

Ayo Banji

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Publications

USE OF ENGLISH

**MANUAL FOR
UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**

A STUDENT-CENTRED APPROACH

EDITED BY:

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FOREWORD

One of the most challenging issues in university education today is communicative competence in English. It is important not only because of the status of English as the national lingua franca and the language of higher education in the country, but also because it is the one certain means by which the individual is sure to be spontaneously assessed in formal as well as informal situations. The importance of English within the university reaches beyond the Departments of English to virtually all other programmes. The introduction of the Use of English in the General Studies Programme is an attempt to tackle the challenge posed by the evident decline in the general quality of English usage. However, the outcome of the programme has not always fulfilled the purpose for which it was designed, and the limitations of the present practice must be evident to many teachers of undergraduates at the second and third year levels of their study.

This manual is the authors' timely intervention in the far from satisfactory state of English usage in today's Nigeria. The authors all experienced Use of English teachers have correctly identified the problem, and their comprehensive approach promises an effective solution by extending the scope of the manual beyond the existing content of the Use of English curriculum to include, not only the four basic communication skills, but also those skills that enhance language competence, like précis, study skills and literary appreciation.

To appreciate the depth of the problem that these authors had to deal with, one has to consider the social origins of the problem. These have been cumulative, and they reflect some of the stages of social change in Nigeria. The problem of English in communities where English is not the native language used to be identified as a second language problem, with mother tongue interference as a factor to be taken into account in English teaching. Complications came with the expansion of schools and the consequent inadequacy of qualified teachers and resources for teaching. The situation grew worse with the gradual transformation of English

from a second language to a mother tongue in response to the melting pot of a multilingual community. Thanks to inter-ethnic marriages. Linguists have argued that, partly as a result of this changing demography, many of our indigenous languages are threatened by extinction. This implies that the case that has been made for mother tongue education as a firm foundation for effective learning is also under threat, although it is based on sound empirical proof. The most recent stage that is now affecting language use is the development of digital communication, specifically the effect of texting and social media exchanges, especially as these are unmediated and unedited. Digital technology is enabling a new kind of interference and conventional English, and perhaps bringing into being the beginnings of a new linguistic variety.

The authors of this manual have taken all this into account. Their wide ranging 25-module approach to the problem is just the solution that is needed now. The manual promises to be an indispensable companion to this new generation of students of the language, as well as the older generation of Nigerian learners of English.

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PREFACE

The Use of English course was conceived by the National Universities commission (NUC), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) to equip students in Nigerian tertiary institutions with the requisite skills considered necessary to enhance their communicative competence in the use of English language during the course of their studies and after they graduate from their respective institutions. This requirement is reinforced by the fact that English is the language of higher education in Nigeria. Therefore, the presentation of the Use of English course to Nigerian students should be well-rounded, detailed and systematic. The course should focus on the receptive skills of listening and reading and the productive skills of speaking and writing. Allied to the above is the need to identify the specific language skills required by the new generation of Nigerian students need to function effectively in English.

Sadly, the reality on ground in most institution is that the Use of English course is too often viewed as a bother at worst or a minor course with limited relevance at best. In view of the fact that it does not carry credit units in such institutions, both students undertaking it and lecturers teaching it too often regard it with levity. This explains the lackadaisical attitude towards the course by both parties and the poor performance in English usage both on and off campus. In view of the feedback received day in day out about the competence and performance of Nigerian university students and graduates, it is expedient that the course be given the seriousness it deserves. This is what informs the writing of this manual.

We observed that the present generation of students in Nigerian tertiary institutions generally performs below the standard expected of them in both spoken and written English. This poor performance is traceable to poor reading habits and the negative effect of modern technology on spelling and grammar. *The use of English Manual for Universities and Colleges* has been designed to meet the needs of the present generation of first year students in Nigerian tertiary institutions.

**USE OF ENGLISH MANUAL FOR UNIVERSITIES
AND COLLEGES
(A Student-centred Approach)**

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MODULE 9

BASIC ENGLISH GRAMMAR 1: HOW TO FORM NEW ENGLISH WORDS (LEXICAL STRUCTURES)

Theophilus Ayooluwa Banji

Preview of Module

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Word Formation Processes
- 9.3 Other Categories of Word Formation
- 9.4 Conclusion
- 9.5 Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of the module are to:

- (a) explain to students to how new words are formed in English; and
- (b) expose them to the different word formation processes in English.

9.1 Introduction

Lexical structures refer to the forms in which words are realised or composed. The realisation or composition is in terms of the components or parts of a word. Therefore, lexical structures permit the breakdown of words into their constituent parts, as well as the description of the resulting forms and their functions, particularly where a word is used in the company of other words, as found in sentences. We shall start by defining some key terms. The purpose of this is to provide some explanation for the terms that are used later in the module.

1. Lexis. Lexis is defined as the total set of the words that constitute a language. In other words, it refers to the vocabulary of a language; not its grammar or morphology. Apart from being the total stock or set of the

words in a language, lexis also accounts for, or provides, the definitions of the words. Usually, such definitions are found in a dictionary of the language. The words are entered in the dictionary as lexical items or lexical entries.

2. Morpheme. A morpheme is the smallest unit of a language that has meaning content. Morphemes are considered at the level of words. In other words, morphemes are the constituents or components of words. A morpheme is also defined as the smallest morphological unit of a language, which cannot be divided into smaller units. Therefore, a morpheme is either a whole word by itself or part of a whole word.

3. Inflection. Inflection can be defined as the process that causes a change in the form and function of a word. The change could be about tense, person, number, case or gender. For example, in grammatical terms, inflection is the process in which an item, such as an inflectional morpheme, is added to an existing word (usually called a base). For example, the addition of the inflectional morpheme 's' to the base word 'sleep' results in the following changes: (a) The base form morpheme 'sleep', with the inflectional morpheme 's' added changes, now has the following grammatical features or properties: present simple tense and reference to a third-person singular (he, she or it).

4. Affixation. Affixation, like inflection is a process that causes a change in a word in terms of form and function. However, affixation does more than changing a word in terms of grammar as found with the concepts of tense, person, number, case or gender. It is also about changing, for instance, the class or group to which a word belongs.

9.2 Word Formation Processes

The discussion of the concept of affixation above could be viewed as an introduction to the discussion of the wider concept of word formation processes. With its twin sub-concepts of prefixation and suffixation, affixation is traditionally referred to as one of the key or major word

formation processes in English. The other key word formation processes are conversion and compounding. Other processes are traditionally referred to as minor. These minor word formation processes include reduplication, clipping, blending and acronymy. **Affixation**, as a word formation process, is mainly about creating new words from existing ones, sometimes without any change in the class to which a word and the resulting new one belong. There are two types of affixation: prefixation and suffixation.

Prefixation occurs when a morpheme is added in the initial position to a base word, as in the following example in which the prefix 'un' is added to the base word 'happy' to effect a change in meaning, not necessarily a change in word class. In other words, a new word, the opposite of 'happy' is formed; but both the base form 'happy' and the new word 'unhappy' both belong to the same word class or word group of adjectives, the only difference being that the former is positive while the latter is negative.

Suffixation occurs when a morpheme is added to a base or an existing word in a final position. For example, the adjective 'slow' changes to the adverb 'slowly' through the sub-process of suffixation, under the process of affixation. In the example, word-class changing morpheme 'ly' has been added to the base form 'slow' to effect the change in word class from an adjective to an adverb. Therefore, the addition of the morpheme at the end of the base word is suffixation, the counterpart of the second form of affixation, known as prefixation.

9.2.1 Prefixation

As indicated above, prefixation involves adding a morpheme to a base word in an initial position. A prefixation morpheme is called a prefix. Prefixes are of different types and named in terms of their meaning functions. There are the following types of prefixes: negative, reversative, pejorative, repeating, time/order, degree, attitudinal, locative, number and conversion. Also, there is a further type of prefixes categorised as 'others'.

1. Negative Prefixes. As their name implies, negative prefixes have the meaning content of negation; and are indicators or markers of

oppositeness. Negative prefixes include the following: un- (as in unhappy), non- (as in non-existent), in- (as in inaction), dis- (as in dislocation, disharmony, a (as in amoral), im- (as in impatient) and il- (as in illegal).

2. Reversative Prefixes. Reversative prefixes indicate the reverse of an action or a state. Those that indicate the reverse of an action include the following: un- (as in undress and undo), dis- (as in disassociate, discontinue, disinvest and disprove) and de- (as in decontrol and decommission). Those that indicate the reverse of a state include de- (as in deforest, defoliate and dehumidify) and dis- (as in dispossess, dishearten and disincite).

3. Pejorative Prefixes. Pejorative prefixes indicate an unfavourable or a demeaning assessment of an entity, an idea or a situation. Those that indicate an unfavourable or a negative assessment include mis- (as in misappropriation), and mal- (as in malnutrition and malpractice). Those that indicate a demeaning assessment include pseudo- (as in pseudo-scientist and pseudo-philanthropist).

4. Repeat Prefixes. The prefix that indicates the repeat of an action is re- (as in re-visit, re-introduce and re-do). The prefix enables the formation of new verbs and nouns as in re-introduce (a verb) and re-introduction (a noun).

5. Time and Order Prefixes. Time and order prefixes are indicators of positions in terms of time and order of occurrence. Time prefixes include pre- which means 'before' (as in pre-colonial and pre-election), post- which means 'after' (as in post-tutorial and postgraduate). Prefixes of order of occurrence include fore- which means 'before' (as in foreknown, foretold and foreknowledge), ex- which means 'no longer', or 'former' (as in ex-chairman and ex-governor).

