

MODULE 1

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the best ways to take possession of knowledge is to write about what you have heard. At times you listen to a lecture and you think you already know what the writer is saying but by the time you attempt to write it out using your own words that is when you will discover that you do not know as much as you think you do. You might have been thinking that you know how to argue well only to discover when you start writing that you do not know how to put your points together. That is why it is important to practice writing different kinds of essays so that you can be proficient in almost all kinds of writing.

Composition writing is also designed to test a candidate's ability to use English as an effective means of communication in specific situations. These types of compositions are designed to make you express yourself with clarity and coherence in a manner appropriate to the audience, purpose, topic and situation. You may come across situations in life when you may have to argue, describe, narrate an incidence or do some other things that require some skills verbally, non-verbally or in writing.

When such situations occur, you are expected to be able to demonstrate your knowledge and skill by presenting what is logical, acceptable, convincing and understandable to the audience, reader or listener. Below are some of the objectives of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- plan adequately for any type of composition;
- determine the materials needed for any given type of composition; and
- attempt writing the outline of some compositions and the materials, needed for such writings all on your own.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Planning

Planning is a very important stage in composition writing. In some public exams, some students get disturbed when they see some other candidates scribbling away almost immediately they collect their paper. The confusion may be so much for some naïve students such that they too start writing without planning or thinking much about what they want to write. In a public exam, you have to take a few minutes off to think about the topic, the points you are going to write about, how you will arrange your paragraphs, what your introduction will be and what your conclusion is likely to be. All this planning should not take more than 7 minutes.

If it is a group assignment, and you have probably decided on what to write, you need to plan and decide on the following:

3.1.1 Choosing the Topic and Generating Ideas

After planning your essay, you should choose the topic if there are many topics presented to you. You should be very careful in choosing a topic. This is because when you make a mistake by choosing a wrong topic, you will be lacking ideas or words to use in developing the essay. When this happens, your essay will be poor and uninteresting. In choosing a topic, read over all the topics given to you, read without sentiment, choose the topic that is most interesting to you. Do not attempt to write on a topic you do not know about. For instance, you cannot describe the White House in America if you have not been there the first time. The person who has been there will write better about the White House than a person who just read about the place.

Another most important thing in your essay is to know how to generate ideas. You should first understand the topic you are writing on. This will help you in generating ideas. If you do not care about generating good ideas, the examiner will not be considerate to you. You must generate ideas that must interest your readers in general. Unless you write about something that is developed from your imagination and intelligence, your writing will look boring and people will find it difficult to go on reading it. No matter the topic you are writing, there must be points that you are making which must engage the reader as the reader is reading through your essay.

3.1.2 Materials and Resources

These are important because your topic will determine the kind of resources or materials you need to look for and this you must do before you start writing. If it is a take home assignment, you can visit your departmental library or the main University library. Resources can be classmates, lecturers and computers for materials; you can also browse and check the net for materials. The materials can be books, handouts, magazines, extracts, submitted undergraduate or postgraduate theses etc. The resources can be very useful in helping you to structure your thoughts, decide on the topic, get adequate and enough materials for reference etc. You also have to decide whether you want to work alone or with other people. In actual fact, an instructor can give out a group assignment or individual work. When this happens, you have to decide whether the assignment requires that you do it alone or whether you do it with other people.

3.1.3 Group work

Deciding whether you want to work with other people is part of planning. 'Cill Home' (see reference at the end of the unit) on 'writing' notes the following as the advantages of working alone or with other people.

Advantages of working with other people:

- you get more ideas from other people,
- they can suggest improvements,
- some other people can tell you if you make a mistake,
- they can encourage you to do bet,
- explaining things to other people can help you understand better,
- sharing helps you to be quicker,
- you can share your thoughts and feelings,
- teamwork skills and experience are important for your career.

Advantages of working alone:

- your work will be different from other people's work,
- if you share a task, you can learn your own part of the task,
- you may not want to be influenced by other people,
- you may not want to share your ideas with other people.

Whichever way you decide to work, planning is important. The next section is about some essay writing strategies.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What are some of the things you need to take into consideration before writing?

3.2 Essay Writing Strategies

3.2.1 Note taking

Note taking is an important aspect of writing. Writing down the main points as it occurs to you while reading is important because it helps you to remember and organise the salient points in your work. When you have to analyse your topic, you need to write down the points as you hope to use them to develop the paragraphs as you write. You may even need to research a topic before you start writing and taking notes as you read will help you when you need to acknowledge the source of your information although it has been mentioned earlier on that you need to write in your own words as much as possible.

One of the purposes of taking notes is to help the student recall at a later time the essentials of what he/she has read. The mechanics of note taking such as good hand writing, use of abbreviations and layout are very important details to consider. Make sure you write legibly so that you and other people who may have interest in your work can find your work easy to read at a later date. There have been cases of students who have written and have been called upon to read the same works which they have written later but they have not been able to read them because of bad hand-writing. Going through what you have written should be a constant practice and this habit should be cultivated especially during examinations. You should create time to go over your work before you submit it. There may be some I(s) to dot or some t(s) to cross. Abbreviations may be good for personal work but not for examinations. Write clearly; you may not be there to defend yourself when the examiner will be going through your work.

3.2.2 Organise your Work

You should have an idea of how you want your work to be organised and you need to work towards this. If it is an argumentative essay, you should know the side you want to support. Even though you have to balance your arguments, much of your submission still have to reflect your support for whichever side you want to identify with. You should organise it in such a way that each paragraph will have a main point while the other sentences are supporting. Your conclusion should be such that will summarise in brief the argument you have presented. At this point, you need to understand what a paragraph is all about.

3.2.3 Analyse the title of the Essay

When you are given an essay topic, you need to analyse the title and make sure you understand what the question is trying to say. When you think you understand, you can use this knowledge to draft your introduction. If you misfire right from the beginning, you may lose your direction and focus thereby making you to score low marks on the write-up. For example, some students were asked to write an article sometimes ago on the following topics:

1. Should capital punishment be abolished in the country?
2. Write an article on the need to curb the wave of violence in our country- Nigeria

You may be surprised to know that some students misinterpreted the two essay

topics in a very funny way. Some students mistook the first question on capital punishment to be corporal punishment and they wrote extensively on that. This made them to lose marks under content, organisation, expression and mechanical accuracy. The other set of students who answered the question on the need to curb the wave of violence were writing about the waves of the sea at the bar beach in Lagos. It may sound funny and you may be wondering if anybody could do such a thing. But it did happen. So, correct interpretation of the question is important.

At times an essay topic may have two or three parts, you must make sure you cover every part of the question otherwise you would not have done justice to the question. Analysing means; breaking down into parts and dealing with each of the parts to get a compact whole.

3.2.4 Build up your Essay

You need to build up your essay on ideas you have developed yourself. Some of the ideas that will occur to you may be those you got from books you have read. You should examine those ideas very well to find out if they go along with your thoughts and if they do and you want to make use of them the way they are, you need to acknowledge the source so that you will not be accused of copying or plagiarism. Andrew Roberts (Internet, see reference at the end of the unit) notes that you should not allow the notes you put down on the books you have read to set the pattern of your essay. Your essay should express your own thoughts and that is why you have been advised to write in your own words.

3.2.5 Revise

You should revise your work before you submit or before you even give it to another classmate or friend of yours to read through for you. It is possible that your skipped some errors while writing and going over the work for spelling mistakes and grammatical errors will do you a lot of good and save you from all kinds of embarrassment that such mistakes can cause. After the revision, you still give it to another friend to go through for you. This is particularly important if the write up is a long essay and you are all writing on different topics. But if the assignment is a class essay where you are all expected to compete for marks, it does not make sense giving it to someone else to read for you because you would have defeated the purpose for which the test or exam is set.

3.2.6 Errors to Avoid while writing

If non- English language specialists make mistakes while speaking, it is seen as pardonable but if an English language student or specialist does the same, it is frowned at. Once you claim to be an English language graduate, people see you as someone to contact in case of any difficulty on language issues. That is, you are seen as an authority. They may want to test if you know the spellings of words, meanings of expressions because they believe you know everything about language. Let me share a personal experience with you. I got engaged to my husband as a Master's student in English and the day I went to my in-laws house for the first time, a young boy wanted to test me. My husband had told his people that his fiancée was a Master's student in English so I guess the boys wanted to test my ability and competence. The boy asked

me what the English equivalent of 'Isu ata yan an yan an' was. I smiled and knew that the nearest to what he said was 'pandemonium' or 'chaos' depending on the situation. I answered him and since that time none of them tested me like that again. You can find yourself in such a situation and that is why you need to be equipped as an English language student. Below are some errors to avoid.

Errors in Grammar - Omission of an essential element

The elements of structure of a clause are the same as the elements of structure of a sentence. (Subject, Predicator, Complement, Adverbial or Subject, Verb, Object, Complement). These essential elements which will be discussed in some of the units in this course are important for a sentence to be grammatically correct. Except a sentence is designed to have a particular structure, omitting an essential part of a sentence will make your sentence awkward and incorrect.

Some of the major errors in grammar include wrong tense, wrong tense sequence, misuse of modal operators (may/might/ can/ could etc) ambiguity in the use of pronouns, misuse or omission of articles, including confusion between countable and uncountable nouns, wrong prepositions, misuse of relatives, subordinators and conjunctions. There are also errors of concord (agreement between the subject and the verb). Some of these and others will be discussed in other units as you go along.

Punctuation Errors

Punctuation errors are errors that should be avoided in good writing and some of these include non-use of full stops, question marks or exclamation mark. Misuse or omission of quotation marks. Either single or double quotation marks could be used. Consistency is however important in the use of either single or double quotation marks. You must stick to one except in formal writings where you are instructed to do otherwise.

Some other punctuation errors include the use of a comma where a full stop or semicolon is required, insertion of comma between subject and verb and object, insertion of comma between subordinator or conjunction and following clause or group or between adjective and noun or between verb and adverb. Misuse of capital letters should also be avoided in good writing. You can go through the detailed notes on punctuations in units 2 and 3 of module 2 to learn more of the punctuations.

Spelling Errors

In modern English usage, there is a great deal of liberty. Nevertheless, spelling errors should be avoided as much as possible. Make sure you check up on your spellings before and after doing your write-up. In this case, all spelling errors can be detected and addressed before the submission of the write up. For example, putting a hyphen on words such as *how-ever, *some-one or failure to hyphenate a divided word at the end of a line could be considered as errors. In addition, faulty amalgamation, that is joining two or more separate words together e.g. writing *inspite of* instead of *in spite of* should be avoided.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention and discuss some essay writing strategies that have been mentioned in this unit.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have mentioned some pre-writing activities and the need to analyse the topic so that your writing can be interesting. We have also talked about some errors to avoid while writing. Taking notes while you read is important for documentation of ideas and going over your work before submission makes your work to be free of errors.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

planning is important if you want to present a good essay, you need to plan for the materials and resources you need, some of the materials could be books from the library, cassettes, past post-graduate theses etc while some of the resources could be your lecturers, class mates, computers etc. it is important that you minimize errors to the barest minimum, errors in grammar, spellings and punctuation should be avoided.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Read the essay topic below and answer the questions that follow.

‘Education is a means of livelihood:

1. What are the materials and resources you need for this kind of composition?
2. In analysing the topic, what are some of the points you need to take into consideration?
3. Imagine that the assignment is an individual one. Would you want to give your write up to a friend to go through for you? If yes, why? And if No, why?
4. Write a brief introduction for the essay topic above.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 WORD STUDY IN ENGLISH**CONTENTS**

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The English language like any other language is a set of symbols or signs made up of two types of substances- sound and marks. The sounds we make and the marks we produce have meanings in particular languages; depending on which language(s) we speak. The sounds can be recognised in the speech media while the marks can be recognised in writing. Both sounds and marks are organised differently to achieve meanings. To produce a message, both sounds and marks are patterned in form of words, sentences and the paragraph. The word is the smallest of the three and it is usually found between two spaces or pauses.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify a word;
- describe how we arrive at the meanings of words in English;
- recognise some commonly mis-spelt words; and
- get acquainted with how we form some words in English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Words

You will notice that some of us just use words without knowing how they came about. We see a book and call it a book. We see a chair and call it a chair. It is important to note that there is no logical link between words and what they stand for. This means that there is no reason why *a book* should be called *a book* or *a chair* being called *a chair*. Each of them could be called by another name and they are indeed being called by other names in other languages. For example, *a chair* is called *aga* in Yoruba language while *a table* is called *tabili*. The same language may refer to the same object by different names at different times of the history of its speakers.

All words and their meanings are arrived at through a sort of common agreement among the people speaking a particular language. The agreement is not a conscious one; all people just accept what others, fathers, mothers, brothers sisters, uncles say. It is conventional and the convention is not based on the inherent nature of the objects or things being referred to. For example, *a pig* is not called *a pig* because it is dirty. If it had been called a goat at inception, that would have been its name. In fact, animal scientists have informed us that a pig is not even as dirty as we all think. It tends to stay very close to where there is water because it does not have pores on the skin where it can easily let out heat and that is why it has to roll in the water or muddy places to cool itself down. We are equally informed that it does not urinate in the pond or water in which it cools itself. If pressed, it comes out of the water to urinate on the ground. So you can now see that even a pig can be discreet when it comes to toileting.

If you take yourself as an example, you will discover that you just grew up to know that there is a figure in the household where you were born whom everybody calls *daddy* and you joined the others in calling him daddy too. The same thing with *mummy* and all other people you grew up to know. In fact, you just grew up to know that you are called Chinyere or Bola and you respond to that name whenever you are called. What happened was that some people gathered together when you were born to give you that name. If you had been named Tinu or Chukwudi you would have been bearing that name till today. You can then see that it is by a general consensus. It is conventional. There was nothing in you when you were born to suggest that the name you were given is the most appropriate for you or that if you had been given another, something terrible would have happened to you. Although, in Yoruba land, some children are named based on some circumstantial facts. Language changes and the meaning of words therefore changes just like fashion. Meaning of words may shrink, expand or even be completely replaced.

3.2 Combination of Words

As language users, we need to be familiar with how words combine together in English for effective communication and good writing. In English, certain combination of words behaves as if they are single words. This combinatory behaviour is called collocation. Collation is therefore, the appropriate matching of words. Collocations are of two kinds; fixed and unfixed collocations. A fixed collocation behaves like an individual word and wherever one is used, it must be treated as a unit e.g. through *thick and thin*. The component parts of such fixed collocations are unalterable. You cannot add other words to it and the meaning of the fixed collocation has nothing to do with the meaning of the individual words.

Fixed collocations are often referred to as idioms. Phrasal verbs such as *to clean up*, *to look into etc.*, are also expressions with fixed meanings regardless of the individual meanings of the root verbs and prepositions. *To look into* does not mean look + into but it means to investigate or examine.

The two kinds of collocations are not functionally the same in the language. But the habitual use of the first set should be avoided in good writing because they have been overworked and have lost their originality and force. They are therefore referred to as *clichés* (an expression that is no longer effective because of overuse). On the other hand, the use of phrasal verbs should be encouraged or cultivated by every good user of the language

Apart from the fixed collocations, combinations of words are also controlled by their field of reference and this is usually referred to as range of collocation. For example, butter can go *rancid* while fruit becomes *rotten*. This type of collocation is an unfixed one.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. How do we arrive at the meanings of words in English?
2. What are *clichés* in English?

3.3 Formation of Words

In English, words can be formed by adding prefixes and affixes to base forms of words. Words can be made up of at most three principal parts. The core part remains in the middle if all the three parts are present. When the three parts are not present, the core part can then be at the beginning or end. The core part is the base form while the other parts are called affixes. Those that come before the base form are called prefixes and those that come after are called suffixes. Below are examples:

un/beat/able

- un – prefix
- beat - base

- able – affix

An English word may be made up of just the base form e.g. *Clean, big, choice, dirt, the, sell* etc. Examples of words with prefixes only are: *intake, resit, inborn* etc.

Examples of words with suffixes only are: *education, educates, deliberately, mistakes, functional* etc.

In English too, we can have words with more than one base form. This usually happens with compound words e.g. *blackboard, headmaster, Whitehouse* etc.

The function and meanings of words should be learnt to avoid making mistakes or giving wrong interpretation to words. For example, the suffix *-less* always suggests the absence of what the base form means as in *meaningless, useless, careless, etc* which means without meaning, use, care, but this is not the same with a word like *priceless* where the suffix *-less* means the opposite of what it means in the word-*meaningless*. A priceless thing is something that is so valuable that you cannot put any price on it. When you come across words like this and you want to use them in your write-ups, make sure you check your dictionary for their correct usage or else you may find yourself misusing them.

Since you will be doing a lot of writing in this course and some other courses, you need to pay proper attention to words and the way to use them. That is why we have taken time to go through this section and the next two sections carefully to show you that even in compositions, as much as possible, errors of spellings, grammar, punctuation and capitalization should be avoided. This is one of the ways by which we form words in English. You will learn more as we go through the other courses or units

Some Words Commonly Confused

Word	Meaning
acceptance acceptation	consent to receive recognized meaning
access excess	to enter more than required
adapt adopt	to adjust, modify choose, to take
affection affectation	passion, feeling, love pretence
allusion illusion	reference to deception
alternate alternative	happening one after the other options you can choose

affect effect	to produce a change in something result of something
compliment complement	showing regard full amount
comprehensive comprehensible	including all details easily understood
confident confidant	trusting, sure a person you trust
apposite opposite	suitable, appropriate contrary
beneficial beneficent benevolent	advantageous being generous loving to do good
destiny destination	faith goal`
dramatic dramatics	sudden, very great not sincere, exaggerate
elicit illicit eliminate	to draw out prohibit or unlawful to stop or remove
immanent imminent eminent	present everywhere likely to happen soon prominent or distinguished
impregnable impregnate	invincible to make a woman or female animal pregnant
indigent indignant	very poor, destitute feeling of anger or surprise
fatalism fatality	predetermination of events calamity
guerilla gorilla	rebels a very large powerful animal
moral morale	ethical, principle, virtuous spirit, attitude
ordinance ordnance	a rule a large gun on wheels

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention one of the ways by which words are formed in English. The examples you give should be different from the ones already given above.

