word “indented” generally refers to the beginning of the first line of each paragraph by indenting in the left side of the margin of the letter 5 or 7 spaces and typing the remaining lines of each paragraph from the left set margin.

A specimen of the Indented Style of an official letter is exemplified below:

CHRISLAND UNIVERSITY

Director of Sports
University of Ibadan
Ibadan

4th May 2022

Dear Sir,

Invitation to an Inter-University Football Match

I am delighted to extend an invitation to your esteemed male and female teams to participate in an inter-university football match hosted by Chrisland University. The event is scheduled to take place on the 20th of May, 2022, at 10:00 AM in our university's sports complex.

This match aims to promote sportsmanship, teamwork, and healthy competition among our students. It will be an excellent opportunity for students from both universities to engage in a spirited and friendly competition, showcase their athletic talents, and build lasting inter-university relationships.

We are planning various activities around the match, including a welcome reception, refreshments, and a brief awards ceremony. Your university's participation would be highly appreciated and will contribute to the success of this event.

We look forward to your positive response and the enthusiastic participation of your football team. Kindly confirm your acceptance by the 12th of May, 2022, to facilitate our preparations.

Yours faithfully,
(Signature)
Frederick John
Director of Sports

Block Style/Fully Blocked Style:

This type of letter style is now the most commonly used method of display for many official correspondences. It is expected to look very businesslike with the sleek method. It is popular in

American business writing. This is why it is also known as the American style of typewriting letters. This layout simply means that every line is aligned flush with the left margin. No paragraphs are indented, no headings are centred. Everything starts at the left set margin. Paragraphs are separated by leaving two lines blank between the two paragraphs.

CHRISLAND UNIVERSITY

Ref. No. CLU/56/Sports/015

4th May 2022

University of Ibadan

KM. 5 Ajebo Road

Abeokuta

Dear Sir,

Subject: Invitation to an Inter-University Football Match

I am delighted to extend an invitation to your esteemed male and female teams to participate in an inter-university football match hosted by Chrisland University. The event is scheduled to take place on the 20th of May, 2022, at 10:00 AM in our university's sports complex.

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Yours faithfully,
(Signature)
Frederick John
Director of Sports

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