6. Degree and Size Prefixes. Prefixes that indicate degree have the meaning content of hierarchy. Prefixes of degree include arch- which, when functioning as an adjective, means 'chief' or 'principal' (as in

archdeacon, archangel and archbishop), out- which means 'more than' or 'surpassing' (as in out-do and out-run), super- which means 'of greater quality', 'over the other' or 'above the other' (as in and superhuman), over- which means 'too much' (as in over-do, overreact and overheat), hyper- which denotes negativity, and means 'in excess' or 'excessive' (as in hyperactive, hypersensitive and hypercritical); sub- which means 'falling short of' (as in sub-standard); also sub- which means 'secondary in rank or order' (as in sub-post office and subplot). Prefixes of size include super- which means 'of greater size' (as in supermarket and super-ordinate), ultra- which means 'beyond' or 'extreme' (as in ultraconservative and ultramodern).

7. Attitudinal Prefixes. Attitudinal prefixes are indicators of how one reacts in terms of belief, emotion (feeling), view or effect. Attitudinal prefixes include co- which means (a) 'in company', 'jointly' or 'with others' (as in co-operate, co-exist, co-star and co-pilot), anti- which means 'against' or 'opposed to' (as in anti-establishment); or (b) 'having an effect', 'counteracting' or 'neutralizing' (as in antifreeze); pro- which means 'on the side of', 'in support of' or 'favourable towards or in favour of' (as in pro-democracy and pro-Nigeria).

8. Locative Prefixes. Locative prefixes, as the name implies, indicate locations or positions. Locative prefixes include super- which means 'above' or 'over' (as in superstructure and superimpose); sub- which means 'situated below or underneath' (as in subway and submarine); inter- which means 'between' or 'among' (as in intercontinental, intercity and intercommunicate); intra- which means 'within' or 'inside' (as in intra-national, intranet and intramural); and trans- which means 'across' or 'beyond' (as in transatlantic and transalpine).

9. Number Prefixes. Number prefixes indicate quantity in terms of number. The function of indicating is descriptive in nature. Number prefixes include uni- which means 'having only one' (as in unilateral, unicycle and unicameral); mono- which means 'one' or 'single' (as in monorail and monolingual); bi- which means 'having two', 'occurring or lasting for two', 'on both sides/ directions' or 'occurring twice during' (as in

the following, respectively: bifocal, biennial, bilateral and bimonthly); di- which means 'twice', 'two' or 'double' (as in dicotyledon and dioxide); tri- which means 'three'/'thrice' or 'occurring every three' (as in these words, respectively: trilingual and tri-monthly); multi- which means 'many' or 'much' (as in multimillionaire) or 'more than one' (as in multi-storey and multicoloured); and poly- which also means 'many' or 'much' (as in polysyllabic and polymorphous).

10. Conversion Prefixes. The function of conversion prefixes is to enable a word to move from a word class to another. For example, the conversion prefix en- enables the noun 'danger' to move to the word class of verbs, where it becomes 'endanger'. The other conversion prefix is be- (as in bedazzle and befriend).

11. Other Prefixes. Prefixes that cannot be neatly put into the foregoing types are called 'other prefixes'. Other prefixes include auto- which means (a) 'self' or 'by the same one' (as in autobiography) or (b) 'self-propelling' (as in autogyro and automobile); neo- which means 'new', 'recent' or 'a modern form of' (as in neo-colonialism and neoclassical); pan- which means 'including or relating to all parts' (as in pan-African and pan-Asian); proto- which means 'first' or 'original' (as in proto-martyr and prototype, respectively); and semi- which means 'half', 'partly', 'almost' or 'occurring twice in a specified period' (as in the following, respectively: semicircle, semi-professional and semi-weekly).

9.2.2 Suffixation

As in the introductory part of this module, suffixation is the process of creating a new word from an existing one through the addition of a morpheme, in the final position, to the existing one. The added morpheme is called a suffix. Suffixation may or may not result in a change of word class. For example, through a process of affixation, an adjective changes to an adverb, as in 'quick' and 'quickly' respectively. Also, an example of non-change of word class is in the word 'gang' changing to 'gangster' where both words (the existing and the resulting) are nouns.

As in prefixation, suffixation is also of different types, as follows: noun-to-noun, noun-to-adjective, verb-to-noun, adjective-to-noun, verb, adjective-to-verb, verb-to-adjective and adverb.

1. Noun-to-Noun Suffixes. Noun-to-noun suffixes enable the formation of nouns from existing nouns. In other words, they are used in the formation of more nouns. This class of suffixes includes ster (as in trickster); -er (as in Londoner and rancher); -let and ette which mean 'small' or 'little' (as in booklet and kitchenette respectively); also ette which denotes an imitation (as in flannelette); also ette which denotes the female gender (as in usherette); -ess which also denotes the female gender (as in songstress); -dy and ie (as in daddy and auntie); -hood which indicates a status (as in statehood and boyhood); -ship which indicates a status or condition (as in followership, leadership and dictatorship); -dom which indicates a domain or condition (as in kingdom and fiefdom); -cracy (as in plutocracy and democracy); -(e)ry (as in rivalry, refinery and machinery); -ing (as in panelling); and ful (as in handful and mouthful).

2. Noun-to-Adjective Suffixes. Noun-to-adjective suffixes enable the formation of adjectives from nouns. In other words, an existing noun becomes an adjective when a noun-to-adjective suffix is added to it. Noun-to-adjective suffixes include ite (as in Israelite); -(i)an (as in physician, Indonesian and republican); -ese (as in Congolese and Chinese); -ist (as in socialist, violinist and capitalist); and -ism (as in communism and sectarianism).

3. Verb-to-Noun Suffixes. Verb-to-noun suffixes enable the formation of nouns from verbs. In other words, a new noun is formed from an existing verb when a suffix is added to the verb. Verb-to-noun suffixes include er and or (as in rider and actor, respectively); -ant (as in inhabitant and disinfectant); -(e)e (as in retiree and employee); -ation (as in exploration and organisation); -ment (as in government, amazement and recruitment); -al (as in refusal, dismissal and rebuttal); -ing (as in writing and building).

4. Adjective-to-Noun Suffixes. Adjective to noun suffixes enable the formation of nouns from adjectives. In other words, the suffixes in this group are added to adjectives which result in the production of nouns. Adjective-to-noun suffixes include ness (as in kindness, recklessness and greatness); -ity (as in duality and rigidity).

5. Adjective-to-Verb Suffixes. Adjective-to-verb suffixes enable the formation of verbs from adjectives. The suffixes include ify (as in solidify), -ise (as in popularise) and en (as in deafen).

6. Noun-to-Adjective Suffixes. Noun-to-adjective suffixes enable the formation of adjectives from nouns. The suffixes include ful (as in dutiful), -less (as in sinless), -ly (as in cowardly), -like (as in childlike), -y (as in dreamy), -ish (as in childish), -al (as in autumnal), -ial (as in pictorial), -ic (as in heroic), -ive (as in active) and ous (as in virtuous).

7. Other Suffixes. Other suffixes are those that do not belong to any of the types discussed above. Such suffixes include adjective suffixes, which are those that enable the formation of adjectives, as found in the following types: able which enable the formation of adjectives from verbs (as in readable), -ible which enables the formation of adjectives from nouns (as in forcible), -ish which enables the formation of adjectives from other adjectives (as in youngish) and ed (as in moneyed).

Furthermore, other suffixes are those referred to as adverb suffixes. Adverb suffixes include ly which enable the formation of adverbs from adjectives (as in strangely), -wards which enable the formation of adverbs from nouns (as in backwards) and wise (as in clockwise).

9.3 Other Categories of Word Formation

In addition to the word formation processes discussed so far in this module, there are other categories which include conversion, compounding (including reduplication), clipping, blends and acronyms.

1. Conversion. Here, conversion, as a word formation process, is not the same as we have under conversion prefixes above. As discussed above, conversion prefixes are prefixes which, when added to existing words (or morphemes), enable the formation of a new word, but with the word changing its class, such as the word 'able' which is an adjective becomes the verb 'enable' which is a verb formed because of the prefix 'en'. However, the process of conversion, as discussed in this section, is one which does not involve the use of affixes (prefixes and suffixes) in the change of the class of a word; a word is derived from an existing word, where both belong to different word classes. They are discussed below

(a) Verb-to-Noun Conversion. In this type, the conversion of verbs to nouns is shown in the following:

1. Verbs of feeling (as in doubt and love):
 - (i) I doubt your readiness.
 - (ii) I have a doubt about your readiness.
 - (iii) They love their parents.
 - (iv) Their love is sincere.
2. Verbs of events or activity (as in laugh and walk):
 - (i) I laugh at your jokes every day.
 - (ii) I have a laugh every day.
3. Verbs of actions towards an object (as in answer and catch):
 - (i) I catch a bird, sometimes.
 - (ii) I made a good catch yesterday.
4. Verbs that refer to a complement, an object or a subject (as in bore and cheat):
 - (i) Riju bores and cheats me.
 - (ii) Riju is a bore and a cheat.
5. Verbs of instrument (as in cover and wrap):
 - (i) He covers or wraps parcels.
 - (ii) He bought one wrap and a cover for the new book.
6. Verbs of movement (as in retreat and turn):
 - (i) John retreats every two days.
 - (ii) John goes to a retreat every month.

(b) Adjective-to-Noun Conversion. Some adjectives are converted to nouns without any affixes. Depending on context or situation of use, such adjectives also function as nouns (as in daily and comic):

- (i) I buy the daily newspaper.
- (ii) The newspaper is a daily.