3.4 Origin of Some English Words

It is interesting to note that many of us use words while speaking and writing and we think they are all English words. The English language has borrowed a lot of words from many places and other countries and that is why at times you find it difficult to find adequate parts of speech for some of them. In this section, I will briefly take you through some words with interesting origins in English.

3.4.1 English Words that Originated from the Names of People

- Biro (ballpoint pen) named after Laslo Biro, its Hungarian inventor.
- Boycott (refuse to deal with) after a landlord in Ireland who made himself unpopular by his treatment of his tenants and was socially isolated.
- Braille (name of a raised writing system used by blind people) from the name of its French inventor- Louis Braille.
- Saxophone (musical instrument) invented by the Belgian- Adolphe Sax.
- Watt (unit of power) from the 18th century Scottish inventor- James Watt.
- Hooligan (a rough lawless youth) from the Irish family name Hooligan.etc

3.4.2 English Words that Come from the Names of Places

- Bedlam (chaos) from the name of a famous London mental hospital once situated where Liverpool street station now stands.
- Spartan (severely simple) from the ancient Greek city of Sparta, famed for its austerity.
- Canter (movement of a horse, faster than a trot but slower than a gallop) a shortening of Canterbury, a town in South-east England.
- Gypsy (member of a particular group of travelling people). These people were once thought to have come from Egypt, hence the name.

3.4.3 Names of Different Kinds of Cloth that Originate from Place Name

- Angora (Ankara)
- Satin (China)
- Gauze (Gaza)
- Suede (Sweden)
- Damask (Damascus)
- etc

3.4.4 Words Borrowed from Other Countries

- **Turkey:** yoghurt, jackal, kiosk, caftan, tulip
- **Holland:** yacht, tattoo, cruise

- **Arabic:** mattress, cipher, algebra, harem, mufti,
- **Germany:** kindergarten, hamburger, blitz, waltz, poodle, snorkel, wanderlust, seminar, dachshund
- **Italy:** ghetto, piano, soprano, ballerina, confetti, fiasco, spaghetti,
- bandit, casino, vendetta
- **Greece:** dogma, drama, psychology, hippopotamus, pseudonym, synonym
- **France:** cuisine, gâteau, chauffeur, boutique, crèche, duvet coup,
- elite, sauté avant-garde, cul-de-sac, biget
- **Latin:** domini, aborigine, meridiem, verbatim
- **Nigeria:** chigger, juju, bogus, okra kanzu, Kora
- **Sierra Leone:** boogie, fandango, gumbo,
- **South Africa:** kwele, oke, impala, impi, indiba, lapa, sangom

You can find more of these words and their meanings of the ones you do not know in the dictionary or the encyclopedia. We may not be able to do all of that in this unit. Apart from this, it is part of your training as a language student that you get used to using your dictionary.

3.4.5 Words that Only Occur in Plural

Scissors, pliers, binoculars, scales, handcuffs, glasses/spectacles,
 Tweezers, shears, pincers (instruments for removing sharp objects)
 Clothes, tights, pyjamas, leggings, shorts, jeans, trousers
 Lodgings (e.g. a room)
 Goods (articles/items) when will the goods arrive?
 Looks – looks are more important in a partner

English has also borrowed words from countries like Portugal, Spain, Russia Japan, Eskimo, Norway, and Farsi. English has taken over words from most of the other languages with which it has had contact. It has taken many expressions from the ancient languages such as Latin and Greek and these borrowings usually have academic or literary associations. The words that are taken from French have a lot to do with cooking, the arts and a more sophisticated lifestyle in general. The words taken from Italy are words connected with music and the plastic arts. German expressions in English have been coined by tourists bringing back new words for new things they saw or by philosophers or historians describing German concepts or experiences. These borrowings usually relate to things which English speakers experienced for the first time abroad.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have tried to go through how words are formed, origin of some words, and combination of words all in an attempt to get you ready for the serious business of writing good compositions. It is assumed that henceforth, you will pay more attention to the words you use, their spellings and use.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that:

- Sounds and marks in a language have meaning and can make up meaningful words,
- there is no logical link between words and what they stand for,
- there are certain words whose sounds are suggestive of their meanings,
- for almost every rule in English, there are exceptions,
- in English, words can be made up of at most three parts,
- in English, there are words with interesting origins.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Below are some commonly misspelt words which have been detected in students' writings over the years. Correct the spellings of the following words if necessary.

- Authentic
- Refrigerator
- Environment
- Argument
- Opportunity
- Illiterate
- Hypothesis
- Privilege
- Unforeseen
- Industrialization
- Architecture

The best way to go through this exercise is to take up your biro and your paper and try the spelling yourself. You know you are working on the net and you could easily set your computer to spell check for you. That method will not help you. Try to do it first before asking the computer to help you. With that method, you can be sure that if you come across the words anywhere you will be able to spell them correctly even where access to the computer is difficult either because of power failure or non-availability of a computer system.

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UNIT 3 BASIC SIMPLE ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS I**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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 - 3.1 Basic Simple Sentence Patterns and Basic Simple Sentences
 - 3.2 Non-Basic Simple Sentences
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Apart from knowing how words are formed, writing essays in English also demands adequate knowledge of sentence constructions, parts of a sentence, their functions, simple and complex sentences etc. In this course however, we shall deal mainly with basic simple sentences because we believe that if you can write simple sentences well then, it will not be difficult for you to write complex sentences when the need arises. Apart from this, it is better to write and be understood than to get things muddled up all in an attempt to impress the reader by writing complex sentences. There are some other grammar courses where you will be taught complex sentences at a deeper level. It is important for you to be conversant with the differences between simple and complex sentences and how the parts function together and differently. This is because you will be doing a lot of writing. Just go through this unit with the following objectives in mind so that you can be fully prepared for the unique exercise of writing.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify and discuss basic simple sentence patterns in English; and
- use basic simple sentences in English in writing some of the self assessment exercises in this unit.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Basic Simple Sentence Patterns and Basic Simple Sentences

There are nine basic simple sentence patterns in English and below are these patterns.

1. Subject <i>The girl</i>	Predicator <i>prayed.</i>	
2. Subject <i>The gentlemen</i>	Predicator <i>watched</i>	Direct object <i>the movie.</i>

Please note that the parts of the sentences are realised by or represented by particular kinds of words or word groups (noun/noun phrases, verbs/ verb phrases etc)

The various parts of the sentence are referred to as elements of structure. The subject/direct object could be a noun or noun phrase while the predicator could be verb /verb phrase. Pattern 1 has only two elements of structure-subject and predicate. Pattern 2 has three elements of structure. Below are the remaining basic simple sentence patterns in English.

3. Subject <i>We</i>	Predicator <i>gave</i>	Indirect object (Oi) <i>Tinu</i>	Direct object (Od) <i>the orange.</i>
4. Subject <i>You</i>	predicator <i>are</i>	Subject complement (Cs) (nominal) <i>a man.</i>	

Nominal in front of subject complement for pattern 4 is an indication that all the items that can occupy that column are either nouns or noun phrases. Apart from this, there is always an intimate relationship between the subject and the subject complement in that the subject complements comments directly on the subject.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Study patterns 1-4 very carefully and construct 5 sentences each for each pattern.

5. Subject <i>She</i>	predicator <i>is</i>	Subject complement (Cs) (adjectival) <i>wonderful.</i>
6. Subject <i>Moji</i>	predicator <i>is</i>	Adverbial <i>in the kitchen.</i>

7. Subject Predicator Direct object (Od) Object complement
His classmates consider him a genius.

8. Subject Predicator Direct object (Od) Object complement(Co) (adjectival)
Some soldiers find such weapons useful.

9. Subject Predicator Direct object Adverbial
Bola put the utensils in the cupboard.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Study pattern 5 - 9 very carefully and construct 5 sentences each for each pattern.

The subject and predicator etc., which make up each pattern, are obligatory parts. Each of them is required for the pattern to be complete. It means they are compulsory and they must be in the structure for it to be complete. Each of these patterns may be expanded by the addition of an appropriate optional (not compulsory) adverbial (i.e. an adverbial which is not obligatory like the adverbials in patterns 6-9).

The following are examples of patterns with optional adverbials.

1. Subject Predicator (Adverbial)
The girl prayed fervently.

3. Subject Predicator Indirect object (Oi) Direct object (Od) (Adverbial)
We gave Tinu the orange for a purpose.

6. Subject predicator Adverbial (Adverbial)
Moji is in the kitchen now.

8. Subject Predicator Direct object(Od) Object complement (Adverbial) (Co) (adjectival)
Some soldiers find such weapons useful here.

Please note that the optional adverbials are put in brackets to show that they are optional and that their statuses are not the same as the ones without brackets. The optional adverbials are optional because a pattern is complete without them. There may be more than one optional adverbial in a basic simple sentence pattern as in the examples below. An optional adverbial is not restricted to just one position but may occur in various positions in the patterns as in the following:

Subject (Adverbial) Predicator (Adverbial)
He usually sleeps on the table.

What is important in this structure is that 'He sleeps'. The adverbials

'usually' and 'on the table' are therefore optional in the sense that we can do without them if we want. They have only succeeded in giving additional information.

Below is another example.

Subject	(Adverbial)	Predicator	(Adverbial)
<i>Soldiers</i>	<i>sometimes</i>	<i>fight</i>	<i>With such weapons.</i>

In this sentence as well, what is important is the fact that 'soldiers fight'. The adverbials 'sometimes' and 'with such weapons' are optional adverbials that we can do without. Have a look at another example:

(Adverbial)	Subject	Predicator	(Adverbial)	(Adverbial)
<i>Yesterday</i>	<i>she</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>to the hall</i>	<i>alone.</i>

Just like the last two sentences, the idea conveyed in the sentence is the fact that 'she came', whoever 'she' was. The adverbials 'yesterday', 'to the hall' and alone are optional adverbials which can be done away with at will.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

What are the pattern numbers of the last three sentences with optional adverbials?

3.2 Non-Basic simple sentences

The non-basic simple sentences can be formed by altering the basic ones in various ways. The formation of the non-basic simple sentences from the basic ones usually involves the following two operations-'insertion' and 'movement'.

3.2.1 Movement

By moving the predicator before the subject (and using a rising intonation) we change the basic simple sentences to non-basic as in the example below:

Subject	predicator	Adverbial
<i>Tunde</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>in the room.</i>

The sentence above can be changed to -

Predicator	Subject	Adverbial
<i>Was</i>	<i>Tunde</i>	<i>in the room?</i>

In the sentence above, the predicator has been moved and it has been made to come before the subject. Hence we have a question arising out of the movement instead of a sentence. All basic simple sentences are statements. Once you reverse the structure and you have a question, it is no longer basic, it is non-basic.

3.2.2 Insertion

You can get a non-basic simple sentence by inserting the item not within the predicator as in the example below.

Subject	predicator	Adverbial
<i>Tunde</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>in the room.</i> (positive)

Subject	predicator	Adverbial
<i>Tunde</i>	<i>was not</i>	<i>in the room.</i> (negative)

3.3 Non-Simple sentences

Please note that non-basic sentence is different from non-simple sentence. The non-simple sentences of English involve combining two or more simple sentences and these are of three main kinds:

- compound sentences
- complex sentences
- compound complex sentences

These have to do with the ways the source sentences are combined in the process of forming them.

A **compound sentence** is usually formed by combining the source sentences using a conjunction or linker such as ‘and’.

Source simple sentence

- The boys played the instruments.*
- The girls sang.*

Resulting compound sentence

The boys played the instruments and the girls sang.

A **complex sentence** is commonly formed by combining the source sentences using a conjunction such as ‘when’ as in the following:

Source simple sentences

- I went there at some time*
- I met him then.*

Resulting complex sentence

I met him when I went there.

A **compound-complex sentence** is formed partly like a compound sentence and partly

like a complex sentence. For example, if after forming the complex sentence:

I met him when I went there.

We use the conjunction 'and' (as in a compound sentence) to combine it with the simple sentence

He asked me the question.

The result will be the compound - complex sentence -

I met him when I went there and he asked me the question.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have been able to go through nine basic simple sentences in English. We have also given examples of each. Each of the patterns can be expanded by inserting optional adverbials

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that there are nine basic simple sentences in English:

1. pattern 1 is subject/predicator
2. pattern 2 is subject /predicator/direct object
3. pattern 3 is subject/predicator/indirect object/direct object
4. pattern 4 is subject/predicator/subject complement (nom)
5. pattern 5 is subject/predicator /subject complement (adj)
6. pattern 6 is subject/predicator/adverbial
7. pattern 7 is subject/predicator/direct object/ object complement (nom)
9. pattern 8 is subject/predicator/direct object/ object complement (adj)
10. pattern 9 is subject/predicator/direct object/ adverbial
11. A **compound sentence** is usually formed by combining the source sentences using a conjunction or linker such as 'and'
12. A **complex sentence** is commonly formed by combining the source sentences using a conjunction such as 'when'
13. A **compound sentence** is usually formed by combining the source sentences using a conjunction or linker such as 'and'.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Construct two examples each of a compound sentence, complex sentence and a compound complex- sentence.
2. Mention and give examples of two ways by which basic simple sentences can be

turned to non-basic simple sentences.

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UNIT 4 BASIC SIMPLE ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS II**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
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 - 3.1.2 Noun phrases
 - 3.1.3 Pronouns
 - 3.2 Pattern 2 Expanded
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 - 3.4 Pattern 4 Expanded
 - 3.5 Pattern 5 Expanded
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- 5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, the basic simple sentences will be expanded using some words and some parts of sentences. The various items or sections in a sentence are referred to as 'elements of structure'. I will not spend much time on this because you must have been taught some of these in some other English courses. Nevertheless, I will still take some time to give some explanations on the various items that make up the patterns. As a university student, you need to know all these things so that you can be well equipped.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the nine basic simple sentence patterns in English;
- use the nine basic simple sentence patterns in English; and
- write sentences using the nine basic simple sentences in English.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Pattern 1 Expanded

Pattern 1 has just two obligatory parts and these are the subject and the predicator. Below are examples.

Subj	Pred.	<i>Birds</i>	<i>fly.</i>	<i>The room</i>	<i>stinks.</i>
<i>Petrol</i>	<i>burns.</i>	<i>John</i>	<i>fell.</i>		
<i>He</i>	<i>died.</i>				

The subject is normally realised in actual simple sentences by nouns, noun phrases or pronouns. The predicator is realised by verbs or verb phrases. The examples listed above have verbs. Below are examples with verb phrases.

Subj	Pred.	<i>Birds</i>	<i>can fly.</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>has died.</i>
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Arema (1995) notes that the commonest type of pattern 1 is one in which the predicator (realised by a verb or verb phrase) expresses an action while the subject is realised by a noun, noun phrase or pronoun which denotes the persons or things that perform the action. With certain verbs, the pattern 1 sentence does not say that the subject performs any action. Arema (1995) notes the following.

1. Birds fly - The subject performs a action.
2. The room stinks (says the subject is in a certain state or condition).
3. Petrol burns (says the subject–petrol has a certain property-(burns)).
4. John fell (tells us that an event affected the subject).
5. He died (tells us that an event affected the subject).

We mentioned the fact that the subject is usually realised by nouns, noun phrases and pronouns. As a result of this, we shall discuss nouns briefly to remind ourselves of what they are and how they are used.

3.1.1 Nouns

Nouns are the names of everything that can be named. They are the name of everything that can be the subject, object, complement or in apposition. Nouns are words such as bird, room, petrol, things names of people and places etc. They are members of an open class (i.e. indefinite). New nouns are added to the class whenever they are required. All names are nouns. There are common nouns and proper nouns. Common nouns are nouns that can be used to refer to any example of a class of persons (boy/girl), places e.g. (town, stadium) etc. Proper nouns are used to refer to particular persons and place e.g. John, Bola, Liberty stadium, Lagos etc

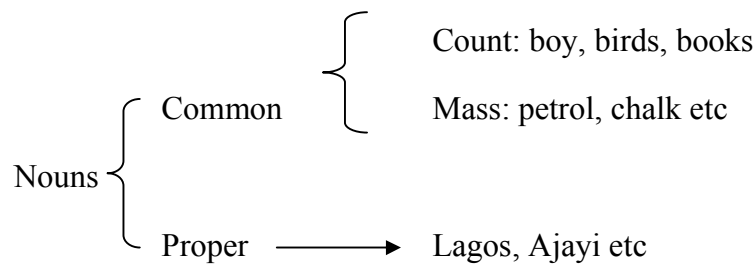
There are two kinds of common nouns-count nouns and mass nouns. Count nouns refer to entities that are regarded as countable e.g. bird, boy etc. Plural forms-(boys,

girls, goats etc). In the plural, most count nouns occur with an-s suffix added to the base form (which is the same as the singular form). Some others appear with e.g.

-es as in boxes. Some appear with -ies as in *ladies* while some have no plural morpheme e.g. sheep.

Mass nouns are common nouns referring to entities that are regarded as uncountable e.g. water and petrol. We cannot count water or petrol but we may say little water, little petrol, much water, a large quantity of petrol.

With a proper noun, there is normally no need to distinguish between a singular form and a plural form because it does not refer to countable things. It is used to refer to particular persons or places etc. The noun subclasses are as follows:



3.1.2 Noun Phrases

A noun phrase is a sequence of words consisting of a noun and its modifiers such as ‘The man’ which is no longer a noun but a noun phrase. In the noun phrase, the modified noun is regarded as the head or central word. A noun phrase may consist of more than one modifier. The following can modify a noun phrase: Possessives eg. My car, our children, his dog, etc. demonstratives e.g. This car that man, those oranges, etc. Please check your ENG101 for more on these.

Please note the following about noun phrases:

1. the article ‘the’ is a special noun modifier known as determiner;
2. determiners are members of a closed class (i.e. one whose membership is limited or fixed). Determiners announce the presence of nouns in the sentences.
3. proper nouns do not normally take any determiner e.g. *The John fell*.

This is an unacceptable sentence in English and that is why you have it preceded by a star. However, a proper noun may be preceded by a determiner when it is used in a special case. Example can be seen: the Okekes or the Bolajis. This means all the family members of Okeke and Bolajis. Once you see that star before any sentence, it means it is an unacceptable sentence in English. It is sad to note that we still find students who put determiners before proper nouns. It should not be so. You should pay attention to all these rules of English usage so that you will make fewer mistakes.