(c) Noun-to-Verb Conversion. There are seven types of nouns that also function as verbs, or are converted to verbs, as follows:

1. Nouns that refer to containers or a position (as in bottle and Corner):
 - (i) I bought a bottle of water.
 - (ii) I bottled some water this morning.
2. Nouns that indicate an act of providing or covering (as in mask and paint):
 - (i) He wears a mask every evening.
 - (ii) He masks his face every evening.
3. Nouns that indicate removal or deprivation (as in peel and skin):
 - (i) The peel of the banana is very thin.
 - (ii) It is easy to peel the banana.
4. Nouns of instrument (as in brake and knife):
 - (i) The knife is new.
 - (ii) Sometimes, I knife the banana into two.
5. Nouns of status (as in nurse and referee):
 - (i) Deborah is a nurse.
 - (ii) Deborah nurses her mother.
6. Nouns change (as in cash and cripple):
 - (i) I withdraw cash once a week from the bank.
 - (ii) I cash my salary cheque every four weeks.
7. Nouns that indicate a carrier or vehicle (as in ship and bicycle):
 - (i) The ship sails to the west once a week.
 - (ii) I ship some goods every week.

(a) **Verb-to-Noun Conversion.** In this type, the conversion of verbs to nouns is shown in the following:

1. Verbs of feeling (as in doubt and love):

- (i) I doubt your readiness.
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- (i) I laugh at your jokes every day.
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3. Verbs of actions towards an object (as in answer and catch):

- (i) I catch a bird, sometimes.
- (ii) I made a good catch yesterday.

4. Verbs that refer to a complement, an object or a subject (as in bore and cheat):

- (i) Riju bores and cheats me.
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6. Verbs of movement (as in retreat and turn):

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(b) **Adjective-to-Noun Conversion.** Some adjectives are converted to nouns without any affixes. Depending on context or situation of use, such adjectives also function as nouns (as in daily and comic):

- (i) I buy the daily newspaper.
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(c) **Noun-to-Verb Conversion.** There are seven types of nouns that also function as verbs, or are converted to verbs, as follows:

1. Nouns that refer to containers or a position (as in bottle and Corner):

- (i) I bought a bottle of water.
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5. Nouns of status (as in nurse and referee):

- (i) Deborah is a nurse.
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6. Nouns change (as in cash and cripple):

- (i) I withdraw cash once a week from the bank.
- (ii) I cash my salary cheque every four weeks.

7. Nouns that indicate a carrier or vehicle (as in ship and bicycle):

- (i) The ship sails to the west once a week.
- (ii) I ship some goods every week.

(d) **Adjective-to-Verb Conversion.** Sometimes, adjectives become verbs without any affixation (as in calm and dirty):

- (i) There is calm in the room.
- (ii) I calm the restive learners with good counsel.

2. Compounding

Compounding is another way to form new words. It is a process which involves the joining together of two or more words into one. A compound contains two or more words that function as one word (as in the following, some of which can be written together, separately or hyphenated: classroom, sunrise, earthquake, headache, handwriting, washing machine, walking stick, hay fever, tissue paper, coffee time, firing squad, boat-ride, never-to-be-forgotten, bitter-sweet and good-looking).

Furthermore, reduplication is a sub-category of compounding. Reduplication is used in the following ways in the formation of new words:

- (a) imitation of sounds (as in tick-tock)
- (b) alternation of movement (as in seesaw)
- (c) indication of inconsistency or poor output (as in wishy-washy)

3. Clipping

Clipping is another way to form new words. It is a process of cutting off parts of words to make the words shorter, but retain their meanings. Examples of clips are 'phone' (telephone), 'photo' (photograph) and 'flu' (influenza). Note that clipping is used in informal contexts. For example, it should not be used in formal contexts such as school examinations and formal letters of application.

4. Blends

Blends enable the formation of a new word through the joining together of fragments or parts of different words, as in 'brunch' (breakfast and lunch), 'motel' (motor and hotel) and 'smog' (smoke and fog).

5. Acronyms

Acronyms are new words formed from the combination of the initial letters of two or more words, as in 'C.O.D' (cash on delivery), 'UN' (United

Nations) 'radar' (radio detecting and ranging) and 'UNESCO' (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation). The examples show that some acronyms are pronounced in terms of letters of the alphabet, while others are pronounced as words.

9.4 Conclusion

In this module, we have discussed a range of word formation processes. The discussion has two main aims. First, it aims to provide a background for the learner to update his or her knowledge of how new words are formed in English. Secondly, it aims to motivate the learner to increase his or her word power, through the formation and use of new words.

9.5 Exercises

The following exercises are suitable for either individual test or classroom discussion:

A. Define or explain the following terms and illustrate your answer with two example for each term:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (i) Attitudinal prefix | (ii) Pejorative prefix |
| (iii) Negative prefix | (iv) Time and order prefix |
| (v) Conversion prefix | (vi) Compounding |
| (vii) Locative prefix | (viii) Diminutive prefix |
| (ix) Noun-to-noun suffix | (x) Verb-to-noun suffix |
| (xi) Noun-to-adjective suffix | (xii) Verb-to-noun conversion |
| (xiii) Acronym | (xiv) Blends |
| (xv) Clipping | |

B. Supply two additional words to show that you understand how to form words with the following prefixes:

- | | | | |
|---------|-----------|--------------|-------|
| a- | [not] | asymmetrical | |
| ante- | [before] | antenatal | |
| circum- | [around] | circumstance | |
| contra- | [against] | contradict | |
| fore- | [before] | forefather | |

hyper-	[excessive]	hyperactive
mis-	[not]	misunderstand
poly-	[many]	polytechnic
pseudo-	[false]	pseudo-intellectual
super-	[above]	supersonic
ultra-	[beyond]	ultraviolet
uni-	[one]	uniform

C. Supply two additional words for each of the following suffixes:

-able	respectable, likeable
-ade	blockade, lemonade
-age	breakage, sabotage
-al	practical, verbal
-an	Nigerian, Indian
-arian	disciplinarian, vegetarian
-ary	dictionary, luminary
-ate	passionate, affectionate
-cide	insecticide, homicide
-cracy	democracy, aristocracy
-dom	freedom, boredom
-ee	(person affected by) employee, absentee, refugee
-er	runner, sleeper, waiter
-ese	Japanese, Togolese, Burmese
-ess	lioness, actress
-est	fastest, farthest, barest
-ette	(diminutive) kitchenette

D. Form two new words for each of the following words using prefixes and suffixes:

(i) mother	home	officer	work
(ii) contain	brew	satisfy	assemble
(iii) print	bold	photo	water

(iv) tight	electric	fight	administer
(v) teach	occur	engine	smooth

E. Supply two additional words for each of the following suffixes:

-hood	brotherhood
-ial	dictatorial, palatial
-ic	romantic
-ish	British, boyish
-let	(diminutive) booklet
-ist	dramatist, industrialist
-like	childlike, godlike
-ment	development
-phobia	xenophobia
-tress	(female) actress
-ship	scholarship
-some	troublesome
-ster	gangster
-ward	wayward
-worthy	praiseworthy

References and Suggestions for Further Reading

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MODULE 10

BASIC ENGLISH GRAMMAR II: HOW TO IDENTIFY AND USE ENGLISH WORD CLASSES

Theophilus Ayooluwa Banji

Preview of Module

10.1 Introduction	10.2 Nouns
10.3 Pronouns	10.4 Verbs
10.5 Types of Verbs	10.6 Adverbs
10.7 Adjectives	10.8 Prepositions
10.9 Conjunctions	10.10 Articles
10.11 Demonstratives	10.12 Interjections
10.13 Conclusion	10.14 Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of the module are to:

- introduce students to the different word classes in the English language
- teach students how to use items in the word classes appropriately; and
- demonstrate how to identify and use them in continuous writing.

10.1 Introduction

This module is designed to introduce you to the different word classes (also called parts of speech) that are found in the English language. It is also designed to enable you to identify, exemplify and use different types of words in continuous writings, such as essays and other texts. The following word classes are discussed in the module: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, articles, demonstratives and interjections. Each of the classes is discussed in terms of its nature, types and functions. (See Module Nine for detailed information on word formation.)

10.2 Nouns

Nouns are names, such as the names of people, animals, days, months, festivals, languages, nationalities, places, events and emotions or feelings. The following are some examples: John, cat, Monday, December, Christmas, French, Nigerian, Lagos, wedding and happiness. Also, there are different types of nouns as follows: proper, common, countable, uncountable, concrete, abstract and collective.

1. Proper Nouns. Proper nouns belong to the class of nouns such as the names of people (Joseph, Elizabeth, Deborah, Zachariah, Oyeladun and Mojisola); places (Sokoto, Ibadan, London, Warri and Paris); organisations (Cadbury, First Bank, Shoprite and Airtel); institutions (Bowen University, University of Benin Teaching Hospital); days of the week (Wednesday, Saturday); months of the year (February, December); languages (Kanuri, Tiv Ijaw); nationalities (German, Dutch); and festivals (Easter, Eyo, New Yam festival).

Proper nouns have specific referents. For example, the noun 'Lagos' is specific in its reference to the name of a particular place, just as 'Emmanuel' is specific in its referent to a person. Also, in terms of writing, a proper noun must begin with an upper case letter, as shown in all the examples above.

2. Common Nouns. Unlike proper nouns, common nouns do not have specific references. The lack of specific references explains why they are referred to as 'common'. Common nouns are words such as car, bread, milk, love, happiness, table, road, water, light and radio. Common nouns do not start with an upper case letter, except when they occur at the beginning of sentences.

3. Countable Nouns. Not all nouns are countable. Therefore, countable nouns are those which can be numbered in terms of being singular or plural, as in three tables, ten men, five children, one girl, three children and two times. In addition, countable nouns are of different types as discussed next. While the following discussion of countable nouns makes

some references to spelling, this module does not focus on spelling. Module Fourteen of this manual discusses spelling in particular and in greater detail.