Another common determiner which students confuse at times is ‘a (n)’ The determiner is a before words beginning with a consonant sound e.g.

‘a king’, ‘a town’ ‘a dress’ etc, but it is an before words beginning with a vowel sound (‘an ox’, ‘an egg’, ‘an answer’ etc).

4. Unlike ‘the’ which can be used with singular count nouns, plural count nouns and mass nouns, a(n) can only be used with singular count nouns i.e.:

The room-----

The birds-----

The petrol-----

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. Write out ten words that can take ‘a’ as a determiner.
2. Write out ten words can take ‘an’ as a determiner.

3.1.3 Pronouns

Pronouns are words used instead of nouns. They are used to avoid unnecessary repetitions of nouns in the sentences. Pronouns are members of a closed class, like determiners. They are thus limited in number, and new members of the class are not normally formed. Commonly used pronouns are (I, we, you, she, it, they, and he (personal)). Each of these can be used as subject in the sentence like a noun phrase. The personal pronouns are so called because they are used by the speaker (or writer) to refer to one or other of the three kinds of entities, persons or things technically known as persons. These three entities are the first person – the speaker himself or herself, or the speaker and one or more others (I and We), the second person (the person (s) the speaker is addressing (You) and the third person (one or more other person (s) or things that are mentioned by the speaker.(He, She, It and They).

3.2 Pattern 2 Expanded

This pattern has three parts. Below are examples

Subj	Pred	Direct Object (Od)
<i>Birds</i>	<i>lay</i>	<i>Eggs</i>
<i>Water</i>	<i>caused</i>	<i>the problem</i>
<i>The woman</i>	<i>cooked</i>	<i>Rice</i>
<i>Tinu</i>	<i>thanked</i>	<i>John</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>praised</i>	<i>him</i>

The items used as predicators here are all verbs: lay, caused, cooked, thanked, praised. The item used as subject in each of the example sentences is a noun in examples 1, 2, 4, noun phrase in example 3 and pronoun in example 5. Optional adverbials can be used to expand the sentences. Below are examples.

1. (Of course), birds lay eggs.
2. (Actually), water caused the problem.
3. The woman (quickly) cooked rice.
4. Tinu (then) thanked John.
5. She praised him for the effort.

You will notice that adverbials have been added to the sentences above to expand them. This shows that adverbials are very important and that they are of different varieties. You should be able to construct sentences and good write-ups using these different sentence patterns so that your work can be an interesting one.

For more details of these expanded sentence patterns, see Aremo (1997)

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Go through the verbs listed here and construct pattern 2 sentences with them, one for each verb. Try to expand these sentences using optional adverbials of your own 'work', 'play', 'dig', 'pull', 'destroy'.

3.3 Pattern 3 Expanded

This pattern has four parts. The first two are again, the subject and the predicator. The remaining two parts are both objects- a indirect object and then an direct object.

Subj.	Pred	Indirect Object	Direct Object
<i>Teachers</i>	<i>buy</i>	<i>the pupil</i>	<i>presents.</i>
<i>Tinu</i>	<i>brought</i>	<i>John</i>	<i>water.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>showed</i>	<i>visitors</i>	<i>the cave.</i>
<i>God</i>	<i>sent</i>	<i>them</i>	<i>Manna.</i>
<i>The move</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>music</i>	<i>a boost.</i>

The predicators in the actual sentences are all verbs: *buy, brought, showed, sent, gave*. The subject or direct object is in each case a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. The indirect object is also realised by a noun in 2, 3 and 5, a noun phrase in example 1 or a pronoun in example 4.

Pattern three sentences can also be expanded with optional adverbials. Below are examples.

- *Teachers (often) buy the pupil presents.*
- *Tinu brought Kunle water (in the morning).*
- *They (usually) showed visitors their wedding album.*
- *(Then) God sent them Manna.*
- *The move (really) gave music a boost.*

You can enrich your writing by varying your sentence patterns.

3.4 Pattern 4 Expanded

Pattern 4 has three parts; subject, predicator and subject complement (nominal)

Subj	Pred	Subj Complement (nominal) Cs (nom)
<i>Birds</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>animals.</i>
<i>The winner</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>I.</i>
<i>Water</i>	<i>seems</i>	<i>a problem.</i>
<i>The name</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>John.</i>
<i>It</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>bread.</i>

The subject in each case is a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. The items realising the predicator are all verbs. The subject complement (nominal) is realised in the examples by a noun in examples (1,4,5) a noun phrase in example 3 or a pronoun in example 2.

Examples of pattern four sentences expanded with optional adverbials are listed below. What has been included are the optional adverbials.

- *(In a sense), birds are animals.*
- *The winner was (always) I.*
- *Water seems a problem (in town).*
- *The name (later) became John.*
- *(Of course), it is bread.*

Please note that most of the examples here are from Aremo (1997) and for details of the expanded forms, see Aremo (1997).

3.5 Pattern 5 Expanded

This pattern also has three parts. The parts are subject, predicator and subject complement (adjectival)

Subj	Pred	Subj Comp (adjectival) Cs(adj)
<i>Birds</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>beautiful.</i>
<i>The boy</i>	<i>looks</i>	<i>kind.</i>
<i>Water</i>	<i>appears</i>	<i>scarce.</i>
<i>The name</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>very popular.</i>
<i>The pot</i>	<i>remained</i>	<i>hot.</i>

This pattern is very important because adjectives and adjective phrases function as subject complement. Adjectives and adjective phrases commonly specify the qualities or characteristics of persons or things. Below are some pattern five sentences with optional adverbials.

- *Birds are (naturally) beautiful.*

- *(However), the boy looks kind.*
- *Water appears scarce (everywhere)*
- *The name (soon) became very popular throughout Lagos.*
- *The pot remained hot (for hours).*

3.5.1 Adjectives and Adjectival Phrases

Adjectives are among the open class. They are large in number. Some common adjectives include: *bad, big, easy, fair, good, large, old poor, rich, small, strong, weak* etc.

Adjective phrases may be formed by modifying an adjective with a word like *very* or *too* as in -

- *It is very large.*
- *The name became very popular.*
- *He seems too good.*

Modifiers like *very* and *too* are members of a closed class. They are known as intensifiers. This is because they commonly intensify or heighten the meaning of the head word. There are however some intensifiers which have more or less the opposite effect-lowering or weakening the meaning of the headword.

Intensifiers of this later kind include- ‘somewhat’, ‘rather’ and ‘pretty’:

It is	{	rather	small.
		somewhat	

She is pretty good. (Not as good as you think)

In descriptive essays, you need to master of a lot of adjectives for your work to be interesting otherwise, your essay will look dull and lifeless.. For more on adjectives, see Quirk et al 1985 and Aremo (1997).

3.6 Pattern 6 Expanded

This pattern has three parts- subject, predicator and adverbial. We have mentioned some of the uses of adverbials in this unit in that they are what we use to expand the simple basic sentences. Examples are

Subject	Predicator	Adverbial
<i>The birds</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>in the cage.</i>
<i>The boy</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>here.</i>
<i>The bread</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>on the table.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>appeared</i>	<i>in a hurry.</i>
<i>John</i>	<i>seems</i>	<i>in the mood.</i>

The adverbial in the third part in the pattern is obligatory like each of the other two parts. This pattern can still be expanded with optional adverbials. Below are examples.

- *The birds are (always) in the cage.*
- *The boy was here (last week).*
- *The bread is (already) on the table.*
- *They appeared in a hurry (then).*
- *(Right now), John seems in the mood.*

The items realising adverbial parts in this pattern can be adverbs and adverb phrases. These are used to supply various kinds of information in respect of time, place, manner etc.

You will notice that some of the adverbial phrases are preposition headed- that is, they have preposition starting them e.g. *in the room, at the door, on the table, in a hurry, beside the bed*. They are of two main kinds-simple prepositions (consisting of one word) and compound prepositions consisting of more than one word. The following are examples of simple prepositions- *above, across, after, against, among, around, at before behind, below, beneath, beyond, by down, during, from inside of, off, outside, over, past, since, than, through, throughout, to toward (American) towards (British) under, up, until, with, without*.

Some compound prepositions are:

along with, apart from, out of, together with, due to, because of, instead of.

You need to master the use of these for coherence and variety in your work.

Patterns seven, eight and nine can also accommodate optional adverbials. Even though pattern nine has obligatory adverbials, it can still accommodate optional adverbials. For details, see Aremo (1997).

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to take you fully through six of the simple sentences and their expanded forms. It is important for you to be able to construct good sentences as this is the ladder upon which continuous writing rests. To expand all the basic simple sentence patterns, optional adverbials should be added.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. The basic simple sentences can be expanded by adding optional adverbials.
2. The subject in each case is either a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun.

3. Commonly used pronouns are (I, we, you, she, it, they, and he (personal).
4. Adjectives and adjective phrases commonly specify the qualities or characteristics of persons or things.
5. The items realising adverbial parts in pattern 6 can be adverbs and adverb phrases.
6. The adverbial phrases are preposition headed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write out ten examples of pattern 6 sentences with preposition headed adverbials. Go through the examples you were given on pattern 6 so as to remind yourself of what preposition headed adverbials are.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 CONCORD IN ENGLISH**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Concord Relationships
 - 3.1.1 Concord of Person
 - 3.2 Number Concord/Notational Concord
 - 3.2.1 Singular Nouns
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Concord is also called agreement in English grammar. It is the agreement between the components of the sentence. Concord is a major problem for some second language learners of English. It is even evident in some people's spoken language. No matter how interesting a lecture or presentation may be, if it is full of concord errors, the audience may lose concentration. Even if it is a sermon, if you are not careful as a preacher, you may not get the desired effect of your preaching on the congregation. This therefore makes this unit on concord an all important unit in this course. Even in your essay, there must be grammatical agreements.

As mentioned earlier, concord is the formal agreement in person, number, gender or tense between two or more parts of a sentence. It is formal in the sense that the use of one necessitates the use of another. For example in the present tense of the verb 'to be', 'I' can only be combined with 'am', and vice versa. This may be called bilateral concord. Also, 'we' can only be combined with 'are' in the present tense.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the concord relationships in specified sentences; and
- construct sentences without concord errors.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Concord Relationships

Arema (1995) notes that the rule of concord between the subject item and the predicator item goes thus:

A singular subject is used with a singular predicator. A plural subject is used with a plural predicator.

Example:

1. a noun phrase with a singular count noun as headword e.g.
The man sings well.
The woman dances well.
2. a mass noun or a noun phrase with a mass noun as headword e.g..
Petrol burns easily. The water looks dirty.
3. a proper noun e.g..
Bola helps us sometimes
John visits us often.
4. any one of the third person singular pronouns –*he, she and it* (commonly substituted for one or other of the items mentioned in 1-4 above).
She dances well.

It {
burns easily.
Looks dirty.

It {
cries often.
sings beautifully.

She visits us often/She helps us often

In matters of subject/predicator concord, mass nouns and proper nouns are treated as singular nouns.

A plural subject means one realised by:

1. a plural count noun or a noun phrase with a plural count noun as headword

Boys {
The boys } like rice.

2. any of the plural personal pronouns- *we, you and they*

We	}	eat yam regularly.
You		
They		

Thus we have sentences such as:

He eats----- singular predicator

They eat----- plural predicator

Arema (1995) notes that there is what he refers to as singular concord between the subject and the predicator - i.e.

The boy eats yam daily.

(singular subject + singular predicator)

Plural concord

The boys eat yam daily

(plural subject + plural predicator)

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Construct five sentences with singular subjects. Make the subject of two of them to be nominal groups, that is, more than one item. E.g. ‘the boy’ as opposed to ‘boy’ which is one item.

3.1.1 Concord of Person

This occurs between a noun or pronoun and the pronouns referring to it, e.g. There must be agreement between the subject and the object in terms of gender, number etc.

He, she, it *goes*---

My brother *thinks*—

Unilateral concord of person occurs between a subject in the first or second person singular, or in one of the three persons of the plural, e.g.

- I, (you, we, they) *go*--- Some *say*-----
- His parents *live*----
- I, he, (she, etc) *was*----
- You (we, they etc) *were*----

In descriptive sentences, both the subject-pronoun and the verb agree in number i.e.

- *They are very nice people.*
- *Are those your children?*
- *It is they who arrange everything.*

Plural Nouns

Sometimes, a noun in the plural form, more or less distinctly denotes a singular idea. For example, names of games – billiards, dominoes, draughts etc are all in the plural form. You can have sentences such as the following:

- *Billiards is not exclusively a men's game.*
- *Draughts is not entirely a game of mathematical calculation.*

A plural subject may consist of two or more coordinated pronouns in the singular, e.g.

- *John and Mary have gone.*

When two coordinated nouns form a semantic unit, the verbal predicate may take a singular form e.g.

- *A cart and horse was seen at a distance.*
- *The United States of today is nine times as large as the United States of 1800.*
- *Is the United States imperialist?*

3.2 Number Concord/Notional Concord

The rule of number concord (being both singular or plural) between the subject and the predicator only applies when the verb used as predicator is in the present tense, it does not apply when the verb is in the past tense. Thus we have sentences such as:

- *The boy goes there every day.*
- *The boys go there every day.*

With a past tense verb, we have sentences such as:

- *The boy went there every day.*
- *The boys went there every day.*

You will notice that the past tense of the verb *go* which is *went* is the same for both singular and plural. The concord relationship between the subject and the predicator is only emphasised with the present forms i.e. *go /goes*.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Construct five sentences each with the present and past forms of the verbs you choose. Each pair of sentences should indicate the number concord for both singular and plural.

3.2.1 Singular Nouns

Singular nouns denoting a number of individuals take a plural verb when the persons composing the group are thought of individually. A singular verb is therefore used when the group is thought of collectively, e.g.

- The crowd *were* deeply affected.
- An immense crowd *was* assembled. My family *are* early risers.
- His family *was* an old one.
- The majority of the stickers *are* already resuming work.
- The government majority in the lower house *was* perilously small.

Aremo (1995) notes that the equational verb –‘Be’ is the most unusual verb in English. It can be found in more forms than any other verb. Other verbs have a single past tense form but ‘Be’ has two—i.e. *was* / *were*. Other verbs have two present tense forms, ‘Be’ has three i.e. *am*, *is*, *are*. The use of any of these forms depends on the kind of item. (Singular count noun/ plural count noun) Like other verbs, ‘Be’ as predicator must be in concord with the subject item. Please note that even though it was earlier stated that the rule of number concord between subject and predicator only applies when the verb is used in the present tense, with the verb ‘Be’, it is different. It affects both the past and the present forms. As a result, ‘is’ (present) and ‘was’ (past) are regarded as singular verbs. Below are examples:

The girl
She { is now a University student.

The man
He { was a rogue.

‘Are’ (present) and ‘were’ (past) are plural verbs used with plural subjects. i.e.

The women
They

{ are nursing mothers.

The women
They

{ were nursing mothers.

It is important to note that ‘I’ (singular pronoun) is used as subject with ‘am’ (present) and ‘was’ (past). i.e.

I am now a business man.

I was once a business man

You should also note that subjects realised by ‘you’ (singular or plural) are used. With *are* (present) and *were* (past).

Singular - You are now a teacher.

Plural - You were once teachers.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The rule of concord is a very important one in English. Without a good mastery of it, we will all be writing and committing many errors. In this unit, we have been able to go through some essential things to note on concord. Some of the sections may look like repetitions; go through them all and you will see the essence of whatever you think is repeated.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. A singular subject is used with a singular predicator.
2. A plural subject is used with a plural predicator.
3. In descriptive sentences, both the subject and the verb agree in number.
4. Singular nouns denoting a number of individuals take a plural verb when the persons composing the group are thought of individually.
5. Plural nouns, in spite of its plural form, more or less distinctly denote a singular idea.
6. The educational verb –‘Be’ is the most unusual verb in English
7. Other verbs have two present tense forms, ‘Be’ has three i.e. *am, is, are*.
8. Other verbs have a single past tense form but ‘Be’ has two—i.e. *was / were*.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Construct sentences with all the variants of the verb 'to be' with special reference to the singular and plural forms.

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	Paragraph and Paragraph Development
Unit 2	The Grammar of Paragraphs I
Unit 3	The Grammar of Paragraphs II
Unit 4	Beyond the Sentence I

UNIT 1 PARAGRAPH AND PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT**CONTENTS**

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Qualities of a Good Paragraph
3.1.1	Unity
3.1.2	Coherence
3.1.3	Emphasis
3.1.4	Completeness
3.1.5	Clarity
3.2	Structural Aspects of a Paragraph
3.2.1	The Topic Sentence
3.2.2	Paragraph Development
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A paragraph is a section of an essay that consists of many sentences expressing a single subject. Sentences make up a paragraph and paragraphs make up an essay or a composition. Paragraphs are used to express thoughts and there are two aspects of a good paragraph- the thematic and the structural aspects. The first sentence of a paragraph starts with a margin or with double spacing.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the essential features of a good paragraph; and
- write coherent paragraphs on any chosen essay topic or composition.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Qualities of a Good Paragraph

A good paragraph should possess the following qualities: unity, coherence, emphasis, completeness and clarity.

3.1.1 Unity

One of the essential features of a paragraph is unity. To achieve this, a paragraph must deal with one central theme. This theme is what will be fully developed through the other sentences in the paragraph. All the sentences in a paragraph must be related to the theme that the paragraph is emphasising. Occasionally, writers get carried away with an aspect of the central theme of a paragraph to the extent that they digress. This digression may eventually make their write-up or paragraph uncoordinated or disjointed. You must guard against this. Below is an example of a paragraph that lacks unity.

The management committee at its meeting on December 8th agreed that the personnel manager should be instructed to employ more staff. The committee also recommended that the canteen be closed down because of poor management. The managing director complained about the leaking tap in his personal office. The management committee booked an appointment for a visit with the Managing Director.

This paragraph violates paragraph unity in that all the sentences look like topic sentences which could be fully developed in separate paragraphs each. Sentence 1 talks about the actions of the committee. Sentence 2 talks about another action of the committee which looks unrelated to the first. Sentence 3 is not about the actions of the committee at all. Instead, it is about the complaints of the managing director concerning the leaking tap in his personal office. The paragraph loses its unity further here. The last sentence also mentioned one of the actions of the committee. Go through the paragraph below which is an example of a paragraph that has unity.

The management committee on December 8th agreed that the personnel manager should be instructed to employ more staff. The management committee had been meeting for hours before they took some vital decisions concerning the company. The committee noted that the company had been short-staffed and that production had dropped drastically. The few members of staff had written a letter of protest on excess work load without pay to the management committee recently.

All the sentences in this paragraph have something to do with the central theme on the decision of the management committee. Actually, the first sentence is the topic sentence and the other three sentences when summarised express the need for more staff as a result of recent happenings in the company. Sentence 2, explains the fact that the committee had to meet for hours before the decision to employ more staff was taken.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Go through the paragraph below and say whether it has unity or not. Justify your answer.

Since compositions basically serve the purpose of communicating ideas, it is particularly important that they are written in simple and straight forward language. The vocabulary (i.e. the words used) should not be unnecessarily difficult. Common, everyday words---if they are equally effective---should be preferred to the rarely used ones. We should not aim at sending the audience to the dictionary with every word. And the sentences used should generally be as short as possible: none of them should be so long and involved that it becomes a major task getting at the meaning it seeks to express. We impress no one, but perhaps ourselves, when our composition fails as a piece of communication.

Aremo (2001:02)

3.1.2 Coherence

Another quality of a good paragraph is coherence. This has to do with having the parts of a paragraph in a meaningful order. That is, one paragraph must link with another paragraph. The ideas presented in a paragraph must be orderly and understandable. There must be a logical sequence of ideas. These can be attained through the use of conjuncts or transitional words such as *however, nevertheless, in addition, consequently, indeed, finally, as a result, in spite of, in contrast to, again* etc. Coherence can also be achieved through the precise use of pronouns to avoid repetition of some nouns. The third way by which coherence can be achieved is through the repetition of specific ideas, although not necessarily the same words or phrases. You should try to avoid sentences that start with ‘This is because---’. The pronoun ‘this’ could be vague in such sentences.

3.1.3 Emphasis

Emphasis is another quality that a paragraph can have which can give it paragraph unity. This can be achieved through the use of contrasting sentences, and repetition of ideas. Look at the passage below and discuss how emphasis has been used to drive home the writer’s point.

Delivery is deemed to have taken place when the vehicle is taken over at the

workshop by the customer or his authorised representative. In case of delivery at a place other than the workshop, this is at the customer's risk. If the customer fails to take delivery within 7 days of being notified that the vehicle is ready, a garage fee is chargeable. Dispatch of the invoice to the customer shall be deemed to be notification that the vehicle is ready for delivery.

(Extract from: The use of English a Text (Department of English OAU pg 193).

3.1.4 Completeness

A Paragraph must not be elliptical. That is, it should not stop in a way that the reader would be kept hanging. A paragraph must be void of fragmentation. A paragraph is deemed complete when, within the expected lines, a detailed point is expressed to satisfy the reader's interest. When a paragraph is incomplete, it puts the reader in to an unnecessary suspense instead of satisfying the reader's interest. Consider the following incomplete paragraph:

'Look out', shouted his mother in panic. He saw it nearly too late; he swerved sharply to the left bringing the car to halt were inches short of a telegraph pole on the off-side of the road.

A haphazard supply of information is really provocative to a reader. It creates unnecessary curiosity. When completed, the reader can have a good sense of fulfillment instead of creating unwanted anxiety. Consider a complete version of the paragraph:

'Look out', shouted his mother in panic. He saw it nearly too late; he swerved sharply to the left bringing the car to halt were inches short of a telegraph pole on the off-side of the road. He had very narrowly avoided a head-on collision with a lorry. Indeed, he had been very fortunate for his vehicle would have somersaulted a thousand and one times. He had mistaken the oncoming vehicle for a motor cycle because it had only a single headlamp, which the driver had not dipped. It was at the last minutes that the 'motor cycle 'had suddenly metamorphosed in to a lorry-with a near disastrous consequences. (Extract from New Oxford English course Book 2)

3.15 Clarity

By clarity, we mean that sentences in a paragraph should be well explained so that the reader will not be thrown into confusion. The sentences that make up a paragraph should not be ambiguous. The sentences should be direct and simple. A paragraph is considered to be void of clarity when the sentences that make it up are ambiguous to the reader. Sentences are ambiguous when the writer uses unnecessary high sounding word, complex sentences and incomplete comparison. Also, when your paragraph is

not well punctuated and void of correct use of tenses and spellings, it will lack clarity.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Write a well constructed paragraph of about 150 words on any of the following topics.

1. My future career
2. My favourite film star

3.2 Structural Aspects of a Paragraph

A paragraph is a composite whole which should include at least three of the following parts-topic sentence, development, documentation, application or conclusion (if it is an only paragraph or a last paragraph in a write up).

3.2.1 The Topic Sentence

A paragraph deals with one main idea which should be relevant to what the whole essay is all about. This main idea is contained in the topic sentence. The other sentences should be closely connected with the topic sentence and this gives the paragraph its unity and internal consistency. The topic sentence need not be the very first sentence. The writer may decide to discuss an issue first and then conclude towards the end by putting the topic sentence last.

3.2.2 Paragraph Development

Paragraph development is closely linked with the writer's thought processes and concepts. Logical processes are involved in the presentation of arguments and ideas. The kind of statements we write should be determined by your perception of the truth, verifiable facts, objectivity and relevant details of what we hope to present. A paragraph should not be developed haphazardly and you should be careful of unnecessary generalisations and fallacies. That is, you should not say things based on assumptions.

1. *'Exercise is good; therefore, everybody should exercise'*

This statement is fallacious because, a person suffering from a heart disease is always advised not to do exercises.

2. *'If I had not taught you to write, you would never have learnt anything about writing'*

The statement above is also fallacious because somebody else would have taught him/her to write.

You must try to develop your paragraphs based on substantiated facts. A paragraph can also have evidence of documentation or application of some kind. In whatever way

any of these parts feature in your work, you should try to make sure they are well presented. For example if you are doing some documentation, you should make sure that the references are included and that contributors are acknowledged where necessary.

The following passage contains certain fallacies and illogicalities. Can you identify them?

Students should be allowed to look at their textbooks during examinations. After all, surgeons have x-rays to guide them during an operation; lawyers have briefs to guide them during a trial; carpenters have blueprints to guide them when they are building a house. Why then shouldn't students be allowed to look at their textbooks during an examination?

Extract from, *The Use of English a Text* (Compiled by the Department of English, OAU pg 180).

Paragraph Opening

The way you start your paragraph is very important. The strategy to use depends on the subject matter. The language also depends on the purpose of the write up. If it is a magazine article, the language may be different from when it is a formal essay for presentation as a proposal. You could start by defining a concept that you hope to write on or the explanation of an idea.

Concluding Paragraph

The concluding paragraph is as important as the opening paragraph. Many people conclude by summarising the main points so that the reader would be reminded of the writer's line of thinking or argument as the case may be. A lot however depends on the subject matter.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has been able to expose you to the essential details on paragraph development and management. The development of a paragraph is closely linked with the writer's thought processes and concepts. In an attempt to develop a good paragraph, you should be careful of overgeneralizations or assumption and unsubstantiated facts.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that

1. Paragraphs are used to express thoughts,
2. The two aspects of a paragraph are theme and structure,
3. One of the essential features of a paragraph is unity,
4. A paragraph must deal with a central theme,

5. A paragraph must not violate paragraph unity,
6. Another quality of a good paragraph is coherence,
7. Coherence has to do with having parts of a paragraph in a meaningful order,
8. Coherence can be achieved through the use of conjuncts and transitional words such as however, nevertheless, in addition, consequently, indeed, as a result-- etc

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write a paragraph of about 100 words on any of the topics listed below. The topic sentence should appear in the paragraph but not necessarily at the beginning.

1. Rebellion is a vice in the youth of nowadays.
2. What I'll do if I am made the president of Nigeria.
3. Internet services are a blessing to humanity.
4. I would rather have a male child than a female child.
5. The prospect of a good job is refreshing to the soul.
6. Banks offer a wide range of services to their customers.
7. Living in a village could be advantageous.
8. Daily exercise is essential to everyone's health.
9. Should capital punishment be introduced as a way of curbing societal vices?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 THE GRAMMAR OF PARAGRAPHS I**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Punctuation in English
 - 3.1.1 The Full Stop (.)
 - 3.1.2 The Question Mark (?)
 - 3.1.3 The Exclamation Mark (!)
 - 3.1.4 The Comma (,)
 - 3.2 Conjuncts
 - 3.3 Disjuncts
 - 3.4 Adjuncts
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Unlike spoken language which has a number of devices through which we can identify long and short pauses or variations in tone that can help us determine the meaning of utterances, written language depends heavily on punctuation for meaningful interpretation. King (2000:156) sees punctuation as:

a system capable of conveying force, intonation, urgency, tension doubt, rhythm and passion, while ever abandoning its duty to consistency and clarity of meaning

Quirk et al. (1985) notes that there are two principles underlying the punctuation system and these are separation and specification. Details of these can be seen in Quirk et al (1985). See the reference at the end of this unit. In the content section we shall deal with the different kinds of punctuations and their uses.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- punctuate sentences using appropriate punctuation marks; and
- identify the different punctuation marks in any written discourse.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Punctuation in English

According to Theodore Bernstein, Punctuation marks are traffic signs and signals placed along the reader's road. They tell him when to slow down and when to stop, and sometimes they warn him of nature of the road.

The main purpose of punctuation marks is to give your writing a meaning by helping you to present your ideas in clear, well demarcated sentences. Punctuation marks should not be used indiscriminately. They should be used when necessary. Some people are heavy punctuators while some are light. Legal language may require heavy punctuation while common writings such as letters may require light punctuation. Even though there are some underlying principles you must follow to be well understood, punctuation could also be a matter of personal taste. Below are some common punctuation marks in English.

3.1.1 The Full Stop (.)

The full stop or period is an important punctuation mark in English. It is surprising that many people write without putting full stops at the end of their sentences. If you write and you do not put a full stop or you forget to put a full stop, it means you have not ended that sentence. It means you still want to continue that sentence because there is nothing like the longest sentence. You can keep on writing and as long as you put the appropriate linkers, you can write a sentence as long as a whole room. In essence, what I am trying to say is that you should always remember to put a full stop when you think you are through with a sentence. The full stop could be used in the following ways:

- a. For marking the end of a statement e.g.
 1. *She danced.*
 2. *The boy and girl washed their clothes in the water, fetched two buckets of water and went home to cook for their parents.*
- b. For marking the end of a command e.g.
 1. *Come immediately.*
 2. *Stop shouting.*
 3. *Answer the question clearly and directly.*
 4. *Please go straight to the point.*
- c. For indicating abbreviations i) Acronyms e.g.
 1. *O.A.U (Organisation of African Unity) (Obafemi Awolowo University)*
 2. *U.N (United Nations)*
 3. *D.G (Director General)*

The full stop is however optional in the following abbreviations, we may also have – OAU, DG, UN without the periods.

ii) A person's initials e.g.

1. *J.J Okon*
2. *M.A Olateju*
3. *T.O Ajayi*

The full stop is also optional here. It is therefore possible to write- JJ Okon, MA Olateju or TO Ajayi

iii) Abbreviations on the model of the following:

1. *Vol. (Volume)*
2. *Gen. (General)*
3. *Jan. (January)*

The full stop is omitted here only when the last letter of the abbreviation is also the last letter of the word. For example - Mr(.) Mister, Dr(.) Doctor

3.1.2 The Question Mark (?)

The question mark is another important punctuation mark in English. It can be used in the following ways:

a. to mark the end of a question e.g.

1. *When are you coming?*
2. *What is your father's name?*
3. *Is it true that Kunle has won a scholarship?*

The examples above are the conventional ways of asking questions. The question mark can also be used to mark the end of a statement with a high intonation in form of a question e.g.

1. *He is coming tomorrow?*
2. *You came home with him from the airport?*

Please note that it is usual to mark with a full stop the end of question used to give an order or make a request e.g.

1. *Will you please shut the door.*

But also:

2. *Will you please shut the door?*

Please note also that you do not have to put a full stop after the question mark again because it already has a stop below the curve.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Punctuate the following sentences

1. I will go to Lagos tomorrow
2. What is your Celtel Number
3. Give me your notebook now (with a rising tone)
4. What of the ball point I told you about
5. The weather is fine today

3.1.3 The Exclamation Mark (!)

The exclamation mark is normally used at the end of an exclamation; something of a great surprise on the negative or the positive side some people see it as one of the part of speech but it is not. This is because it does not possess any grammatical function as other parts of speech in English. It is rather a punctuation mark e.g.

1. *How wonderful!*
2. *Exciting!*
3. *Man, this is awful!*

Please note that the exclamation mark may also be used to mark the end of a vigorous command, statement or question. These are produced in the spoken form with a raised voice. Where the vigorous commands, statements and questions are rendered as they should, the response is always immediate.

I once had the opportunity of teaching a group of students this aspect of English and a set of students who came late to the class were just entering the class when I said *Get out!* as an example of a vigorous command. The students who were already at the door wanting to come in went back immediately. The other students inside the class room burst into laughter and one of them went to call them in telling them I was not referring to them but that I just gave an example of a vigorous command. So it can be very effective if well rendered.

Vigorous command

1. *Get out!*
2. *Close the window!*
3. *Kneel down there!*

Vigorous statement

1. *I will not answer you!*
2. *You met the window closed!*
3. *I am coming tomorrow!*

Vigorous question

1. *What did you just say!*
2. *Are you alright at all!*
3. *What do you want!*

3.1.4 The Comma (,)

The comma is, apart from the full stop, the most frequently used punctuation mark yet it is the most misused punctuation mark by writers in English. It is commonly used:

- a. For marking out the end of the first two clauses linked by a coordinator in a compound or compound complex sentence, particularly when the coordinator is *but*.
 1. *He came, but his presence was not felt.*
 2. *He passed, but his mother was not pleased with his grades.*
 3. *The students at NOUN really love their work, and they have a great deal of admiration for their hard working instructors.*

In each of the sentences above, there are two clauses. In sentence 1 for example, *He came* is a clause. *His presence was not felt* is another clause. *But* is a coordinating conjunction separating the first clause from the second. The same thing applies to the other sentences. The comma marks out the end of the first clause. However, a comma does not need to appear after the first clause if both clauses have identical subjects or if the sentence as a whole is extremely short e.g.

She greeted him and (she) smiled.

In the sentence above, *she* is the subject of the first clause, *she greeted him*.

The second clause has only the predicator but *she* is put in bracket to show that the subject of the second clause is ellipted. That is, when you read the sentence you do not have to read the ellipted subject along. The sentence should read:

She greeted him and smiled

- b. For marking out items (words, phrases, or clauses coordinated in a series).

Words e.g.

1. If you like, you can *sing, dance, jump* and *roll* on the ground.
2. *Bola* gave me some *beautiful, precious, designer* shoes.

Phrases e.g.

1. The man bought *two he-goats, five bags of beans, six gallons of groundnut oil(,)* and a hundred big yams

Clauses e.g.

1. *He jumped down, (he) danced a little, (he) picked up the dirty note (,) and (he) went away still dancing.*

You will notice that the words, phrases, and clauses in italics follow each other and they are separated by the comma. The subjects in the bracket are ellipted. They are only put there to show you what the clauses would look like if the subjects were to be repeated. Please note that the comma preceding the coordinator between the two final items is optional except when its omission would lead to a mis-reading of the sentence. Although for stylistic purpose, at times you can have cases where no coordinator is used as in:

They can, they will, they must.

- c. For separating adverbials (conjuncts, disjuncts and adjuncts)

3.2 Conjuncts

Conjuncts can be said to serve the primary purpose of indicating a connection between sentences in a piece of spoken or written language. They are in meaning, very important connective devices that a student needs to know about and be prepared to use. Conjuncts separate like conjunctions. They may serve to link like the components of a sentence but can do more than that. A conjunct takes off where a conjunction leaves off. Some commonly occurring conjuncts are- *however, nevertheless, moreover, furthermore, what's more, in addition, in fact, in brief, in sum, indeed, all the same, in other words, by the way, as a result, by contrast, on the other hand, meanwhile etc.* While writing you may need to buttress your points by using some specific words for stylistic effect and conjuncts can be right at hand to provide such effect. For more on conjuncts, see Quirk et al, 1985. You can also read the editorial articles of some broadsheet newspapers. Below are examples of conjuncts in sentences:

However, those are the visitors to expect. Those, *however,* are the visitors to expect. Those are the visitors to expect, *however.*

Shifting the word may involve a shifting of emphasis, a different intonation, a different focusing of the message. Placing a connector in a particular place may mean you are doing some stylistic work on the sentence or language piece.

Conjuncts (phrases) - Conjuncts may be in the form of phrases as in the examples below. They can be at the beginning, middle or end. Just as mentioned earlier, shifting the positions of conjuncts means shifting the position of the comma and emphasis.

In other words, we were fully occupied. We were, *in other words*, fully occupied. We were fully occupied, *in other words*.

Conjuncts (clauses) - Conjuncts could also be in clauses. Examples are:

To conclude, they were all prepared for the great event. They were, *to conclude*, all prepared for the great event they were all set for the great trip, *to conclude*.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Punctuate the following sentences.

In Africa an important celebration like marriage is not a matter for the nuclear family alone the members of the extended family also participate actively.

3.3 Disjuncts

Disjuncts are words, phrases or clauses that express opposition of ideas. They are readily detachable, but serve to make some kind of comment on the ideas expressed.

Words e.g.

1. *Naturally, he hated having to speak to her.*
2. *He, naturally, hated having to speak to her.*
3. *He hated having to speak to her, naturally.*

Phrases e.g.

1. *In all frankness, he is the one I prefer.*
2. *He is, in all frankness, the one I prefer.*
3. *He is the one I prefer, in all frankness.*

Clauses e.g.

1. *to tell the truth, we are not sure of him.*
2. *We are, to tell the truth, not sure of him.*
3. *We are not sure of him, to tell the truth.*

3.4 Adjuncts

Adjuncts are words or phrases joined or added to an expression but are not necessary part of it. They can also be words added to qualify or modify other words in a sentence. Some are adverbials. The most usual kinds of linking adjuncts are expressions of space and time.

Words e.g.