- (a) **Countable nouns that end with the plural marker 's'.** Countable nouns that end with the plural marker 's' are words such as balloons, shoes, toes, princes, nieces, umbrellas and lakes.
- (b) **Countable nouns that end with the plural marker 'es'.** Countable nouns that end with the plural marker 'es' are words that have the following letter(s): ch (church), s (bus), ss (cross), sh (brushes) and x (foxes).
- (c) **Countable nouns that end with the plural marker 'ies'.** Countable nouns that end with 'y' form their plurals with 'ies' as in armies, duties, diaries and cries. However, countable plural nouns have their plural forms ending with 's' if the 'y' that ends them is preceded by a vowel sound, as in the following: chimneys, joys, toys and valleys.
- (d) **Countable nouns that end with 'ves'.** Countable nouns that end with 'ves' are nouns whose singular forms end with 'f' or 'fe', as in the following: calf (calves), wolf (wolves), loaf (loaves) and leaf (leaves). However, there are the following exceptions whose plural forms end with 's' in this type of countable nouns: chiefs, griefs, hoofs, dwarfs, gulfs and proofs.
- (e) **Countable nouns that end with 'o'.** In most cases, countable nouns that end with 'o' form their plurals with the addition of 'es', as in the following: heroes, mangoes, negroes buffaloes and echoes. This type of countable plural nouns has the following exceptions: bamboos, photos, dynamos and pianos.
- (f) **Countable nouns that form their plurals by a change of letters.** Some plural nouns form their plurals by changing one or more letters, as in man (men), foot (feet), goose (geese), woman (women) and tooth (teeth). Some others form their plurals by the addition of 'en' or 'ren', as in ox (oxen) and child (children) respectively.

- (g) **Countable nouns that have the same form in their singular and plural forms.** Some countable nouns do not have different forms in their indication of singular or plural numbers. It is their use with verbs (such as is, are, was and were) or indicators of quantity (such as one, two, ten and twenty-one) that shows whether they are singular or plural. Examples of such nouns are sheep, dozen, deer, fish, yoke, species, apparatus, corps, heathen and swine.
- (h) **Countable nouns that have Latin origins.** Some countable nouns have Latin origins, and their plural forms reflect the peculiarities of Latin, shown in the following examples with their plural forms inside brackets: datum (data), memorandum (memoranda), erratum (errata), index (indices or indexes), fungus (fungi), medium (media), formula (formulae or formulas), stratum (strata) and terminus (termini).
- (i) **Countable nouns that have Greek origins.** Some countable nouns have Greek origins, which show the peculiarities of their Greek forms. Examples of such countable nouns, with their plural from inside brackets, are axis (axes), basis (bases), parenthesis (parentheses), phenomenon (phenomena), thesis (theses), criterion (criteria), analysis (analyses) and hypothesis (hypotheses).
- (k) **Countable nouns that have compound forms.** Compound nouns are formed by the combination of two or more words. They are countable, and have their plural forms by adding 's' to the main or principal word, as in the following: commanders-in-chief, sons-in-law, daughters-in-law, passers-by and maid-servants. Others, such as man-of-war (men-of-war) have their plurals formed by the changing of a letter in the main or principal word.

4. Other Nouns (in Terms of Number). There are nouns which, either in their singular or plural reference, are always written as plurals. Such nouns include names of diseases such as measles and mumps. Others are nouns, such as riches, thanks, trousers, valuables, goods, scissors, wages, proceeds, fetters, spectacles, surroundings, premises, alms and stockings.

5. Nouns that Appear as Plurals but Have Singular Reference. There are nouns that appear as plurals, but have singular reference. Such words include the names of school subjects such as Mathematics, Physics, Mechanics, Ethics, Classics, Statistics and Economics. (Note that these are proper nouns which start with upper case letters.) Examples of other nouns that appear as plural, but are singular are athletics, gymnastics, news, summons, politics, gallows and innings.

6. Nouns that are Always Used in Singular. Some nouns do not have plural forms. Examples of such nouns are poetry, cavalry, mischief, infantry, offspring, fuel, abuse, luggage, baggage, furniture, bedding, hair and machinery.

7. Non-Count Nouns. Some nouns are referred to as non-countable because they are not used in terms of singular or plural. Examples of such words are milk, ice, tea, butter, wool, gold and butter.

8. Concrete Nouns. Some nouns are referred to as concrete because they are touchable or physical in nature. Examples of concrete nouns are table, chair, car and bag.

9. Abstract Nouns. Abstract nouns are the opposite of concrete nouns. They are not physical; cannot be touched. Akinwale and Famakinwa (2013:85) refer to them as "abstractions...that belong to the realm of imagination..." Examples of abstract nouns are laziness, love, success, beauty, hope, Botany and length.

10. Collective Nouns. Collective nouns consist of parts or members that are grouped together into single wholes. Examples of collective nouns are army, committee, jury, parliament, crew, crowd, team, poultry, cattle, family, class, public, clergy, the United Nations, the United States of

America and the Vatican. Collective nouns have the unique characteristic of being used with singular or plural verbs and pronouns, as in the following examples:

- (i) The team is ready.
- (ii) The team are ready.
- (iii) It is ready.
- (iv) They are ready.

In the examples, 'a' and 'c' refer to the team as an entity or a body, while 'b' and 'd' refer to the team in terms of the individuals it consists of.

10.3 Pronouns

Pronouns are words that are used instead of nouns. There are seven basic ones, out of which others are developed: I, we, you, he, she, it and they. Pronouns are named in terms of their functions, as discussed below:

1. Subject Pronouns

Subject pronouns function in the subject position within sentences. Subject pronouns are I, we, you, he, she, it and they, as in the following examples:

- (i) I am a student.
- (ii) We are students.
- (iii) You are a student.
- (iv) He is a student.
- (v) She is a student.
- (vi) It is a student's bag.
- (vii) They are students.
- (viii) They and I are students.
- (ix) She and I are students.
- (x) You and I are students.

2. Object Pronouns

Each of the seven subject pronouns listed above has its object form. The object forms are listed here, with each form placed inside brackets after its subject counterpart: I (me), we (us), you (you), he (him), she (her), it (it) and they (them). Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) He gave him a book.
- (ii) He gave you and me a book.

Note, for example, that, in (ii), we have '...you and me...'; not 'you and I'.

3. Possessive Pronouns

Furthermore, each of the seven subject pronouns has its possessive forms. The possessive forms indicate possession. For example, the subject pronoun 'I' has the possessive form 'my' or 'mine'. The others also have their possessive forms, as follows: we (our and ours), you (your and yours), he (his and his), she (her and hers), it (its and its) and they (their and theirs). Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) He bought a book; the book is his; it is his book.
- (ii) We bought books; the books are ours; they are our books.
- (iii) It is a car; the tyre is its; it is its tyre.

4. Reflexive Pronouns

Also, each of the seven subject pronouns has its reflexive forms. The reflexive forms are like a mirror, which reflects one's image. Here, the seven reflexive pronouns are shown in brackets after each subject pronoun as follows: I (myself), we (ourselves), you (yourself [for one person] and yourselves [for two or more people]), he (himself), she (herself), it (itself) and they (themselves). Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) He went up the stairs himself, without any assistance.
- (ii) The table stands on the floor itself, without resting on the chair.
- (iii) They wrote the stories themselves, not assisted by the teacher.

5. Demonstrative Pronouns

As the term 'demonstrative' suggests, demonstrative pronouns demonstrate, or point out, things. There are four demonstrative pronouns: this and that (singular) and these and those (plural). 'This' and 'these' are used for pointing out objects that are close by and could even be touched, where necessary; 'that' and those' are used for pointing out objects that are at some distance.

6. Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns indicate the presence of mutual relationships between entities. 'Each other' is a reciprocal pronoun that is used to indicate a mutual relationship between two entities, while 'one another' is used for more than two. Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) Ayobami and his brother gave each other a pat on the back.
- (ii) Ayobami, Ayodele and Ayokunle gave one another a pat on the back.

7. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns do not make specific reference to entities. In other words, their use does not specify who is being addressed. The following are indefinite pronouns: one, anyone, anybody, nothing, anything, someone, somebody, something, everything, everyone, none, some, any, all and many. Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) I saw somebody in the room.
- (ii) I did not see anybody in the hall.
- (iii) I have water. Do you need any? I can give you some.

Furthermore, 'any', such as in any water, anyone, anybody, anything and any is used in negative statements and questions. However, 'some', as in some water, someone, somebody, something and some is used in positive statements. Again, look at the immediate examples (i) (iii) above.

8. Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns relate one part of a sentence to another part. Here is a list of relative pronouns: who, which, whose, whom and that. Look at the following examples of their use:

- (i) This is the man who gave me a book. (The relative pronoun 'who' relates 'the man' to 'gave me a book'.)
- (ii) This is the car which (or that) I bought. (The relative pronoun 'which' or 'that' relates 'the car' to 'I bought'.)
- (iii) That is the woman whose name was announced. (The relative pronoun 'whose' relates 'the woman' to 'name was announced'.)
- (iv) This is the student whom I told you about. (The relative pronoun 'whom' relates 'the student' to 'I told you about'.)

10.4 Verbs

Verbs are traditionally described or defined as words which indicate action. However, verbs do not always indicate action. Some verbs do. Others do not. Verbs such as go, eat, buy, sleep and drive indicate action. These verbs are unlike others, such as seem, appear, am, is and are which do not indicate action. Look at the following sentences:

- (i) Ayobami goes to school every day.
- (ii) Ayodele eats bread, sometimes.
- (iii) Ayokunle buys water at the shop.
- (iv) Ayobami is happy.
- (v) Ayodele appears happy.
- (vi) Ayokunle seems happy.
- (vii) I am ready.
- (viii) We are ready.