1. *Tomorrow*, we shall all visit him.
2. We shall, *tomorrow*, all visit him.

Phrases e.g.

1. *In those days*, that would be a taboo.
2. That would, *in those days*, be a taboo.

Commas can be used for separating vocatives (a noun or the special form of a noun used in some languages when addressing someone or something) e.g.

1. *Bola*, listen to what I have to say.
2. Listen, *my friend*, to what I have to say.

In all the examples given above, you will notice how the comma has effectively been used to give meaning relations to the expressions.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to introduce you to four common punctuation marks in English-the full stop, the comma, the question mark, and the exclamation mark. You will notice that we stopped with the comma. This is as a result of lack of space. The remaining punctuation marks will be discussed in the next unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. the full stop or period is an important punctuation mark in English
2. it is usual to mark with a full stop the end of question used to give an order or make a request.
3. the question mark can also be used to mark the end of a statement with a high intonation in form of a question.
4. the comma is, apart from the full stop, the most frequently used punctuation mark
5. the comma can be used for separating adverbials (conjuncts, disjuncts and

adjuncts)

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Punctuate the following passage:

In other words the education now provided is designed for the few who are intellectually stronger than their fellows it induces among those who succeed a feeling of superiority and leaves the majority of the others hankering after something they will never obtain

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 THE GRAMMAR OF PARAGRAPHS II**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
- 3.1 The Colon (:)
- 3.2 The Dash (-)
- 3.3 Semi-Colon (;)
- 3.4 Brackets (Parenthesis) ()
- 3.5 Quotation Marks or Inverted Commas (“ ”)
- 3.6 Italics
- 3.7 The Apostrophe (‘ ’)
- 3.8 The Hyphen
- 3.9 Capital Letters (ABC)
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we shall discuss some of the other commonly used punctuation marks i.e. the colon, semi- colon, the dash, the apostrophe, brackets, quotation marks and the hyphen. These are punctuation marks you may need from time to time while writing and using them appropriately will make your work interesting and they give it some form of interesting aesthetics. Just go through the unit under the various subheadings for good understanding of the unit. Please note that the categorisations in this unit are as itemised by Aremo 1995. See reference at the end of this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- punctuate sentences using appropriate punctuation marks; and
- identify the different punctuation marks in any written discourse.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Colon (:)

The colon is commonly used:

- a. to link two clauses (the second being a restatement, an explanation or an expression of the first) within a compound or compound complex sentence e.g.

These men are credit to their village and country: their good deeds will be remembered for long.

If you study the sentence above very well, you will notice that the second clause after the colon is an explanation of the first.

- b. to introduce a list, in which case it is often preceded by *namely*, *such as*, etc e.g.

He spoke on several of the issues: shortage of liquid cash, poverty, injustice, unemployment, industrial unrest, and disease.

- c. to introduce direct speech particularly in dramatic dialogue e.g.
He said: 'I am the president of this association'
- d. to introduce a quotation as in e.g.
She was very fond of those immortal words by Shakespeare: 'Cowards die many times before their death'

3.2 The Dash (-)

The dash is used:

- a. to mark off an informal insertion, particularly one with internal commas e.g.
The girls - I should in fact call them the call girls- have now taken up arms.
- b. to introduce a list, when a less formal mark than a colon is required e.g.
She had all she wanted – sharpeners, rubbers, pencils, rulers, ink, bags, and paper.
- c. to introduce a summary statement after a list e.g.
We bought pencils, rubbers, pens, ink, rulers and paper- in short, all we need.

A colon can replace the dash, I (c), but the colon will be considered more formal than the dash.

3.3 Semi-Colon (;)

The semi colon is a heavier version of the comma but it is less frequently needed than the comma as a punctuation mark. Aremo (1995) notes that it is commonly used to -

- a. mark out the end of the first of two clauses linked by a coordinator in a compound or compound complex sentence e.g.

He was a very reasonable young man; nevertheless he found it but difficult to make it in life.

- b. to link two or more clauses in a compound or compound–complex sentence e.g.

You certainly can come; it is everybody's affair.

- c. to mark out the boundary between coordinated clauses or phrases with internal comma punctuation for the sake of clarity e.g.

The woman, whom you spoke highly of, came; and we were all very happy to see her.

3.4 Brackets (Parentheses) ()

Brackets are used, like dashes and commas, to set off an informal insertion from the rest of the sentence:

It is said that mercenaries (I mean hired soldiers from other countries) are fighting on the side of the rebels)

Please note that:

1. brackets and dashes are used to show more clearly than commas the status of an informal insertion
2. square brackets [] are used by a writer to enclose his own words inserted in a quotation to make its meaning clear e.g.

The students [Bola, Ajayi and Aina] have proved to the world what you are all capable of achieving.

3.5 Quotation Marks or Inverted Commas (“ ”)

Quotation marks may, according to preference, be single ‘ ’ or “ ”. They are used as follows:

- a. to enclose direct speech e.g.

‘In any case’, said the principal, ‘Mary is a good girl’.

‘I’m happy you still can say such kind things about the little girl’ said Mary’s mother.

‘He said: ‘I am the landlord here’

Please note that:

1. The two sets of quotation marks, one double and the other single are used for a quotation within a quotation e.g.

The witness said “He cried, ‘Where have you kept the money?’”

2. Direct speech in dramatic dialogue is enclosed in quotation marks:

- b. to enclose quotation e.g.

*She was very fond of those immortal words by Shakespeare:
‘Cowards die many times before their death’.*

- c. to enclose words or expressions that the writer does not wish to claim as his own e.g.

1. *As a child, she really believed that what she saw on the moon was ‘a woman’s beautiful face’*

2. *It is unbelievable that ‘John told the chief to go to hell’*

- d. to enclose words and expressions that are unfamiliar or that are used in a special, not generally accepted sense e.g.

1. *One can talk at length about this ‘primitive’ language.*

2. *It was all traceable to their leader’s ‘chop-chop’ mentality.*

- e. to enclose the titles of stories, poems, articles, etc or issued as separate publications e.g..

The Raiders’ was published in his first collection of short stories.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Write out four uses of quotation marks and support your answer with good examples.

3.6 Italics

In a hand written or typed manuscript, italics can be indicated through underlining. Italics are used:

- a. for titles of books, magazines, newspapers and other works published separately e.g.
The Daily times
The Guardian

- b. titles of shorter works not issued as separate publications e.g.
short stories and poems are enclosed in quotation marks

- c. for foreign words or expressions used in a text e.g.
The *dramatis personae* are found on the first page e.g.

It was evening again and he was back at the remaining bottle of *ogogoro*

- d. for words or expressions which the writer would like to be carefully noted e.g.
The *semi-colon* may be linked to two or more clauses

- e. for items (words, phrases etc) illustrating a point of usage e.g.

1. *The man was here. (past tense)*
2. *The man is here. (present tense)*

3.7 The Apostrophe (')

The apostrophe is used:

- a. for indicating the genitive of some general pronouns e.g.
somebody's dog, everybody's affair

The apostrophe is not used for indicating the genitive of personal pronouns e.g.
my/mine her/hers your/yours

- b. for indicating the genitive of nouns and noun phrases e.g.
the girl's book
a child's toy
children's books
- c. for marking omissions in reduced words and numbers e.g.
I'll (= I will)
hasn't (= has not)
It's (= It is)
We're (= We are -)
- d. for indicating the plurals of numbers, letters and cited words or expressions e.g.
There are two O's in 'book'
The 7's look like 1's
In the 1980's

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Some of the sentences below need apostrophe. Put them where they should be.

1. It is hers.
2. Dr Ojo thesis is missing from the Library.
3. He hasn't been able to come back again.
4. I need some children story books.
5. Your's is very beautiful.

3.8 The Hyphen

The hyphen is used to:

- a. show when a single word has been broken at the end of one line and completed on the next line e.g.
He came for the first time yesterday

Please note that the hyphen is placed at the end of the line on which the word is started not at the beginning of the following line. It is also used to form compound words in English.

- b. to link the component bases of some compound words i.e.
breath-taking
go-between

Please note that not all compounds are written with a hyphen. Some are written in solid form e.g. dressmaking and some are written open- e.g. tear gas. The same compound can sometimes be written in any of the three ways e.g. flower-pot, flowerpot, and flower pot.

- c. to link the component words of a multi – word item used as a single pre-modifier e.g.

- *They were all seven -month -old –babies.*
 - *He adopted his usual- I don't care attitude.*
- d. to separate some prefixes from the base (particularly when the base begins with a capital letter or when the word could otherwise be mispronounced e.g.
- *co-author*
 - *re-present (preset again)*
 - *pro-Iraq*

3.9 Capital Letters (ABC)

These are used at the beginning of:

- a. the first word of a sentence e.g.
Today is her birthday. You are all invited.
- b. all proper nouns (names of specific people, places etc and words derived from them e.g.
Bola Ojo, China, Sunday January, Independence day

Please note that with proper nouns, a capital is normally used only at the beginning of the open class items (nouns, adjectives, adverbs) e.g.

- *(the) Department of English*
- *(the) National Assembly*
- *The National Assembly members are two hundred in number*

Words like committee, department, government state and university are spelt with a capital when they are part of the proper nouns or when they are used as substitute for the proper nouns but not when they are used as ordinary common nouns. In this case, they are called nominals. eg.

- *The National Assembly is on recess.*
 - *A committee should be set up immediately.*
 - *The House Committee on petroleum matters recommended the removal of its chairman.*
- c. all titles preceding proper nouns or titles used as substitutes for proper nouns e.g.
Princess Aina, Chief Okonkwo, Miss Olabode, The President, President Clinton

- d. the first and the last word and each of the open class words (nouns, verbs etc) in the title of a book or article e.g.
- *The Beautiful Ones Are not Yet Born*
 - *Our Husband has gone Mad Again*
- e. Words of family relationship when used alone e.g.
- *Usually, Father does not like such display of arrogance but*
 - *Mother only laughs at such.*
 - *Usually our father does not like such display of arrogance but our mother only laughs at such.*

When used with the first name, the words are also spelt with a capital e.g.
I think Brother James will understand this. James is a brother to Alice.

The personal pronoun 'I' is always written with a capital e.g. *I prefer to go to Marks and Spencer but I'll ask my fiancé to go with me.*

Some other punctuation marks are the ellipsis (...) and the caret (^) and these are used to indicate omissions in a sentence. Ellipsis particularly is used to show incomplete statements.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit is the one that completes the discussion on punctuation marks. We started with the colon and ended with just a mention of the ellipsis and the caret which are used to indicate omissions.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt that:

1. The colon is used to link two clauses.
2. The colon is used to introduce a list.
3. In a hand written or typed manuscript, italics can be indicated through underlining.
4. A hyphen is used to show when a single word has been broken at the end of one line and completed on the next line.
5. An apostrophe is used for indicating the genitive of some general pronouns.
6. The two sets of quotation marks, one double and the other single are used for a quotation within a quotation.
7. Some other punctuation marks are the ellipsis (...) and the caret (^) and these are used to indicate omissions in a sentence.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Itemise some of the uses of the colon. Give other examples apart from the ones you have been given to support your answer.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 BEYOND THE SENTENCE I**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Synonymy
 - 3.2 Antonymy
 - 3.2.1 Complementary Pairs
 - 3.2.2 Gradable Antonyms
 - 3.2.3 Relational Opposites
 - 3.3 Hyponymy
 - 3.4 Repetition
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The term ‘Beyond the sentence’ is borrowed from Aremo (1997) and it is meant to refer to units of language that are bigger in size and structure than the sentence. In most of the earlier units, we dealt with individual sentences in English. We have also dealt a little, with formation and origin of some peculiar words in English. In this unit, we shall move ahead and talk about sentences and how they relate with one another, their well formedness in discourse (that is in continuous speech or writing) which involves more than a sentence. It is important to note that it is not only important for a sentence to be well formed; it should also flow with other sentences in the group. In other words, it should fit in with every other sentence in its environment. Go through the example below.

Mr. James was a good business man. He gave gifts to children at the school end of the year party. Goats love raw yams. Congratulations on your newly acquired Volvo 940.

If you look carefully at the sentences above, each of them is well formed but the sentences taken together do not make sense. They look disjointed. They cannot form a unified whole. They cannot form a unified whole the way they are except they are re-written. Go through the sentences below and see if there is a difference between the sentences in the paragraph above and that below.

Mr. James was a good business man. He gave gifts to

children at the school's end of the year program. He loves rearing goats for sale but they always end up eating his yam stalks. His friends sent congratulatory messages to him on his newly acquired Volvo 940.

If you examine the set of sentences above, you will discover that they are coherent and intelligible in sequence. The sentences are interconnected in meaning and the events in one sentence seem connected with the next. The sentences refer to the same person- Mr. James mentioned in sentence 1. Sentence 2 refers to part of his goodness by giving gifts to children at the end of the year party in his children's school. Part of his business acumen is revealed in sentence 3 in that he loves rearing goats for sale. In sentence 4, he bought a new Volvo 940 for which he was congratulated.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- mention the lexical connective devices for sentence connection;
- identify the connective devices in any given language use; and
- use them appropriately in the construction of sentences and paragraphs.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Some of the lexical devices that will be discussed in this unit are- synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, repetition and collocations

3.1 Synonymy

English is a cosmopolitan language. That is it accommodates other word languages. Therefore, using different words with different shades of meaning in the language adds vigour, richness, colour and variety; thereby removing boredom. The careful use of synonyms helps you write artistically and intelligibly but lack or wrong choice of words may create boredom and lack of interest in your readers.

This term is used to describe the relationship of similar lexical items or lexemes. It can be referred to as a relation of sameness of meaning. Aremo (1997) notes that: "for two or more items to be regarded as synonymous, they do not have to be interchangeable in every context". According to him, the following synonym pairs – *profound* and *deep*, *finish* and *end*, *start* and *begin* can be substituted for each other in:

They all listened with $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{deep} \\ * \text{profound} \end{array} \right\}$ interest

Let's $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{start} \\ \text{begin} \end{array} \right\}$ the course

We shall $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{finish} \\ \text{end} \end{array} \right\}$ the series next week.

They cannot be substituted for each other in –

They all swam across the $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{deep} \\ \text{profound} \end{array} \right\}$ river

Let's $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{start} \\ * \text{begin} \end{array} \right\}$ the engine

We shall $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{finish} \\ * \text{end} \end{array} \right\}$ the job next week

Synonymous items may even differ in their connotation. That is, in the emotional associations that are suggested by them. For example the words *statesman* and *politician* though interchangeable, still differ in their connotation in that some people think that a statesman is associated with greater freedom from deceit.

Palmer (1966) notes five ways in which words can differ from one another:

1. Sets of synonyms which belong to different dialects of the language e.g. Fall (US) Autumn (Britain).
2. Different degrees of similar situation require words that are used in different styles e.g. a nasty smell, an obnoxious effluvium, a horrible stink Pass away/ die/ pass on/ pop off.
3. Some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meaning e.g. politician/statesman hide/conceal liberty/ freedom midget /dwarf mountain/ hill.
4. some words are collocationally restricted - they occur in conjunction with other words e.g. rancid — goes with butter addled - goes along with eggs.
5. some words are close in meaning/ their meanings overlap e.g.- mature, adult, ripe, perfect, due, govern, direct, control, determine, require, loose,

inexact, free, relaxed, vague, lax, unbound.

As a writer, one has to choose the most appropriate synonym while writing. A sign in the San Diego zoo wild animal park states-

Please do not annoy, torment, pester, plague, molest, worry, badger, harry, harass, heckle, persecute, ink, bullyrag, vex, disquiet, grate, beset, bother, tease, nettle, tantalise, or ruffle the animals.

It has often been said that there are no perfect synonyms but the following pair of sentences have very similar meanings:

He is sitting on a sofa. / He is sitting on the couch.

The degree of semantic similarity between words depends to a great extent on the number of semantic properties they share. For example, sofa and couch refer to the same type of object and most of their semantic properties.

3.2 Antonymy

This is a relationship of oppositeness in meaning. Just like synonyms, antonyms do not need to be substitutable for each other in all contexts. The following pairs of words are antonyms and can be substituted in some cases while they cannot be substituted in some other cases. Please note that these examples are from Aremo (1997). For more details see the reference at the end of this unit.

They can be substituted in –

It is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{long} \\ \text{short} \end{array} \right\}$ pole.

We can $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{start} \\ \text{finish} \end{array} \right\}$ the course now.

The man is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{dead} \\ \text{alive} \end{array} \right\}$

They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sell} \\ \text{buy} \end{array} \right\}$ old newspapers.

They cannot in

He is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{short} \\ * \text{long} \end{array} \right\}$ man.

We can $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{start} \\ * \text{finish} \end{array} \right\}$ the engine now.

She told the story of the $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{dead} \\ * \text{alive} \end{array} \right\}$ man.

They $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sell} \\ * \text{buy} \end{array} \right\}$ them the auction.

We become aware of these distinctions in language use through our exposure to the language. Just as we do not have perfect or absolute synonyms, there are no absolute antonyms as well. The linguistic context determines the usage and the appropriateness of a word. Antonyms are of different kinds-complementary, gradable and relational opposites.

3.2.1 Complementary Pairs

Some opposite words are complementary to each other in English. They are complementary in the sense that not being this = that. e.g.

Alive/dead
Present/absent
Awake/asleep

This means that not alive =dead, not dead=alive.

At this point, the question can be asked of those who, for one reason or the other, have become what we call vegetables. That is they are only seen to be breathing, they cannot do any other thing. Some might even be in an unconscious state. Such people, even though they are not clinically dead, they are dead to their environment. If you are not present, you are absent. You cannot do the two together physically.

3.2.2 Gradable Antonyms

These kinds of words do not provide an absolute scale. With gradable antonyms, the

negative of one word is not synonymous with the other. For example, someone who is not happy is not necessarily sad. Some adjectives fall into this category e.g.

Big/bigger /biggest
Hot/ warm /cool /cold
Big/small fast/slow happy/sad

Gradable antonyms are often found among sets of words that partition a continuum i.e. *Tiny-small-medium-large—huge- gargantuan*

3.2.3 Relational Opposites

These are words that are linguistically related in that they refer to a reversal of relationship between a pair of related items or kinship terms. The items in this category are mutually exclusive e.g.

father/mother, brother sister, buy/sell lend/borrow, give/receive, husband /wife, parent/child, doctor/patient, teacher/pupil

Generally, both the antonyms and synonyms are dependent upon the following factors:

1. A word is known as the synonyms of another word, if it is substituted for another and the resultant sentences are the same. Example:
 - a. Ebo *maintains* his position.
 - b. Ebo *upholds* his position.