Sentences (i) (iii) have verbs (goes, eats and buys) which indicate action. However, in (iv) (viii), the verbs (is, appears, seems and am) do not indicate action. Rather, they help to link the words before them to the

words that follow them. In Modules Eleven and Twelve, verbs are discussed in more detail as elements of clauses and sentences.

Verbs tell:

- (a) What a person or thing does, or is done to a person or thing as in the following examples:

- (i) Bukola sings.
- (ii) A hymn is sung by Bukola.

- (b) What a person or thing is or the state of being of a person or thing as in:

- (iii) Temilolu is happy.
- (iv) Toyin seems ready.

- (c) What a person or thing possesses as in:

- (v) James has brown eyes.
- (vi) John has a white bag.

1. Verbs as Indicators of Tense

Tense is one area of language that is under the control of verbs. In other words, verbs enable us to talk about words in terms of time differences. Therefore, we talk about the present, the past and the future.

Present Tense

There are three main ways we talk about the present tense in English:

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| (a) the present simple , as in: | I <u>drink</u> tea every morning; |
| (b) the present continuous , as in: | I <u>am drinking</u> tea now; |
| (c) the present perfect , as in: | I <u>have drunk</u> tea today. |

Past Tense

There are three main ways we talk about the past tense in English:

- (a) the past simple, as in: I drank tea yesterday;
 (b) the past continuous, as in: I was drinking tea, when you arrived;
 (c) the past perfect, as in: I had drunk tea, before you arrived.

Future Tense

The future tense is also talked about in three main ways:

- (a) the future simple, as in:
 I will drink tea tomorrow;
 I will be drinking tea, when you arrive this evening;
 I will have drunk tea, by the time you arrive.
 (b) the future continuous, as in:
 (c) the future perfect, as in:

10.5 Types of Verbs

There are different types of verbs. However, considering the focus of this manual, which aims to inform students about the basics of a range of concepts in the use of the English language, the following types of verbs are discussed in this module: main, auxiliary, intransitive, transitive, regular and irregular.

1. Main Verbs

Main verbs are also called lexical verbs because they contain actual meanings, such as indicating different meanings for two different verbs, for example: swim and drive; simply, the meaning of 'drive' is different from the meaning of 'swim'.

2. Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs support or help main verbs. Specifically, auxiliary verbs help main verbs to indicate person, tense and number within present continuous, past continuous and present perfect tenses, as shown in the following examples:

- (a) I am going. (Here, 'I' is a first person and singular, 'am' is an auxiliary verb which shows that the main verb 'going' is present and continuous.)

- (b) I was going. (Here, 'I' is a first person and singular, 'was' is an auxiliary verb which shows that the main verb 'going' is past and continuous.)
 (c) We are going. (Here, 'We' is a first person and plural, 'are' is an auxiliary verb which shows that the main verb 'going' is present and continuous.)
 (d) We were going. (Here, 'We' is a first person and plural, 'were' is an auxiliary verb which shows that the main verb 'going' is past and continuous.)
 (e) I have gone. (Here, 'I' is a first person and singular, 'have' is an auxiliary verb which shows that the main verb 'gone' is present and perfect.)
 (f) I will go. (Here, the verb auxiliary verb 'will' shows the tense of the main verb 'go' as future.)

3. Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are verbs which do not show the receiver of an action. In other words, they do not have objects, as in the following examples:

- (i) I drive.
 (ii) I eat.
 (iii) I sleep.
 (iv) I write.

In the examples, the verbs 'drive', 'eat', 'sleep' and 'write' are intransitive because there are no objects or receivers of the actions which the verbs indicate.

4. Transitive Verbs

Unlike the intransitive, transitive verbs have objects or receivers of the actions shown by the verbs. Three of the examples used as intransitive verbs in (i), (ii) and (iv) above are intransitive verbs, as follows:

- (i) I drive a car, every day.
 (ii) I eat bread, sometimes.
 (iii) I write a story, once a month.

In these examples, the verbs 'drive', 'eat' and 'write' have the objects 'car', 'bread' and 'a story' as objects, respectively. The presence of the objects makes the verbs transitive.

There are some verbs, such as 'enjoy' which must have at least one object to make them transitive. For example, it is **not** grammatically correct to form sentences such as the following:

- (iv) *I enjoy every day.
- (v) *I enjoyed yesterday.
- (vi) *I will enjoy tomorrow.

However, the sentences can be made grammatically correct, as follows, for example:

- (vii) I enjoy a cup of tea every day.
- (viii) I enjoyed my visit to the museum yesterday.
- (ix) I will enjoy my breakfast tomorrow.

The objects which make the verbs in these sentences transitive are 'a cup of tea', 'my visit to the museum' and 'my breakfast', respectively.

5. Regular Verbs

Regular verbs are verbs which have their past tense forms through the addition of '-ed'. For example, the past tense forms of 'play', 'jump' and 'kick' are 'played', 'jumped' and 'kicked', respectively.

6. Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs do not have their past tense forms through the addition of '-ed'. Rather, their past tense forms could be entirely new words, as in the following, with the past tense form inside brackets: see (saw), drive (drove), catch (caught), drink (drank) and buy (bought).

There is another set of irregular verbs. Members of the set do not change their original (or base) forms to indicate their past tense forms, as in the following: beat (beat) and hit (hit). Look at the following sentences:

- (i) The chimpanzees beat their chests, sometimes.
- (ii) The chimpanzees beat their chests, yesterday.
- (iii) I hit the target every week.
- (iv) I hit the target last week.

In the sentences, the verbs 'beat' and 'hit' in (i) and (iii) are in the present tense, while the verbs 'beat' and 'hit' in (ii) and (iv) are in the past tense.

10.6 Adverbs

Adverbs give more information about verbs. For example, they give information about place (in the room, to Lagos), time (last night, now), reason (...because I am a man, ...since you are a doctor) and manner (quickly, by car). Look at the following sentences:

- (i) Tochi is waiting in the room. (In this sentence, 'in the room' is an adverb of place, which gives more information about the verb phrase 'is waiting'.) In other words, it answers the question: 'Where?'
- (ii) I saw Hasan last night. (In this sentence, 'last night' is an adverb of time, which gives more information about the verb 'saw'. In other words, it answers the question: 'When?')
- (iii) Emeka came because he needed some water. (In this sentence, 'because he needed some water' constitutes or forms an adverb of reason, which gives more information about the verb 'came'. In other words, it answers the question: 'Why?')
- (iv) Temilolu travelled to Ios by air. (In this sentence, 'by air' is an adverb of manner, which gives more information about the verb 'travelled'. In other words, it answers the question: 'How?')

10.7 Adjectives

Adjectives are words which describe nouns and pronouns, as in the following examples:

- (i) Ayodele needs a good pen.
- (ii) This is a better pen.

- (iii) That is the best pen.
- (iv) I need something good.
- (v) Ayokunle gave me something better.

In the examples, the words 'good', 'better' and 'best' are adjectives. Note that, in examples (iv) and (v), the adjectives 'good' and 'better' come after the indefinite pronoun 'something'. In other words, indefinite pronouns do not come after adjectives. There, it is wrong to say or write 'good something' or 'better something'.

Furthermore, they show the three levels of adjectives; the adjective 'good' has the comparative level or form 'better' and the superlative (or highest) level or form 'best'. Some adjectives show the comparative and superlative levels in a different way, using the words 'more' and 'most' respectively, as in the following:

- (i) The nurse is beautiful.
- (ii) Her mother is more beautiful.
- (iii) Her grandmother is most beautiful.

The following are more examples of adjectives, showing the three levels of their use: ready (more ready, most ready), steady (more steady, most steady) and big (bigger, biggest). The examples 'bigger' and 'biggest' show another form of forming the comparative and superlative levels, respectively, just as the words 'happier' and 'happiest' are the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective 'happy', respectively.

10.8 Prepositions

Prepositions are words which enable us to indicate positions. Examples of prepositions are in, on, over, at, before, from, of, for and after. Prepositions come before positions, in terms of space and time, as in the following:

- | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| (i) in Lagos | (ii) on the table | (iii) over the bridge |
| (iv) at the airport | (v) in 1960 | (vi) before ten o'clock |
| (vii) after June and | (viii) in the evening. | |

Furthermore, sometimes, prepositions are useful in the formation of adverbs within sentences, as in the following:

- (i) He arrived before ten.
- (ii) She had a meal in the morning.
- (iii) They were born in 1908.
- (iv) She died in 2011.

In (i) (iv), above, the underlined parts are prepositional phrases which function as adverbs of time. They are prepositional phrases because each one of them begins with a preposition.

Note: See Module Eleven for more information about phrases.

10.9 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words which enable us to join words, phrases and clauses. There are two main types of conjunctions, which are the coordinating and the subordinating conjunctions.

1. Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions (or coordinators) are the words 'and', 'or' and 'but' which join words, phrases and clauses that are of the same value in terms of each part being able to stand on its own, and make full meaning, even when separated from another part. Look at the following sentences:

- (i) James and John are brothers.
- (ii) Ayobami sang and Temilolu spoke.
- (iii) Tolu swam, but Wale danced.
- (iv) He will run or visit the zoo.

In (i), 'James and John' are joined by the coordinating conjunction 'and' to form a phrase. In (ii), the two separate clauses ('Ayobami sang.' and 'Temilolu spoke.') form the single sentence, in which they are joined or coordinated by 'and'. Each of the clauses has the same value as the

other, because each can stand by itself, and make complete meaning or sense. In (iii) and (iv), the coordinating conjunctions (or coordinators) are 'but' and 'or', respectively. Each of them joins two units which are of the same value; each one makes complete meaning by itself.

2. Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions also join two or more parts of a sentence. However, they join parts that do not have the same value. For example, one part makes complete meaning by itself, while the other does not. The one that does not make a complete meaning by itself is joined or subordinated to the one that makes a complete meaning. Such joining is done by a subordinating conjunction, also called a subordinator. Examples of subordinating conjunctions are the following: for, because, though, although, unless, while, since, where and when. Look at the following sentences:

- (i) Ayobami came to the meeting, since he was the convener.
- (ii) Ayodele did not go home, although he had completed the assignment.
- (iii) Ayokunle went to the park, because he needed some time all alone.

In sentences (i) (iii), the parts starting with the subordinating conjunctions (or subordinators) 'since', 'although' and 'because', respectively, do not have complete meanings by themselves. They depend on the parts before them, to make meaning. Each of the parts before them ('Ayobami came to the meeting...', 'Ayodele did not go home...' and 'Ayokunle went to the park...') makes a complete meaning by itself.

Also, Quirk *et al* (1973) discuss a kind of subordinators which they refer to as compound subordinators because of their formation. Such subordinators or subordinating conjunctions are formed by more than one word, but they have the same functions as one-word subordinating

conjunctions, such as since, when and although. Examples of compound subordinating conjunctions are except that, considering that, in order that, so long as and as if. Look at the following sentences:

- (i) You will be here for one hour longer, considering that you arrived late.
- (ii) You can drive home, so long as you are well awake.

10.10 Articles

Articles are the following words: a, an and the. The first two are used with singular countable nouns, while the third is used with singular and plural countable nouns, as well as uncountable nouns. Also, 'a' and 'an' are called indefinite articles, because they do not specify the nouns they are used with. However, the article 'the' is referred to as definite, because it specifies the nouns it is used with. Furthermore, 'a' is used before nouns that begin with a consonant sound (words such as bag, car, girl and boy), while 'an' is used with nouns that begin with a vowel sound (words such as egg, apple and umbrella). The article 'the' is used with nouns that start with a consonant or vowel sound (such as egg, apple, girl and bag.)

10.11 Demonstratives

Demonstratives are words which point out or show nouns. There are four demonstratives: this and that (which are used with countable singular nouns), these and those (which are used with countable plural nouns). Look at the following sentences:

- (i) I enjoy reading this newspaper every day.
- (ii) I enjoy reading these newspapers every day.
- (iii) I enjoy reading that newspaper every day.
- (iv) I enjoy reading those newspapers every day.

In (i) and (ii), 'this' and 'these' are used respectively, because the nouns are near the speaker or writer. In (iii) and (iv), 'that' and 'those' are used respectively, because the nouns are not near the speaker or writer.

10.12 Interjections

Interjections are semi-words (not real or normal words). Interjections are used to express feelings of surprise, satisfaction, recognition, pleasure and pain, amongst others. Aremo (2004: 541) gives the following examples of interjections and their uses: Oh! (surprise), Ah! (satisfaction, recognition), Oho! (jubilant surprise), Wow! (great surprise) and Ooh! (pleasure, pain). Aremo describes interjections as "special exclamations made up of single meaningless words..."

10.13 Conclusion

In this module, the discussion of the word classes in the English language aims to develop the learner's knowledge of the nature of different types of words. The discussion also aims to make the learner see the functions which different parts of words perform within sentences.

10.14 Exercises

A. Supply the plural forms of the following nouns:

- | | | | | |
|---------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|----------|
| 1. dish | bus | cactus | tax | oasis |
| 2. kilo | video | hero | tomato | piano |
| 3. loaf | thief | chief | shelf | knife |
| 4. lorry | copy | enquiry | kidney | lady |
| 5. son-in-law | passer-by | sister-in-law | runner-up | day-off |
| 6. tooth | goose | sheep | ox | louse |
| 7. stratum | bureau | phenomenon | medium | series |
| 8. radius | church | fungus | crisis | witch |
| 9. mosquito | potato | life | wife | calf |
| 10. slang | jargon | species | datum | terminus |

B. Classify each of the following nouns as C, U or C&U (C stands for countable noun; U stands for uncountable noun; C&U stands for both countable and uncountable n):

- | | | | | |
|-------------|----------|-------------|--------|----------|
| 11. zoo | strength | knowledge | police | flour |
| 12. money | light | information | fish | moon |
| 13. luggage | sea | yam | rain | property |

- | | | | | |
|-------------|---------|------|-----------|-------------|
| 14. glass | water | food | fire | policeman |
| 15. thunder | traffic | work | lightning | celebration |

C. Insert/delete the wrongly used or incorrectly omitted article in the following sentences:

16. Devil finds work for idle hand.
17. You may take bus at the Alphonso Road.
18. Friend in need is friend indeed.
19. A main entrance into the university should have overhead bridge.
20. When I arrived there, one man asked me where I was going.
21. Bank acts as agent for payment.
22. Standard of education fell due to UPE programme.
23. Yesterday was my first time of entering National Theatre.
24. Federal Government has approved bursary for all students.
25. Friend of mine works in secretariat.

D. Choose the correct pronoun:

26. There is plenty of room for me/I.
27. Shade and she/her disturb everyone.
28. Neither the Akrans nor us/we will sell our land.
29. Gbenga told them/they and us/we entirely different stories.
30. He/him and I/me were the only ones who knew.
31. Two girls, Nnenna and she/her did most of the artwork.
32. It should have been they/them who were penalised.
33. The Hassans insist on our/us spending the weekend with them.
34. Just suppose it was we/us who were starving.
35. Fatima and we/ourselves are going for a walk.
36. The first ones to arrive were Kassim and her/she.
37. Sola and he/him refereed the match.
38. We/us boys were not allowed to enter the hall.
39. The gate-keeper has warned we/us but we/us boys never listen.
40. Has everyone turned in their/his or her paper?

E. Correct the following sentences:

41. Say hello to your sister whom you said she has just returned.
42. I shall visit the bank to know if they will honour my cheque.
43. I will like to have a nice something for my birthday.
44. The voucher will go to the accountant's office who will then prepare a cheque.
45. They are calling you.
46. When I visited the hospital, they did not give me any drug.
47. The dog has broken it's chain and is now a nuisance.
48. The plan is very good and is being reviewed.
49. Don't mention.
50. Make sure to say your prayers before going to bed.

F. With the aid of the word supplied in each row, form three new words under each heading (the first row has been done to guide you):

	Verb	Noun	Adjective	Adverb
	Think	thought	thoughtful	thoughtfully
51.	expect			
52.			active	
53.	decide			
54.	confuse			
55.		occasion		
56.		invitation		
57.		guard		
58.			personal	
59.			unjust	
60.				strategically
61.	argue			
62.	effect			
63.	impress			
64.		affection		
65.		carer		
66.		sport		
67.	sweeten			
68.		president		
69.		Providence		
70.	purify			

G. Put in by, in or on. Example: Laide usually goes to work by bus.

71. I saw Jane this morning. She was _____ the bus.
72. How did you get here? Did you come _____ train?
73. How did you get here? Did you come _____ the train?
74. I decided not to go _____ car. I went _____ my bike instead.
75. I didn't feel like walking home, so I came home _____ a taxi.

Put in the correct preposition: by, on, in or with.

76. Who is that man standing _____ the window?
77. I managed to put the fire out _____ a fire extinguisher.
78. The plane was badly damaged _____ lightning.
79. These photographs were taken _____ a friend of mine.
80. These photographs were taken _____ a very good camera.
81. I don't mind going _____ car but I don't want to go _____ your car.
82. Shall we get a taxi or shall we go _____ foot.
83. What's that music? I know it's _____ Okosun but I can't remember what it's called.
84. There was a small table _____ the bed _____ a lamp and a clock _____ it.
85. Our team lost the game only because of a mistake _____ one of our players.

H. Complete these sentences using quite with one of the following:

amazing different impossible right safe sure
unnecessary true

Example: I didn't believe her at first, but in fact what she said was quite true.

86. You won't fall. The ladder is _____
87. I'm afraid I can't do what you ask. It's _____
88. I couldn't agree with you more. You are _____
89. You can't compare the two things. They are _____
90. You needn't have done that. It was _____

Complete the sentences. Put the part in the right order.

Example: (for a long time / have lived / in the same house)

They have lived in the same house for a long time.

91. (to the bank/every Friday/go) I _____
92. (home/did you come/so late) Why _____
93. (her car/drives/everyday/to work) Ada _____
94. (been/recently/to the cinema) I haven't _____
95. (at the top of the page/your name/write) Please _____
96. (her name/after a few minutes/remembered) I _____
97. (around the town/all the morning/walked) We _____
98. (on Saturday night/didn't you see/at the party) I _____
99. (some interesting books/found/in the library) We _____
100. (the children/yesterday/to the zoo/took) Sade _____

I. Complete the sentences. Use the words in brackets in the correct order. Example:

I can never remember her name. (remember/never/can)

101. I _____ sugar in coffee (take/usually).
102. I _____ hungry when I get home from work. (am/usually).
103. 'Where is Jim?' 'He _____ home early' (gone/has/probably).
104. Aremu and Dare _____ In Ibadan (both/were/born).
105. Lanre is a good pianist. She _____ very well (sing/also/can).
105. Our car _____ down (often/break).
106. They live in the same street as me but I _____ to them (never/have/spoken).
107. We _____ a long time for the bus (have/always/to wait).
108. My sight isn't very good. I _____ with glasses (read/can/only).
109. I _____ early tomorrow (probably/leaving/will/be).
110. I'm afraid I _____ able to come to the party (probably/be/Won't).

J. Complete the sentences using one of the words in the box.

amusing / amused confusing / confused exhausting / exhausted
 annoying / annoyed boring / bored disgusting / disgusted
 interesting / interested exciting / excited surprising / surprised

Example: He works very hard. It's not surprising that he's always tired.