These two sentences mean almost the same thing because if we substitute *maintains* for *upholds*, the meaning is unchanged.

2. Synonym is antonym of antonyms. For example, if the antonym of *go* is *come* and the antonym of *come* is *proceed*, then **proceed** is synonymous with *go*
3. Synonym is context dependent. Examples are: *sympathy, pity* and *fellow feeling*. They are synonymous but they are not interchangeably used. It is only the context that determines the usage. Consider further examples:

Word	Synonyms	Antonyms
abdicate	relinquish, renounce	maintain, uphold
acme	summit, top, zenith	bottom, base
acrid	bitter, nasty, stinging	pleasant,, belittle sweet
praise	hackneyed, rapid, overused	sriking, original, flesh
boredom	ennui, doldrums, weariness	motivate, stimulate, pleasant
caustic	bitter, acris, sour	mellow, sweet,

		pleasant
decry	lower, derogate, belittle	praise commend
extol	laud, eulogize, praise	disparage, denounce.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Give the synonyms of the following words:

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Expensive | 4. Abandoned |
| 2. Tradition | 5. Scolded |
| 3. advantages | 6. Commanded |

3.3 Hyponymy

This is a situation where there is a super-ordinate term. The general or super-ordinate term is the larger set that houses the other smaller ones. e.g.

Red, green, yellow, blue etc have their lexical representation as ‘colour’ which is a super-ordinate term.

Lion, tiger, leopard, lynx (animal of the cat family, with tufted ears and a short tail) have their lexical representation as Feline (catlike, of the cat family). While writing, you may find out that you need to use these words. So a good mastery of these kinds of lexical devices is important.

Sometimes, there is no single word in the language that encompasses a set of hyponyms. Thus, clarinet, guitar, horn, marimba, piano, trumpet, violin are hyponyms because they are ‘musical instruments’ but there is no single word meaning ‘musical instrument’ that has these words as its hyponyms. The small elements are also referred to as co-hyponyms of the superordinate term. For example, tulip, rose, hibiscus are hyponyms of the term ‘flower’.

3.4 Repetition

Repetitions are often for emphasis. Below is an example of an anonymous text with a lot of repetitions and antonyms.

As a rule, man is a fool
 When it is hot, he wants it cool
 When it is cool, he wants it hot
 Always wanting what is not
Anonymous

The words *wants wanting* are repeated to emphasis part of human nature. ‘When it is----‘is also repeated to lay emphasis on the temporal aspect of man’s demands. From the text we also have examples of antonyms- i.e. hot/cool which are gradable antonyms.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Write five pairs of words with their relational opposites.

3.0 CONCLUSION

Lexical and grammatical connective devices are very important in English. As a student of English, you should know them and use them appropriately. And you can only achieve this through constant practice and use of them. This unit deals with the first part of these devices where we have been able to go through synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and repetition. Some other lexical connective devices and grammatical connective devices will be dealt with in the next unit. Please go through the next unit for the remaining part of the topic.

4.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. Lexical connective devices include lexemes or content words such as (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) whose sense relations shed light on a reading text.
2. Synonymy can be referred to as a relation of sameness of meaning.
3. Antonyms are of different kinds- complementary, gradable and relational opposites.
4. Gradable antonyms do not provide an absolute scale.
5. Relational opposites have items whose categories are mutually exclusive.
6. In complementary pairs, what is present in one item is absent in the other.
7. Gradable antonyms are often found among sets of words that partition a continuum.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Indicate whether the pairs of words listed below are complementary, gradable or relational opposites.

- Good/bad
- Parent/offspring
- Beautiful /ugly
- False/true
- Pass/ fail
- Poor/ rich
- Legal/ illegal
- Asleep/ awake

- Husband /wife
- Fast/slow

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MODULE 3

Unit 1	Beyond the Sentence II
Unit 2	The Narrative Essay
Unit 3	The Descriptive Essay
Unit 4	The Persuasive/Argumentative Essay
Unit 5	The Expository Essay

UNIT 1 BEYOND THE SENTENCE II**CONTENTS**




1.0	Introduction
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3.1.1	Free Collocations
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3.2	Grammatical Devices for Sentence Connection
3.2.1	Conjunctions
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3.6	Ellipsis
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5.0	Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module 2 unit 3, we discussed some of the lexical connective devices. In this unit, we shall discuss collocations and some grammatical connective devices. You will find some or all of them useful at one point in time or the other.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

-  mention the lexical and grammatical connective devices for sentence connection;
-  identify the connective devices in any given language use; and
-  use them appropriately in the construction of sentences and paragraphs.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Collocations

Collocations include the matching of words together. Collocations are the acceptable co-occurrence of lexical items in a sentence. Lexical items co-occur. Items that relate these ways are called **collocates**. The units involved depend on each other. There are two types of collocations- free collocations and fixed collocations.

3.1.1 Free Collocations

With free collocations, items co-occur naturally. e.g.

- Dog and bark
- Fish and swim
- Insect and fly
- Butter and rancid
- Fruit and rotten

These lexical items are free in the sense that some other structural words can be added to them to make meaningful sentences with them. e.g.

- *Insects fly* very high in the sky.
- This *butter* has gone *rancid*.
- The *rotten* mango *fruit* was thrown away.
- Bring me two *big* and four *small boxes* from the store.
- The *river flows* down the hill.

With free collocations words naturally go along with each other.

3.1.2 Fixed Collocations

These are otherwise known as idiomatic expressions or simply idioms. Examples are-

- *a square peg in a round hole* (someone occupying a post not suited for him)
- *a storm in a tea cup* (excitement over a small matter)
- *a dog in a manger* (someone holding on to something that is not useful to him)

They are fixed in that you cannot insert any word in between these fixed collocations. The words are used in the order in which they are. For example you cannot say:

- *a dog in a green manger*
- *a storm in a big tea cup*
- *a big square peg in a round hole*

Some of these idioms have however become clichés and have almost gone out of use. An example is - kick the bucket which means ‘die’. Another type of fixed collocations in English are phrasal verbs. These have been discussed in Module 1 unit 2. Where they occur in sentences in English, they appear and function like idioms. They pass specific messages across. An example is ‘up the hill’ i.e. ‘up the hill task’ meaning that it is a difficult assignment.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Write five examples of sentences with free collocations. Write five examples of sentences with fixed collocations.

3.2 Grammatical Devices for Sentence Connection

Grammatical devices can be seen in terms of the following: conjunction, ellipsis, substitution, structural parallelism.

3.2.1 Conjunctions

Conjunction can be referred to as the connective devices of sentences into units of meaning in discourse. Quirk et al. (1985) notes that: “conjunctions are of two types- coordinating and subordinating conjunctions”. Coordinating conjunctions are known as coordinators while subordinating conjunctions are known as subordinators. The three major coordinators are *and*, *but* and *or*. In the following sentences:

1. We all expected him on the D-Day, *but* he disappointed us by not coming.
2. She was physically challenged *yet* he loved her.

The conjunction *but* and the conjunct *yet* express a form of concession and the fact that the sentences are connected.

Arema (1997) notes that most of the meaning relationships expressed by the conjuncts are also expressed by one or other of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *or*, *but*. *And* in particular can express enumeration, reinforcement, summation, result etc depending on the context. Below are examples of the various ways which the conjunction *and* can be used to express enumeration etc.

Enumeration

There were two reasons why he preferred the appointment. Its location was close by. *And* the remuneration was good.

Reinforcement

Those were her young days. *And* they were her days of glory.

Summation

We walked the beach together, sang choruses and played games. We even phoned our close friends during the picnic. *And* it was a very refreshing time.

Result

He lifted the iron lid. *And* the bees buzzed out in their thousands.

‘Or’ is used for ‘reformulation’ and ‘replacement’. e.g. Reformulation

She was very tall. *Or* (rather) she was the tallest girl around.

Replacement

You could see your mother about it. *Or* you could see the doctor.

‘But’ is used for ‘contrast’ or ‘antithesis’ and ‘concession’. E.g.

Contrast/antithesis

He looks like a gentle man. *But* he is a crook to the core.

Concession

He was very lazy. *But* all the teachers thought that he was one of the most diligent boys in the school.

‘For’ is a conjunction used to indicate a relationship of justification (or reason/cause) e.g.

The stories all taught the children the need for hard work. *For* the ants in the stories were hard-working.

The items *neither*, *nor* and *either* can also indicate some meaning relationships indicated by *and* (e.g. *reinforcement* and *result*) They are however normally used for connecting negative sentences with negative implications. e.g.

He did not finish the race. *neither /nor* did he win any prize

He did not lift the iron lid. { He did not win any prize
 neither/nor did the bees buzz out in their thousands
 The bees did not buzz out in their thousands either

Please note the following as observed by Aremo (1997)

a. With *neither* or *nor* there is subject /operator inversion and the negator ‘not’ is not retained. e.g.
did not ---this *either*
 ---neither *did he*

b. While *neither* and *nor* (like *and* or *but*, occur only in the initial position in their sentence, *either* occurs only in the final position.

c. *Neither*, *nor*, or *either* may be combined with *and* or *but* to link a sentence with the preceding one. e.g.

And { *neither*
 nor } did the bees buzz out in their thousands

And the bees did not buzz out in their thousands.

3.3 Identification

Identification involves the use of certain determiners to point out the relationship between certain items that have been mentioned earlier in a sentence. It is used within and across sentences e.g.

He gave us the example of a man who travelled to the moon long ago. According to him, the man came back after three weeks of exploring the moon.

The determiner ‘the’ in the noun phrase *the man* is co-referential with a earlier noun phrase *a man*. The determiners that are used in identification are the definite article *the* and the demonstratives- *this/these, that /those* e.g.

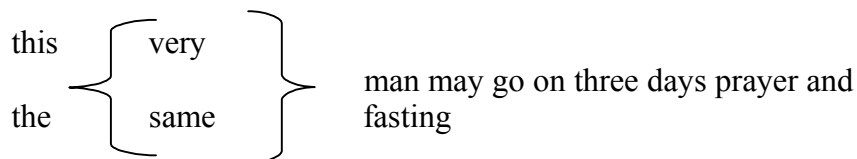
He married *a woman* of honour. *That woman* was like a mother to him.

Some of the questions he asked were on poverty alleviation. *Those* questions were never answered by the minister.

Identification determiners *the/this* at times do not occur alone. They occur with some other pre-modifying items such as *same, very, former, latter, first, second*, (or some other numerals in the ordinal series) and *last*.

Using the determiners with items like *same*, *very* has the effect of emphasising the co-reference of their noun phrase e.g.

A man can eat like a glutton this week, next week,



3.4 Structural Parallelism

This device is of value in sentence connection in that it normally suggests that there is some meaning relationship (contrast or similarity) between sentences with parallel structures.

This device involves giving identical structures or forms to two or more sentences or parts of the same sentence within the same sentence:

Bola was taught *to work*, *to pray* and *to hope*.

Across sentences-

The villagers *had hoped* Jagun would be well. They *had prayed* he would be willing.

3.5 Substitution

This involves the use of proforms and pronoun preferences as replacements for particular words in a sentence. Examples of proforms include: *same*, *so*, *too*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *neither*, *some*, *none* etc. Examples of pronouns are *he*, *him*, *she*, *her*, *hers*, *my*, *mine*, *we*, *their*, *theirs*, *them* etc. Substitutions prevent repetition and for details of these, see Quirk et al 1985. The following are just a few examples of the different parts of a sentence that can be substituted.. Almost every part of a sentence can be substituted.

Bola and *Tinu* went out. *They* bought sweets and biscuits for their younger sisters. (The subject- *Bola and Tinu* is substituted with *They*)

Feranmi *sings well*. Tinu *does so* too.
(whole predicate- *sings well* in the first sentence is substituted by *does so* in the second sentence)

For other examples of parts of a sentence that can be substituted, see Quirk et al. (1985) and Aremo (1995)

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Write three examples of sentences in which substitution is demonstrated. You can give examples of where some other parts of a sentence is substituted.

3.6 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of linguistic items which have been realised elsewhere in the sentence. It is like substitution in that it is used to avoid repetition. In substitution, the item is replaced by another item (i.e. proform). In ellipsis, it is replaced by nothing. Ellipsis can also be used within and across sentences e.g.

He *bought* one and his wife two.

‘Bought’ used in the first clause has been ellipped from the second clause i.e

He *bought* one and his wife (*bought*) two.

Please note that in all the examples of the different kinds of ellipsis below, the parts in bracket are the ellipped parts. You should read the sentences as if the parts in the brackets are not there.

Ellipsis within nominal parts

Many young (men) and (many) old men prefer that.

He brought us books (on farming) and magazines on farming. We can send one (boy) or two boys.

Ellipsis within the verbal part

They have caught and dismissed the corrupt official. He was working and was studying at the same time.

Ellipsis within the adverbial parts

- You can go (by) air, (by) sea or (by) land.
- He travels to (Lagos) and from Lagos everyday.

Ellipsis within the adjectival parts

- He is very rich and (very) happy
- We consider him much richer (than the other man) and more successful than the other man

4.0 CONCLUSION

The lexical and grammatical devices discussed are not all that we have in English. We only dealt with the ones we feel you need most in your writings for now. If you still go through some of the references at the end of this unit and some other grammar texts, you will find more. You will also notice that we dealt a lot on conjuncts and conjunctions for the singular reason that they occur more than most of the other connective devices. We noted that collocations are the acceptable co-occurrence of lexical items in a sentence and that they are of two types- free and fixed. Conjunctions, ellipsis, substitution and structural parallelism are grammatical connective devices which are useful in continuous writing.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. Collocations are the acceptable co-occurrence of lexical items in a sentence.
2. There are two types of collocations- free collocations and fixed collocations.
3. Fixed collocations are otherwise known as idiomatic expressions or simply idioms.
4. Conjunctions can be used to connect sentences into units of meaning in discourse.
5. Ellipsis is the omission of linguistic items which have been realized elsewhere in the sentence.
6. This involves the use of pro-forms and pronoun preferences as replacements for particular words in a sentence.
7. Structural parallelism normally suggests that there is some meaning relationship (contrast or similarity) between sentences with parallel structures.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Conjunction can be referred to as the connection of sentences into units of meaning in discourse. Write five sentences each of the various types of sentence connections we can have with the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but* and *or*.

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UNIT 2 THE NARRATIVE ESSAY**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
- 3.1 Guidelines for Writing a Good Narrative Essays
 - 3.1.1 The Plot
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 - 3.1.3 The Characters
 - 3.1.4 Introduction
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- 3.2 Narrative Technique
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- 5.0 Summary
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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A narrative essay is an essay in which a story is told or an account is given. It requires fictitious creativity of stories. According to the ABC of academic writing and ABC of essays, (see reference at the end of the unit) student essay writing develops many of the skills needed for other forms of academic writing. A narrative essay is one of the many different kinds of essay writings that students are expected to engage in while in school and sometimes outside of school. One of the features of essays is originality. You are expected to develop the habit of thinking for yourself so that you can be original in thought and expression. By being original, we mean that students think on their own without the influence of anybody or any material. They can then be confident enough to express their opinions freely on any matter. For you to be able to express yourself well in English or any target language, you should be able to think in that target language and write expressions that have no language interference or one that has minimal language interference.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the basic features of the narrative essay;
- explain the principles of writing narrative essays; and
- attempt the writing of narrative essays.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Once you have decided to write either for pleasure or exam, you should choose or select an incident worthy of sharing with others or which you think others will benefit from. You should ask yourself if anybody will find this of any relevance. If the answer to your question is yes, then you need to look for ways of making your story real to them by including details that will sound real to them for their enjoyment and learning.

Some people prefer to write about themselves in a narrative essay probably because it is easier to narrate what happened to you better than what happened to others. By doing this, they can describe events vividly and accurately. Human beings have a lot of experiences they share daily with each other orally which if written would be wonderful narratives on paper. One of the reasons we do not have some of these narratives written down is probably because of laziness, lack of time or money to get them printed for others to read. I have heard of many unexpressed feelings, unfinished manuscripts, finished but unpublished manuscripts etc some of which our generation could have benefited from. You can become a part of the people who will produce the next set of novels for the coming generation and the time to start is now. So get prepared to write different kinds of essays not only in this unit but in the next three units as well.

3.1 Guidelines for Writing a Good Narrative Essays

1. Most narrative essay topics are figurative or proverbial, as in: 'Fish and Guests smell in three days. As a result, proper understanding of the topic is very important.
2. Your introduction must be arresting, captivating and interesting.
3. You must have a purpose – a purpose that recreates an incident for readers.
4. You must write from a clear point of view.
5. You must make extensive use of the past tense. Present point is only used if you want to make a special point like direct speech.
6. You must use clear and concise language so that it can evoke emotion and affection in the reader. There must be sensory details that will get the reader involved in the story.
7. You must make it organized.
8. You must make it have a brief, interesting and captivating conclusion that can place a reader in a meditative mode.

Once you have chosen the incident, you have to develop a story line which indicates the plot, setting, characters a climax an anticlimax (at times) and an ending.

3.1.1 The Plot

This has to do with the series of incidents forming the plan of action of a story, play or poem. You have to decide on the series of incidents you want to write about. They could be ten, twenty, fifteen etc. You also have to order the events. Which one comes first and which one comes last.

It must be ordered in such a way that you will not contradict yourself. For example you cannot say somebody died on Tuesday and then he was seen driving around town the next Friday. It is therefore important for you to know how the events occurred and how they are related to each other.

3.1.2 The Setting

Every narrative must have a setting. That is, the place the story is set or reference to specific places that are mentioned in the narrative. You cannot write without situating your narrative or else it will look like a fairy tale that is told by an excited human being.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Think of an incident that happened recently in which you were involved in an accident (home or highway) and the series of events that occurred before the accident occurred. List them in the order of occurrence and write a paragraph each on any two of them. What do you think about them? Give it to a friend to go through and ask for his/her opinion.