111. I have nothing to do. I'm _____.
112. The teacher's explanation was _____. Most of the students didn't understand it.
113. The kitchen hasn't been cleaned for ages. It was really _____.
114. I seldom visit art galleries. I'm not particularly _____ in art.
115. There's no need to get _____ just because I'm a few minutes late.
116. The lecture was _____. I fell asleep.
117. I asked Emily if she wanted to come with us but she wasn't _____.
118. I've been working very hard all day and now I'm _____.
119. I'm starting a new job next week. I'm quite _____ about it.
120. Tolu is very good at telling funny stories. He can be very _____.

K. Each of the words in the following list can be classified as *noun*, *verb*, *adjective* or *adverb*. Tag them accordingly:

121. sufficient ----- sufficiency -----
122. nonchalance ----- nonchalant -----
123. ignorant ----- ignorance -----
124. magnificence ----- magnificent -----
125. situate ----- situation -----
126. thrill ----- thriller -----
127. wrap ----- rapture -----
128. herd ----- harden -----
129. sunshine ----- sunny -----
130. tickle ----- ticklish -----

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The objectives of the module are to:

MODULE 11

BASIC ENGLISH GRAMMAR III: HOW TO RECOGNISE AND USE PHRASES AND CLAUSES EFFECTIVELY

Samuel Olayiwola Ayoola

Module Preview

11.1	Introduction	11.2	Nominal Group
11.3	Adjectival Phrase	11.4	Adverbial Phrase
11.5	Prepositional Phrase	11.6	Verbal Group
11.7	Types of Clause	11.8	Noun Clause
11.9	Adjectival Clause	11.10	Adverbial Clause
11.11	Summary and Conclusion	11.12	Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of the module are to:

- teach students the different types of groups (phrases) and clauses and how they can recognise them;
- demonstrate how to identify and use different types of phrases and clauses; and
- explain their grammatical functions in different contexts of use; and demonstrate how they can be used effectively.

11.1 Introduction

There are five grammatical units in English, namely: morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence. In order of hierarchy, morpheme is the smallest unit, while sentence is the highest unit. This module focuses on group and clause which are the third and fourth grammatical units, respectively. A phrase, also known as group, is a group of words which forms a grammatical unit within a clause or a sentence. It is often headed by headword. In the grammatical rank scale, a phrase is higher than a morpheme and word but lower than a clause and sentence. Examples are

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MODULE 15

PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH: HOW ENGLISH IS USED ON THE INTERNET

Theophilus A. Banji & Adebola A. Aderibigbe

Module Preview

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Overview of Language and the Internet
- 15.3 English as a Global Tool for Knowledge Dissemination
- 15.4 Effects of Internet English on Standard English
- 15.5 Summary and Conclusion
- 15.6 Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of the module are to:

- (a) familiarise students with how English is used on the Internet; and
- (b) equip students with the requisite linguistic skills for using the Internet productively.

15.1 Introduction

Technological inventions have a long-standing history of transforming society; examples abound to support this view. The most famous example is the invention in the 15th century of the Printing Press by Johannes Gutenberg (a German). The invention led to mass literacy, helped to foster the Protestant Reformation (by breaking Clergy's theological monopoly); and, because of the easy exchange of information, enabled the scientific revolution. Examples abound to prove the efficacy of technology as the harbinger of societal change. However, that is not the focus of this module.

Unlike the Printing press, the internet was not invented by a single individual; rather, it is the culmination of advances in computer

technology and the need for the resultant technologies to network. The internet is essentially a vast network of computers; it is a decentralised network which does not depend on a central mainframe of computer networks for operations. (Note: Read up on the history of the internet.)

The information age is a departure from the traditional way of engaging the world. In the traditional period, the Agriculture or Industrial Revolution determined the global economy; but the information age is characterized by the explosive access to information at a global scale hence determining, in turn, global economy. A major driver of this new age is information technology (or the internet). The internet has changed human communication for decades. Language is not spared in this development, because language is an important tool for communication. The internet affords, very conveniently, the convergence of many people to interact together in formal and informal environments created in the cyberspace called 'online', also known as the internet communities. In this space, the need for proper use of language in its formal and acceptable form is often and almost completely disregarded for several reasons. These reasons will be discussed very clearly in this module. The under-listed are the objectives of the module.

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

- (a) understand the background and need for internet technology for nation building;
- (b) understand the imperative of the internet for learning and instruction;
- (c) list some characteristics of the internet;
- (d) understand the effect of the internet on the English grammar.

15.2 Overview of Language and the Internet

Before the internet, written documents were all preserved in print form. Before the eventual publishing of these documents, rigorous editing work must have been done to ascertain the publish-ability of the documents. The internet provides an open information system where users can contribute to a number of discussions or knowledge-sharing platform. A

good example is the Wikipedia which allows registered members to edit information placed on the online encyclopedia. It is for this reason that a number of academics do not accept information obtained from the Wikipedia. Furthermore, there is a constitutional provision for the freedom of expression under the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, which states in Section 39 (1) as follows: "Every person shall be entitled to freedom of expression, including freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information without interference." This constitutional backing of expression and information freedom allows users of the internet to share, express and be free to spread to a legal limit a wide range of information as conveniently as possible, whether formally or informally, as long as doing so does not amount to treasonable offences.

The Greek Philosopher, Plato, said very succinctly that 'necessity is the mother of invention.' Once there is a need, all creative efforts are channelled to address the need. The internet is, perhaps, one of the greatest inventions of the 21st century which has opened up a lot of creativity and a great number of spontaneous responses to socio-economic and other forces in history. The invention of Facebook as a social networking site is a good example of this creative outburst which was one of a number of responses that arose as a result of creativity, aimed at tackling necessity. Today, Facebook contributes immensely to global economy greatly.

Internet English, according to Oyeboade (2012: 230), emerged over the years as young people tried to shorten written messages on the internet and mobile phones, just to be informal and save energy, time, space and money. This trend has, over the years, metamorphosed into a unique language that produced new words and phrases. This development has brought about what is now known as cyber-language which has become a part of our daily lives. This reality has serious implication for spoken and written English.

15.3 English as a Global Tool for Knowledge Dissemination

The British Council (BC) offers perhaps the most convincing argument for the popularity of the English language as a global means of trade and

dissemination of knowledge. According to the BC, English is the dominant international language of the 21st century. It is spoken at a useful level by some 1.75 billion people a quarter of the world's population. As a language of communication, science, information, technology, business, entertainment and diplomacy, it has increasingly become the operating system for the global conversation. How did this happen?

The United Kingdom alongside Spain, Portugal and others colonised some parts of Africa, as well as some countries in the Americas, spreading its influence through politics, religion and military might. This influence was made possible by the accompanying Christian Missionary expedition spreading the good news of salvation through English, virtually disregarding the indigenous languages already in existence in the colonies.

1. The Internet as a Medium of Learning and Instruction

The internet plays a major role in the lives of young people today. Children and youngsters alike engage in online activities, both inside and outside the classroom (Selfton-Green, 2004). Formally, in the school, young people use the internet, for instance, when searching for information and when tackling assignments and tests. Informally, in their spare time, they chat with friends, play online games, and are involved in fan fiction, which involves using published material to create pictures and films, amongst others (Olin-Scheller & Wikstrom, 2010).

Furthermore, Olin-Scheller and Wikstrom discuss the generation gap that exists between students and teachers today. Young people are being brought up in the digital era, whereas older members of the society are gaining their skills in information and computer technology (ICT) later in life. Consequently, there is generally a 'digital knowledge gap' between some teachers and their students. Indeed, young people who regularly surf the internet are exposed to incorrect use of the English language from a prescriptive point of view. How does the continual use of the internet influence students' language skills? Moreover, how should teachers handle English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' exposure to incorrect language use?

This language situation creates a possible conflict between the formal and the informal side of language use in the classroom. For instance, in a study conducted by Brandstrom (2011), a teacher expressed concern because students think that skills in informal language use are more important than knowledge in formal language use.

2. Characteristics of the Internet

(a) **Anonymity:** Otherwise known as impersonality, users of the internet can choose to be anonymous by not providing the details of their names or locations when they communicate with community members. Anonymity gives some unrestrained privileges to an online user, to the point that it becomes very easy to be mischievous, unethical, impolite and fraudulent. All these are shown, undoubtedly, in the choice of words. This is where language use becomes a problem.

(b) **Encourages brevity:** The provision for expression of thoughts in many online communities is very limited. For instance, on Twitter, one is only entitled to one hundred and forty (140) characters to express one's thought. This would, no doubt, encourage the use of short forms of words for communication.

(c) **Creativity of expression:** Online communities, most times, are virtual communities and a place to express one's thought in a very relaxed way, and without any formal evaluation. Therefore, creativity in expression becomes a feature of online platforms. Today, there are a lot of expressions which impact very heavily on spoken and written English, especially of young learners.

(d) **Open access to good and not-so-good information:** The internet is replete with an impressive stock of good information and also an amazing number of rubbish. For instance, a lecturer gave his students an assignment, and asked them to browse the internet for good information on the subject matter. When it was time for the students to present their response, the teacher became worried at the sheer blind copying of what the students had got from the internet without verifying the authenticity

of the information. It was later proven to the students that the information they had got was not the truth. Therefore, they were taught the right way to obtain information.