3.1.3 The Characters

This is another convention of a narrative that has to be followed. If there are no real characters, you must create them and make them say what you want them to say and also achieve what you want them to achieve. The characters must have specified names and functions. They must also be able to interact with one another so that the theme can be properly understood. This character sometimes functions as narrators. They determine point of view in any writing

3.1.4 Introduction

There are different ways of introducing a narrative. Some start by introducing the characters while some people present the setting so as to properly situate the narrative. What is important is that it should be done in such a way that will prompt the reader to be interested and continue reading. The introduction often gives the background information which can help the reader to have a better understanding of the narrative. If the introduction is not interesting or challenging to sustain the interest of the reader, the book or narrative piece could be abandoned or put aside until an opportune time when the reader feels he has enough spare time for such novels. Below is an example

WINTER IN LONDON can be rather unfriendly, especially from the view point of a middle aged African immigrant who had had the privilege of growing up in a land that knew no winter. Winter was the season of nostalgia, the time to assess the wisdom of ever venturing out of home in the first place to a far away land. It is the time when the trees are stripped of their plumes and rendered stark naked.

Faces of men and women are squeezed together, making it hard for the teeth to catch a glimpse of the daylight.
(From *The Minister's Mother's official car* by Kehinde A. Ayoola p.1)

The writer sets the pace by describing what winter looks like in London- from a psychological point of view, the physical –the trees and plants, in the environment and even people's countenances. The reader already has an idea of what to expect.

3.1.5 The Body of the Narrative

This is equally important and this is presented in paragraphs. A short narrative could have about five paragraphs including the introduction and the conclusion. A long narrative could have as many as possible depending on how the paragraphs could be divided. A book on narrative story could then be seen not only in terms of the paragraphs alone but the pages. You should write in such a way that you would be able to sustain the interest of your reader. Make your narration vivid by using the appropriate language and connective devices between sentences and paragraphs. Do not contradict yourself in your narration. Some people are so good at giving attention to details in narratives that you can almost see the mental picture of the individual or the situation being described. As a narrator, you should know how to connect events, people and places in such a way that will sustain the attention of your reader. You should also write in such a way that the reader will get the essence of what you are trying to present.

3.1.6 The Climax and Ending

There should be a climax and an ending in any narrative. There will definitely be an introduction which has been discussed. Your story should not be flat. There should be some elements of suspense which would lead to a climax and an ending depending on the theme. A narrative could simply be for entertainment. It depends on the motive of the writer. He could just have the intention of taking people's minds away from the busy frustrations of the day by presenting something that will make them laugh. At times however, the writer may want to instruct, give advice, or help people to be aware of something important in the world around them. A narrative could also end by presenting a moral lesson which every reader or listener can learn from. By this, we could be said to be serving some didactic purposes. The concluding paragraph is very important because that is the reader's last contact with the narrative.

That is where the writer brings all the major activities of the characters to a close. Go through the part of the concluding paragraph of the extract that started with winter in London-

Many who seek their fortune in foreign lands end up sweeping, sweeping and sweeping until they twist their spines. They wash, wash and wash until their hands get

coarse. If you don't believe me, when next someone returns from abroad, shake hands with them and you will know that they have not been dining with Her Majesty at Buckingham Palace.

(From *The Minister's Mother's* official car by Kehinde A. Ayoola)

From this conclusion, you will notice that the writer has a lesson for readers to learn and this he makes clear in his concluding paragraphs.

3.2 Narrative Technique

Once you have chosen the incident, the involvement of readers in the story is important. You should try and make the reader a part of the story by carrying him/her along. You can even recreate an incident or the circumstances surrounding an incident and tell the story in another interesting way. You should also be able to think about some generalisations in human experiences or endeavour that the story supports so that the reader can find himself in this generalisation. For example, the general belief that hard work is profitable while laziness tends to poverty. The events in the story must be carefully selected and explained.

In narratives, if the first person narrative technique is used i.e. 'I', it draws the reader closer to share in an intimate discussion. Narration is a technique that you have to develop as a writer and you should make your narration lively. You should also vary your style so that you will not bore your reader. Avoid unnecessary mannerism in speech and writing. For example, there is an expression which many university graduates use now which is uncalled for in most cases. It is the expression- 'as in'. In most of the cases I have heard the expression used, it has been uncalled for. This kind of mannerism can make your write up boring. The third person singular or plural -i.e 'he' 'she' or 'they' can also be used in narratives. Even though it puts a distance between the narrator and the narrative it nevertheless enables the reader to identify minimally or maximally with the narrative.

Below is another example of a narrative passage

Richard laughed at the jokes. He tried too not to drift throughout the conversations, not to show how awkward he felt. He preferred talking to the women, although he had learned not to spend too long with a particular woman or Susan would throw a glass at the wall when they got home He was baffled the first time it happened. He had spent a short time talking to Clovis Bacroft about her brother's life as a District Commissioner in Enugu years ago and afterwards, Susan was silent during the drive back in her chauffeur- driven car.

(from *Half of a Yellow Sun* by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie p56)

In this narrative, the third person singular is used. The names of some individuals are also mentioned. You will notice that from this short paragraph, you have been informed about Susan's temperament. As a writer, you can introduce your characters in different ways to get your reader acquainted with them and the situations around them. Building up the essay paragraph by paragraph will form a unified whole and an interesting piece.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to go through how essays are written in general and in particular we have highlighted some of the principles of narrative essays. We have tried not to allow you to get used to full sample essays because most students then pattern their essays after such essays thinking it is the only model. We want you to be able to think on your own and be creative. Remember that we said you should be original. That is why in this unit and the remaining three units, we shall try to give samples of sections of the different kinds of essays. Remember that you need to sustain the interest of your reader and do not forget all the linking expressions you were taught in the previous units. We took time to go through them so that you will remember to use them. This is the time to put into practice all that you have learnt in modules 1 and 2.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt that:

1. A narrative essay is one of the many different kinds of essay writings that students engage in while in school.
2. One of the features of essays is originality.
3. You are expected to develop the habit of thinking for yourself so that you can be original in thought and expression.
4. The plot has to do with the series of incidents forming the plan of action of a story, play or poem.
5. The setting has to do with reference to specific places that are mentioned in the narrative.
6. The characters must have specified names and functions.
7. In narratives, the first person narrative technique can be used i.e 'I' and this draws the reader closer to share in an intimate discussion.
8. You should think about some generalisations in human experiences or endeavour that the story supports so that the reader can find himself in this generalisation.
9. Usually, a narrative ends by presenting a moral lesson which every reader or listener can learn from.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Your younger brother or sister's naming ceremony was a whole day affair in your

house the day it was held. In fact, it was not held on the eight day which was the usual practice because of a few things that happened before the birth of the child and after it. Narrate what happened throughout the naming ceremony to your classmates. (Write it down, you can then narrate it to your classmates in the presence of your tutorial instructor who will award marks).

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UNIT 3 THE DESCRIPTIVE ESSAY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Formal and Thematic Purposes of Fictional Description
 - 3.1.1 Close Observation
 - 3.1.2 Close Selection
 - 3.1.3 Formulate an Impression
 - 3.1.4 Practise Free Writing
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A descriptive essay is an essay that provides a detailed picture of people, events, objectives, or a scene to the readers, so that they can visualize with their imaginations, what the writer is saying. One of the ways in which you can get involved in what you are writing and also get your readers involved is to vividly describe the people, places, things, experiences and situations in your writing. The ability to describe is a universal value of good writing (Nash & Stacey (1997). By all means, a detailed description is better than a general one. People usually prefer the concrete to the abstract. When a reader is able to visualize what the writer is trying to say through vivid descriptive devices, the reader understands better and identifies more with the work.

Not all writings demand colourful description, for example- scientific reports do not. Whatever means of description you employ depends on the purpose of the writing. Nash & Stacey (1997:130) summarize what readers do to most texts in the following extract-

A reader assumes a passive receptive role. He looks at the picture, audits the lecture, accepts the revelation, beholds the scene, suspends disbelief, and admits into his consciousness this world the writer has made as the only world there is.

According to Nash & Stacey (1997), lively descriptions of people, places and things endow your text with energy and they involve the reader in your meaning. Your ability to describe is a way of making something look, sound, smell, taste, hear, feel or become more of what you want it to be. Description makes your writing memorable and appealing to whoever is going through it.

A good description must appeal to the five sense organs.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the basic features of a descriptive piece of writing;
- explain the principles of writing descriptive essays; and
- attempt the writing of descriptive essays.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

For you to practice the art of description, you have to be involved yourself. Section 3.1 presents an instance of imaginative description. Go through the example from Nash & Stacey (1997:132) in the next section.

3.1 Formal and Thematic Purposes of Fictional Description

Below is a descriptive text.

At almost one O'clock I entered the lobby of the building where I worked and turned towards the escalators, carrying a black Penguin paperback and a small white CVS bag; its receipt stapled over the top. The escalators rose toward the mezzanine, where my office was. They were the free-standing kind: a pair of integral signs swooping upward between the two floors. They served without struts or piers to bear any intermediate weight. On sunny days like this one, a temporary, steeper escalator of daylight formed by intersections of the lobby's towering volumes of marble and glass, met the real escalators just above their middle point, spreading into a needy area of shine where it fell against their brushed-steel side panels, and adding long glossy highlights to each of the black rubber handrails which wavered slightly as the handrails slid on their tracks, like the radians of black luster that ride the undulating outer edge of an LP.
(Nash & Stacey (1997:132))

As the first paragraph of a novel, its main purpose is to establish the scene for the story. In this paragraph, a place is described. A man enters the building after lunch hour and he is carrying some things.

3.1.1 Close Observation

For you to be able to describe adequately, you need to engage in close observation and be able to identify and name the things that you see, their placement or position where they are placed. The things you observe must appeal to your other senses. You

can do this by closing your eyes and with your mind eye imagine what you see or what you used to see.

Document the result of your mind's journey. If possible, then go to the place and see things physically and document them again. In this way you have two lists which will be useful later when you want to write.

3.1.2 Close Selection

Apart from the fact that you need to observe closely you also have to do a close selection of the things you see and the ones you want to name and bring to focus so that they can match your narrative action. If you do not do this you may over do things. You cannot possibly name everything you see. The reader would have to use their imagination to fill in the gaps in the world of the story or event being described. There is a relationship between descriptive detail and narrative action and they must fit one another. Fiction writers build a world that is close to the social world in which we live and the sensory images are the tools they use in building this world. Description of the scenes and actions are given but the description should not be done in such a way that it will overpower the action except it is required by the theme. What people do and say in the imagined world is what sustains our interest.

A descriptive essay creates picture in all our five senses: visual picture (sight), auditory picture (hear), olfactory picture (smell), Palatal (taste), tactile picture (touch).

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Can you imagine where your workplace or faculty is? Is there any main entrance to the place? Is there a particular door or set of doors you go through before getting to your office or Faculty office? Are there any remarkable things there you never bothered yourself to look closely at as regards some specific details? Choose that place or any other place you think you want to describe, try to go through in your mind's eye. As you come into the place, list the objects you see either to your left or to your right, in front of you etc. then try to select the ones you think are worthy of note and attempt a description of that place and you will be surprised at the information you have on paper which you have never bothered yourself about.

3.1.3 Formulate an Impression

Just imagine that you now have the list of activities or events at the entrance of your faculty as you were asked to do in the exercise above. Decide on a point of view- that is- do you want to imagine yourself doing the action or someone else? It would either be 'I' or he /she etc. Having a point of view or creating one will make you actively participate in the story or narrative yourself. You must discover and create an impression. The impressions will be what you feel about a person an event or situation. You must examine yourself on why you think the way you do through the impression you have created. Your impression will guide the selection of the details you include in the narrative. The details must then fit into the plot of the story. Do

you know that if you believe that the entrance of your faculty is beautiful, you will create that impression with the way you describe the details?

3.1.4 Practise Free Writing

Free writing is a very interesting collection of thoughts; impressions and ideas that may help one discover a topic and focus for writing. Writing is a way of expressing yourself. And one of the types of writing that is common among students is free writing. What is important is for the ideas to flow and as long as you keep on writing, whatever is wrong in your writing can always be corrected. Let us imagine that you want to write on the entrance of your faculty as we mentioned earlier. You already have the list with you and you have also gone through the place again to reconfirm your mind selection. You can then start by trying to put something on paper. Many students ask themselves 'How am I going to start? Just start anyhow. Put your pen or pencil on paper and start writing. Look up at the title and write something. You may discover that you have cancelled a lot of things and that the work is rough. Do not mind the mistakes. The advantage of this type of writing is that you are alone and nobody sees those mistakes. After you have scribbled for some time, stop and go over what you have written. Try to correct them if you can at that point in time or you can sleep over it and then try to see how you can correct the paragraph or page. If you ask most writers, they will tell you about this experience of theirs and how they got over it. The approach you have been told is at best good for long story writers who are not under any examination pressure.

As a student writing a descriptive essay in an examination, what takes the place of free writing is concentrated thought. Description is used to create worlds for creative writing, literary journals, personal letters, stories and plays, travel accounts, poetry and memoirs. In some other expository or stricter forms of academic writing, writers do not try to create independent scenes, situations or worlds. In descriptive essays, you have to involve your readers as you explore the topic through naming and detailing of events, people and places.

For classroom exercises which are meant to be submitted immediately or during examinations, you have to take time out-preferably seven to eight minutes to think and just organize your thoughts. You just do not pick up your biro and start writing without doing some free thinking about the topic and how to go about it. You just go ahead and use words to describe your observations.

In descriptive essays, we use words to convey what something, or someone, a situation, an incident is like. Describing a thing is different from when you are evaluating it. You are not arguing, interpreting or evaluating (judging). In descriptive essays, there is a lot of explanation of facts presented on things seen. Essays can be said to be descriptive when they present facts and ideas with little argument or interpretation. Below is an example from *Half of a Yellow Sun* by Chimamanda

Adichie-

His aunty walked faster, his slippers making slap-slap sounds that echoed in the silent street. Ugwu wondered if she too could feel the coal tar getting hotter underneath, through her thin soles.----- He smelt something sweet; as they walked into a compound and was sure it came from the white flowers clustered on the bushes at the entrance.

The bushes were shaped like slender hills. The lawn glistened, butterflies hovered around.

In the extract above, you will notice that it is the actions of human beings that are described in the first part of the paragraph, not a location, while some plants were described in the later part. The narrative point of view is basically the third person singular- 'he' along with the invisible 'they' Describing the lawns further would bring in 'it' as a point of view.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have talked about the descriptive method of writing essays. There is a common saying that –'If you give a man a piece of fish, he will still be hungry but if you teach him/her to fish, he will never be hungry because you have shown him/her a means of livelihood'. That is why most of what has been described here is geared towards making you know how to write these essays and not giving you samples to cram. Once you know the principles involved, you can always face any topic no matter how challenging the topic might seem to be. For you to be able to give vivid descriptions, you have to be observant and form the habit of giving attention to details. You have to create an impression by getting a point of view through which the narration will be done. Free writing helps you to start off if you are scared of where to start and free thinking for examinations and class assignments will help you better in organising your thought before putting them to paper.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you learnt that:

1. You should vividly describe the people, places, things, experiences, situations in your writing.
2. For you to practise the art of description, you have to be involved yourself.
3. Engage in close observation and be able to identify and name the things that you see, their placement or position where they are placed.
4. For you to be able to describe adequately, you need to engage in close observation and be able to identify and name the things that you see, their placement or position where they are placed.
5. Do a close selection of the things you see and the ones you want to name and

- bring them to focus so that they can match your narrative action.
6. Having a point of view or creating one will make you actively participate in the story or narrative yourself.
 7. Practise free writing which is a way of expressing yourself.
 8. Description is used to create worlds for creative writing- such as literary journals, personal letters, stories and plays, travel accounts poetry and memoirs.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Describe what you saw on a recent journey you made from your village to the city in your country.

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UNIT 4 THE PERSUASIVE/ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY**CONTENTS**

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Research
 - 3.2 Introduction
 - 3.2.1 Ordering Sentences in an Introduction
 - 3.3 Paragraph Flow
 - 3.4 Summary
 - 3.5 Editing
 - 3.6 Conclusion of the Essay
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The argumentative or persuasive essay is a type in which the writer uses reasons to make the audience see things his own way. In persuasive or argumentative essays, we try to convince others to agree with our opinions and facts, and share our values. For you to be able to convince another person, you need to know your facts and be able to present them convincingly enough. You have to be sure of the facts by making sure your sources are correct and verifiable. You should remember that since you are writing, many people will see your work and that is why you need to be sure your facts are in order or else you will not be able to convince anybody. You will only end up being frustrated by the time people start dismantling what you think you have built up.

Unlike narratives and descriptive essays which can be based on fiction, argumentative writings are hooked on facts. Your reasoning must sound logical to the human mind and your motive achievable.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what argumentative essays are;
- identify some of the strategies for writing argumentative essays; and
- use some of these strategies for writing sections of argumentative essays for class presentation or take home assignments.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Some of the strategies discussed here are those identified by study guides and strategies (see reference at the end of this unit) In argumentative essays, we try as much as possible to convince people to adopt our way of thinking. You can use the following guidelines while writing.

3.1 Research

It is important that you do some fact finding work on whatever topic you choose. Decide on the facts or the points you want to present, their number and how you want to arrange them. This is important because your style of presentation matters a lot. Some people start by giving heart provoking questions to the audience or readers. These questions are called rhetorical questions. They are the questions used to enliven the points one has raised in the argumentative essay. For example, you can have questions such as-

- Ladies and gentlemen, why do you think we have constant power failure?
- Why are our roads as bad as they are?
- Why can't we feed our families with balanced diets?

These are thought-provoking questions that border on people's welfare and which are likely to draw the attention of the reader or the listener to the topic. If the arguments that follow these questions are well managed, the speaker is likely to convince the audience to his/her side. For you to make convincing statements on a topic that borders on the questions above, you need to research into some of the causes of power failure, problems of food production in the country, road management in the country etc.

Some people, on the other hand, start with some allusions while some others just go straight to the topic, declare their stand on the issue and give reasons for their arguments. Some people start with pleasant jokes while some start on a level ground emotionally and then build up to elicit the interest, concern and compassion of the audience. You have to think about possible emotions/ emotional reactions and use them in your discussion of the topic.

3.2 Introduction

Introductions are very important because they give the reader the first impression of the write up. Bill Daly, (1997) in 'Writing introductions to argumentative essays (see reference at the end of the unit) notes that there are four parts of an introduction- It introduces the topic, states why the topic is important, states the differences of opinion about the topic and describes how the assignment will be structured and what the writer's stand is. All these should be ordered in an introduction.

3.2.1 Ordering Sentences in an Introduction

In an introduction, sentences should be ordered in such a way that the writer's line of argument or position is clear. Below is an example of an ordered introduction from the model essay on Marine Parks by Bill Daly (see reference at the end of the unit)-

The issue of whether we should allow marine parks to stay open has been widely debated in our community recently. It is an important issue because it concerns fundamental moral and economic questions about the way we use our native wildlife. A variety of different arguments have been put forward about this issue. This essay will consider arguments for having marine parks and point to some of the problems with these views. It will then put forward reasons for the introduction of laws which prohibit these unnecessary and cruel institutions.

You must make sure that as a writer, your introductory sentences are not haphazard. Write in such a way that the reader will be encouraged to continue reading your work. Your introduction is akin to the foundation of a house. Remember that when the foundation is faulty, the house will collapse. Also, first impression matters a lot. The first sentence in the example above is a general opinion on what people's feelings are on the issue of marine parks and the writer then zeros in on his/her own stand in the last sentence.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES 1

The sentences below are from Bill Daly's writings on argumentative essays (see reference at the end of this unit) Try to put the sentences in the correct order. They make up the introduction of an article on whether Australia should become a republic.

- a. As a result, the issue is a very controversial one and has attracted a lot of debate.
- b. It will then put forward a number of reasons why Australia should change to a republican form of government.
- c. The question of whether we maintain the monarchy is not merely a legal detail but is intrinsically linked to the way we perceive ourselves as a distinct nation of people with its own identity and culture.
- d. Since the time of federation, Australia has been a constitutional monarchy with the Queen of the United Kingdom as its head of state.
- e. This essay will consider some of the arguments for maintaining the monarch as head of state and will outline some of the problems with this position.

- f. However, today many Australians are questioning whether this form of government is still relevant or appropriate and are suggesting that we move towards the establishment of a republic.

3.3 Paragraph Flow

It is important that as you develop your paragraphs, there must be paragraph flow. In other words, there must be coherence or linkage. That is, one paragraph linking into the other in free flow manner. This is where you have to make use of transitional words that you learnt in the earlier units- however, in addition, nevertheless etc. You should be able to quote sources of information to support your argument and establish authority for what you have written. As much as possible, you should make sure that your arguments are logical and sensible. Try as much as possible not to contradict yourself or else, the purpose of writing an argumentative essay will be defeated. There could be as many paragraphs as you want depending on the purpose for which the essay is written. If it is a class essay, it may not be more than five or six and this includes the introduction and the conclusion. But if you are contributing to a newspaper article it could be more than that.

3.4 Summary

This is a very important aspect of the essay. Whether the essay is written or presented orally, summarising the major points is important. If a writer has presented a number of points, the reader may forget some of them. If the major points are not summarised to remind the reader of the salient points you have advanced to support your argument, the reader may forget. While writing the summary, you need to refer to the initial paragraphs and the main points. Your conclusion should restate the main ideas and emphasise the importance of the arguments. Your conclusion must signal clearly to the reader, that your journey has come to a graceful end. Don't introduce new points in your conclusions.

3.5 Editing

This is an important aspect of any essay writing not just argumentative essays. You need to go over your work and make all necessary corrections before you submit. There could have been omissions- that is some points or ideas you wanted to include which you forgot while writing. On the other hand, there could be some points which you included at a point but which you found unnecessary when you went over again. There could also be punctuation and spelling mistakes which if uncorrected could mar the presentation or essay.

The advent of computers has however made editing easy because it is just a question of deleting and re-writing. After you have edited your essay, go over the whole essay again to be sure that your ideas are well presented. If it is not a class assignment where everyone is expected to present their work individually, you could give your essay to a friend to go through for you. Ask for their comments. If there is any form of criticism, check your facts again before you submit your work.

3.6 Conclusion of the Essay

Conclusions are as important as introductions. The conclusion is aimed at informing the reader that you have come to the end of your presentation and that you have covered all the important points. Some writers try to highlight these important points in the summary/conclusion so as to remind the reader of the writer's line of argument. The conclusion must be carefully written because this is the last part of your essay that the readers will come in contact with and it will make a lasting impression on them. Below is an example of the conclusion from the model essay on marine parks as recorded by Bill Daly (1997).

In conclusion, these parks should be closed, or at the very least, no new animals should be captured for marine parks in the future. Our society is no longer prepared to tolerate unnecessary cruelty to animals for science and entertainment. If we continue with our past crimes against these creatures we will be remembered as cruel and inhuman by the generations of the future.

In your conclusion, you need to restate your own side of the argument which you have presented strongly in your essay. You also need to include two or three sentences which give a general summary of your side of the argument. You can also provide information on the consequences of not heeding your advice and what humanity stands to gain if people identify with your stand on the issue.

Sentences can also be ordered in a conclusion to give a logical presentation to the concluding part of the argument. You should try to order the sentences in your conclusion so that the reader can make up his/her mind on what decisions to take as regards accepting or rejecting your line of argument.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES 2

Below are some sentences that make up the concluding part of an argumentative essay. Re-arrange them in an acceptable and logical order. These sentences are taken from Bill Daly's (1997) sample sentences of a concluding paragraph of an argumentative essay. (See reference at the end of the unit).

- a. If we fail to meet our obligations in this area, we will be sacrificing our present

and future well-being merely in order to appease out dated notions of family life and to achieve short-term financial savings.

- b. In conclusion, it is essential that we support the nation's parents and children by funding more childcare places.
- c. Only in this way can we provide the valuable learning environments that young Australians need while, at the same time, utilising the skills of all productive members of our society.
- d. The entire community will then be enriched economically, socially and culturally.

After rearranging the sentences, read them out to your classmates and find out if you all got the gist of what the conclusion is all about.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have been able to highlight what an argumentative essay is and what the main components are. Argumentative essays are meant to persuade and convince the reader to accept your line of reasoning. Researching the topic is important because you need strong points to convince your reader to change his/her opinion about a particular topic or opinion. The introduction and the concluding sections are very important as they introduce the reader to the topic and remind the reader of the essential points at the end of the essay.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you learnt that:

1. For you to be able to convince another person, you need to know your facts and be able to present them convincingly enough.
2. In persuasive or argumentative essays, we try to convince others to agree with our opinions and/or facts, and share our values.
3. You have to be sure of the facts by making sure your sources are correct and verifiable.
4. It is important that you do some fact finding work on whatever topic you choose.
5. In an introduction, sentences should be ordered in such a way that the writer's line of argument and position are clear.
6. You must make sure that as a writer, your introductory sentences are not haphazard.
7. It is important that as you develop your paragraphs, there must be paragraph flow.
8. Whether the essay is written or presented orally, summarising the major points is important.
9. The conclusion must be carefully written because this is the last part of your essay that the readers will come in contact with and it will make a lasting impression on them.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Do you believe that human beings are born equal?

Write an essay either in support or against the claim. The length of the essay should be about five hundred words. While editing, do not give to a friend as all of you will be writing on the topic. Edit it yourself and submit to your tutorial instructor.

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UNIT 5 THE EXPOSITORY ESSAY

Composition can be many things; a liberal art, a loner's sullen craft, a parliament of one, but never a matter of regulations handed down from above. Ever a dictatorship; nor yet an anarchy, for there are some rules after all but they are such governing principles as the governed must discover for themselves, in a free society of writing.

(Nash and Stancey 1997:182)

Starts with life; makes a text; then a revision literally, a second seeing; an afterthought erasing some but not all of the original while writing something new over the first layer of text.

(Gore Vidal, Palimpsest, in Nash and Stacey (1997)

In this unit, we shall discuss expository essays which are another form of writing which you may be required to do as a university student. You need to be versed in writing different kinds of essays because of both current academic challenges and future societal expectations of a person of your calibre. Much is expected of you in the labour market and socially as a citizen of any community. The type of essay described in this unit is such that require in-depth information.

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Choosing a Topic
 - 3.2 Developmental Pattern Writing
 - 3.2.1 Definition
 - 3.2.2 Cause and Effect
 - 3.2.3 Classification
 - 3.3 Organisation
 - 3.4 Research Work
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

An expository essay is any type of essay or writing that is used to describe, explain or inform the reader on a specific or particular aspect of a topic. In expository essay, a new or hidden idea is revealed to the reader. It involved deep research or findings. This is common in the sciences and the humanities. The student may be required to give in-depth information or demonstrate in- depth knowledge of the circumstances surrounding a particular thing or situation. In other words, the writer is expected to bring to the fore some verifiable facts on the topic to be discussed. Below are the objectives of the unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what expository essays are;
- identify some of the strategies for writing expository essays; and
- use some of these strategies in writing sections of expository essays for class presentation or take- home assignments.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Some of the strategies for writing expository essays that will be discussed in this unit are similar in some ways to some of the ones that have been discussed in some of the earlier units. But because repetition makes for emphasis, we shall still mention some of them in this unit. Below are some of the steps we need to take while planning to write an expository essay.

3.1 Choosing a Topic

Before you can say you want to write, you must have had a topic in mind. In regular classroom situations, students are usually given topics to write on. But occasionally, students are allowed to choose a topic of their own. Once you have a topic, you have to study the topic very well so that you will know if it requires a short response or a long one. This information is important because your lecturer may be expecting a long essay from you while you think it is a short one. You may lose marks if you do not write up to the required length because it would mean you have not fully discussed some essential points in the essay. In choosing the topic, you have to make it simple, concrete, grammatical and captivating. In such a situation you have not met the expectations of your lecturer. You must be sure of what is expected of you in terms of essay length so that the topic can be well discussed. Your topic should also not be too narrow as this will make it difficult for you to get enough facts for the specific length of essay. In your choice of topic selection, you must make sure you choose a topic that is big enough to be discussed but narrow enough to be managed e.g.:

1. The disappearance and reappearance of groundnut pyramids in Northern Nigeria: the need for a reappraisal.
2. The use of firewood for local combustion in Nigeria- a point to consider.
3. Empowering women through small scale businesses in Nigeria- the way forward.
4. Normal and excessive use of drugs.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Imagine that you are in a school where the majority of the students smoke and take hard drugs. Many of them misbehave in class and are rude to their tutorial instructors, insulting and quarrelling with other students while some do not attend lectures at all. The school authority does not like these kinds of behaviour and has therefore asked you to write an expository essay on the topic - 'Normal and excessive use of drugs'.

How will you start?

What are some of the research work you need to do? What reference materials will you consult?

How will you order your points?

3.2 Developmental Pattern Writing

In the article on writing excellent expository essays; guidelines and tips by custompapers.com (see full reference at the end of the unit), a few steps are highlighted on the kind of developmental patterns that can be adopted while writing expository essays. In this section, some of these tips will be discussed.

3.2.1 Definition

You may have to define some terms in your attempt to write an expository essay. For example, writing an expository essay on a topic such as 'Reminiscences on the Nigerian Civil War' or 'The Oil Industry in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria' require your giving definitions or explanation of terms such as – reminiscences, industry, Niger Delta etc. You may wonder why you need to define or explain what you mean by Niger Delta when it is so clear to everyone here. The answer is simple. If your work is going on the net, not everybody knows where Niger Delta is, so you have to explain and also indicate the location. This will make your discussion of the topic interesting vivid and realistic. You may need to give examples of some of the things you mention so that your illustrations can be clear to the reader.

3.2.2 Cause and Effect

In a developmental pattern you may need to illustrate the connection between events or how one event is dependent on another or how one event is as a result of a previous one. Do not forget that you need to substantiate your points at any point in time. You must not be found to be giving wrong claims. Remember that if your writing is made public, someone else can quote you or refer to something you said later on or some years to come. And you would not want to be misrepresented. That is why exposition involves accurate information gotten through series of research.

3.2.3 Classification

You may need to do some classification while writing the essay. For example, you may have to classify the effect of certain actions taken by the Federal government during the civil war to be able to determine whether they were positive, negative, profitable, devastating or necessary. This may involve listing some observable resultant effects of some decisions taken. But you have to be careful about this. Expository essays are revealing so you must be careful not to run down individuals. You can use expressions that are not absolutes when you are not too sure. You can use expressions such as- *probably---*, *unconfirmed sources--*, *an eyewitness' account---*. But where you are absolutely sure of your claim and you have substantiated facts on the issue, you can refer to such while writing.

3.2.4 Compare and Contrast

You may need to do some form of comparative work at times. As a writer may have to examine the basic differences between the actions taken and actions not taken at times. You can do some form of comparison or a critical analysis of the topic or events or situations.

3.3 Organisation

This has to do with the arrangement of the work as a whole, the number of paragraphs, the points to discuss, the arrangement of the points etc. You have to decide on the number of paragraphs you want but this also has to do with how long the essay is. Most school essays have about five paragraphs whereas some higher institution essays could be up to seven or eight including the introduction and the summary. If the points you want to consider are many, you then have one introductory paragraph, a body of paragraphs and a concluding paragraph. You should discuss each major division of your work appropriately and clearly in paragraphs so that the reader would be able to understand what you are talking about and follow your line of reasoning.

3.4 Research Work

Most students start writing essays without trying to find out something about the topic. You need to research on the topic you want to write about. You may have to find out about the origin of a word, the meaning of a concept, the usefulness of an object, idea or concept etc. Researching a topic always enriches your work. Expository essays in particular are meant to dig out facts about a situation or thing and since you are not an encyclopedia, you cannot know everything. You need to consult books, dictionaries, encyclopedias, the Internet etc as resource materials. The Internet in particular is a very valuable resource material which you can consult on any area of study. But remember to acknowledge your source of information. That is the hall mark of a good academic. If however, you find it difficult to get good reference materials, you have to take time to think on the topic and go through some local newspapers and magazines peradventure you will find some useful information on the topic.

Just to give you an idea of how to construct your sentences in an expository essay, below is an extract on the introductory section of a write up titled 'Failure of state administration' by Bamidele Ayo in his book *Public Administration and the Conduct of Community Affairs Among the Yoruba in Nigeria*

One way of measuring the success or failure of governments in modern societies is to assess how far such governments go in developing or failing to develop the conditions for satisfying the basic needs of the people they govern. -----

The form of governance in Africa is largely centralised. This manifests itself not only in the political and administrative realms, but also in the allocation, distribution and utilization of human, financial, and material resources. National governments have also intruded, in one way or the other, in the activities of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), including religious organizations. All efforts to decentralize decision making power, and allocation and distribution of resources, have been frustrated by central governments in Africa.

State control of national resources and monopoly of decision making power has retarded socioeconomic development (Adedeji). Most of Africa's population lives below the poverty line. A pervasive intervention of the state in the management of national economies in the post-independence African states remains the source of the tragedies which contemporary Africa is forced to live with (Musa-Nda 3-5).

Yet many social scientists drawn from Africa and the western countries have influenced and supported this centralized approach to governance and social and economic development in Africa. Some of these authors include Aboyade, Apter, Esman, Huntington, and Mabogunje (1980). We shall return to this point later in this chapter.

At the same time, there is a good number of other scholars from other disciplines, especially the broader humanities, who have challenged this approach. These scholars see parallels to this centralized approach to constituting order in autocratic and exploitative regimes and in the pathologies of the Ancient Regime in France. Some of the noble critics of autocratic regimes in Africa (civilian and military regimes) include Wole Soyinka, Chinua Achebe, James Ngugi, Mongo Beti, Alexander Biyidiaka, Camera Lye, and Jack Mapanje, to mention just a few. These and other critics have through their literary writings launched persistent attacks on the autocratic regimes in Africa.

(From Public Administration and the Conduct of Community Affairs BY S. Bamidele Ayo, PhD)

You will notice that the writer of the text above made reference to many scholars to substantiate his /her points about the governance in Africa. This is just the introductory part of the essay. The writer quoted authorities who have worked in this area of study along with the dates their works were published. He even referred to some of them as *noble critics*.

All these are important in an expository kind of essay. It is a more serious essay than the argumentative essay. You will notice that we started from the narrative which is light, then, to descriptive which requires a lot of your attention, then, to argumentative which also requires your getting facts to support your point of view and lastly to expository which is a serious form of writing which needs documented facts at times. So, you can see that expository essay is all encompassing. Not all of life would be on the light mood all the time; a few things could need some form of seriousness occasionally. As a result, you should get prepared for all forms of writings any time.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention some of the resource materials you need on a topic such as 'Foreign investment in Nigeria: a necessary step for national development'.

4.0 CONCLUSION

An expository essay is any type of essay or writing that is used to describe, explain or inform the reader on a specific or particular aspect of a topic. In this work, we have been able to discuss some of the strategies for writing expository essays. Your topic must be big enough to be discussed and narrow enough to be managed.

Researching the topic and doing some form of classification of the content is important in writing expository essays.

At one point in time or the other you may be required to dig out some facts about a situation and present in writing. At such a time, some of the points that have been highlighted in this unit may come in handy.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt that:

1. An expository essay is any type of essay or writing that is used to describe, explain or inform the reader on a specific or particular aspect of a topic.
2. Once you have a topic, you have to study the topic very well so that you will know if it requires a short response or a long one.
3. Organisation has to do with the arrangement of the work as a whole, the number of paragraphs, the points to discuss, the arrangement of the points.
4. You need to research on the topic you want to write about
5. Expository essays in particular are meant to dig out facts about a situation or thing.
6. You may need to consult books, dictionaries, encyclopedias, internet etc as resource materials.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Look at the essay topic under your Self Assessment Exercises 2 and answer the following questions.

- What is foreign investment?
- What is national development?
- What are some of the things that amount to national development in Nigeria?

Is the nation having enough foreign investment? If yes, what can be done to improve on that and if No, what can be done to address the situation?

Your answers to these questions will involve your doing some form of research on the topic 'Foreign investment' and you would have got enough facts to put together at least five paragraphs of an essay.

Practise free writing first as you have been told in the other units. Then pull your thoughts together, read what you have scribbled down. You may need to do more research to get more facts. Do not hesitate to do this.

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