15.4 Effects of Internet English on Standard English

1. Spelling

Several reasons have been advanced in academic literature for the sharp decline in the proper handling of English spelling and grammar among young learners. One notable reason is the pervasive use of the internet. The table below shows some of the most misspelt words on the online communities:

Table 1: Some words commonly misspelt online

Wrong Forms	Confusing Letters	Correct Forms
ecstasy	ends with sy	ecstasy
Pharoah	ends with -aoh	Pharaoh
agressive, aggression	two gs	aggressive, aggression
jist	begins with g-	gist
unforseen	remember the e after the r	unforeseen
goverment	n before the m	government
ocasion	double 'c' and single 's'	occasion
acommodation	double 'c' and 'm'	accommodation
harrassment	single 'r' and double 's'	harassment
embarassment	double 'r' and double 's'	embarrassment
necesity	single 'c' and double 's'	necessary
resturant	omission of 'a'	restaurant
questionaire	double 'n'	questionnaire
begining	double 'n'	beginning
delibrate	omission of 'e'	deliberate
whereabout	omission of 's'	whereabouts
pronounciation	inclusion of medial 'o'	pronunciation

Wrong Forms	Confusing Letters	Correct Forms
untill	addition of extra 'l'	until
writting	addition of 't'	writing
proffessor	addition of 'f'	professor
hipopotamus	addition of 'p'	hippopotamus

(Source: Oxford Online, 2017; Daramola, 2009:242)

2. Vocabulary

The internet has increased the English vocabulary significantly in a number of ways. The English language has been receptive to a number of borrowings from other languages of the world; Greek, Roman and French, to mention a few, are some of the sources of early influence on the language. Also, a number of technological advancements in the area of information dissemination have contributed to the remarkable increase in the lexical collection of the language. The information age has brought about a significant addition to neologisms in the English language. The table below shows few examples of the contribution:

Table 2: Some elements of internet vocabulary and their meaning

Word	Meaning
Wi-Fi	a facility allowing computers, smartphones, or other devices to connect to the internet or communicate with one another wirelessly with a particular area.
button	a small box that looks like it is being depressed when you select it. Buttons can turn on (and turn off) many types of functions on the internet.
browse	to explore a website or a number of websites by scanning and reading information.
browser	software, such as Microsoft Internet Explorer, which is used to find information on the web. The most visible part of a browser sits at the top of the computer screen, above the web page.

Word	Meaning
clicking	pressing and releasing a button on a mouse to select or activate the area on the screen where the cursor is pointing; usually, one clicks on the left side of the mouse (called a left click). For more advanced functions, one clicks on the right side of the mouse (called a right click).
cursor	a small image on the screen indicating where one is pointing; the mouse controls the movement of the cursor.
desktop	the information that appears on the computer soon after the computer is turned on. The desktop contains a number of icons, or images, that one can click on to start programmes.
hardware	the physical parts of a computer system
homepage	the first thing one sees on a website, or the opening page of a website. It provides information about the site and directs one to other pages on the site.
Icon	a small picture or image representing a command (such as print), a file, or a programme. When one clicks on an icon, one starts a command, opens a file, or launches a programme.
keyword	the keys that operate the computer, very much like a typewriter, with extra keys for special functions.
log on	to gain access to a computer system or to a page on a website by entering a password or user identification (ID).
Menu	a list of options, or topics, on a website that users can choose from.
monitor	the part of a computer system that contains the computer screen, where information is displayed.
mouse	a small hand-held device that controls the position of the cursor on the computer screen. Movements of the mouse correspond to movements of the cursor.

Word	Meaning
navigate	to move through a website or through various websites.
Scroll	to move text or other information on a computer screen up, down, or sideways, with new information appearing as the old disappears.
website	a location on the worldwide web (and the internet) that contains information about a specific topic. A website usually contains multiple pages with different types of information about the topic.
Windows	a framed area of a computer screen that appears in front of the web page. Sometimes, the appearance of a window means that one has entered another website. At other times, it means one may still be on the same website.
world wide web (www)	also known as the web, it is a system that lets one access information on the internet. People often use the term <i>web</i> to refer to the internet, but they are not exactly the same. The worldwide web operates over the internet, and it is the most widely used part of the internet.

(Source: Glossary of Computer & Internet Terms for Older Adults (Undated))

3. Word Formation

If there is anything that is of great concern to scholars in the field of language and communication, it is the manner in which words are formed on the internet today. This particularly calls for concern because it has untold consequences on the use of the English language, particularly among current and upcoming generations of users. The following are some of the methods of word formation on the internet:

Creative Use of Abbreviations. Abbreviation is achieved in a number of ways. Words could be clipped to save time. Examples are 'cuz' for 'because', 'pop' for 'pop music' and 'copter' for 'helicopter'.

acronyms are used for brevity. Zhang (2006) defines acronymy as the process of forming new words by joining the initial letters of a phrase. Words formed in this way can be subdivided into initialisms and acronyms, depending on the pronunciation of the words. Table 3, below, shows a list of such acronyms.

Table 3: Some online Abbreviations

(i) Abbreviations	Meaning
FYI	For your information
AMA	Ask me anything
Bae	Before anyone else
DAE	Does anyone else?
ELI5	Explain like I am 5
HIFW	How I felt when
ICYMI	In case you missed it
IMO/IMHO	In my opinion/ in my humble opinion
IRL	In real life
JSYK	Just so you know
MIRL	Me in real life
LOL	Laugh out loud
SMH	Shaking my head
(ii) Numbers/Letters	
F2F	Face to face
B4	Before
2B	To be
M8	Mate
L8r	Later
3W	World Wide Web
4ever	For ever
B2B	Business to business
Some1	Someone

iii. clipping	
Av	Have
Fri	Friday
Cuz	Because
(iv) Expressive respelling	
Looooong	Long
Luuuuuuv	Love
Whaaattttt	What

4 Grammar

The English grammar has changed significantly on the internet, through the innumerable online community platforms, otherwise known as the social media, such as Facebook, Twitter, Bebo and Skype, to mention a few. Because these platforms attract a significant amount of followings, especially from among the youth population who are still in school, there is no doubting the fact that the impact of these platforms will be greater on them than on the adults who only use the platforms when the need arises. Research has shown strongly that these platforms have a wide range of effects on teenagers and young adults who are either grappling with societal acculturation or battling with emotional issues which traverse relationship and sex. The following are a few grammatical issues identified on these platforms:

Preposition. Olaniyi (2008:32) defines a preposition as a word or group of words which shows the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and other words in a sentence. Examples of prepositions are *with*, *from*, *for* and *in*. Here are some findings we have made about the use of prepositions on some online community pages:

Table 4: Some wrong uses of prepositions

Wrong Forms	Omission/Addition	Correct Forms
comprise of	of	comprise
request for	for	request
seek for honour	for	seek honour
with regards to	's' to regard	with regard to
congratulation for	for	congratulate on
look up to	up	look to
to condole	with	to condole with
start from the scratch	the	start from scratch
consider an issue on its own merit	own	consider an issue on its merit

(Source: Daramola, 2009:248)

Here are some wrong uses of prepositions, their corrections and a brief explanation of each of them:

Table 5: Some wrong uses of prepositions

Wrong Forms	Correct	Explanation
As time goes on , I will know what to do.	As time goes by , I will know what to do.	Time does not go on ; it goes by .
Dudu-osun soap is made of leaves	Dudu-osun soap is made from leaves	Made from is used if the raw material is not seen at the finished product. But, if the raw material is seen after making the product, made of is used, as in the following: The bench is made of wood.

Wrong Forms	Correct	Explanation
I don't have money with me now; let me check my purse.	I don't have money on me now; let me check my purse.	On me is correct if the money is in one's pocket. With me is used if the money is in one's bag or purse, as in: I don't have money with me now; let me check my pocket
My sister, Sonia, now lives at London.	My sister, Sonia, now lives in London.	In makes a reference to locations in general; at is used before names of specific locations within the general reference, as in the following: My sister, Sonia, now lives in London, at 9, Rochester Street.
Harold is very good in physics.	Harold is very good at physics.	Proficiency is denoted with the use of the preposition at .
My house is among the cinema, the market and the church.	My house is between the cinema, the market and the church.	Between can be used for more than two things if sharing is not involved
I am quite pleased with your daughter's performance.	I am quite pleased at your daughter's performance.	We can only be pleased 'with' when it relates to human beings but 'at' is used in reference to non-human subjects. One can say: 'I am very pleased with your daughter (a human subject).'

Wrong Forms	Correct	Explanation
He was not on the queue when I came in.	He was not in the queue when I came in.	'On', as a place preposition, denotes position on something or a surface. The right preposition collocation for 'queue' is in .
Chuks has been on bed since 10am.	Chuks has been in bed since 10am.	To be ' in bed' means the person is 'ill' or 'asleep'. 'On bed' is used when one is relaxing, as in: "Everyone must be on bed at 11pm tonight," the hall assistant ordered.
I left Lagos to Texas last week	I left Lagos for Texas last week	The preposition to cannot be used in the context when one means the action one personally performs
I congratulate you for your success.	I congratulate you on your success.	The preposition ' on ' collocates with 'success'.

(Source: Olaniyi, 2008:33-34)

15.5 Summary and Conclusion

In this module, attempts have been made to explain the importance of the information culture which led to the internet revolution. This revolution has immense impact on the general use of the English language, considering the characteristics of the online community platforms which, amongst others, afford users very limited space for expression, thereby encouraging brevity and formation, as well as reformation of words. It can be inferred, therefore, that the internet has revolutionised the English language in numerous ways. The internet has brought about what is now known as cyber-language, and this has serious implication for the speaking and writing of the English language.

15.6 Exercises

- The invention of the internet has led significantly to _____.
 - mass literacy
 - mass illiteracy
 - mass knowledge
 - mass wisdom
- In the traditional period, _____ determined the global economy.
 - politics
 - agriculture
 - marketing
 - language
- The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria states, in Section 39 (1) as follows: "Every person shall be entitled to _____, including freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart ideas and information without hindrance."
 - Freedom of Association
 - Freedom of Expression
 - Freedom of Speech
 - Freedom of Information
- Anonymity is also known as _____.
 - vagueness
 - facelessness
 - impersonality
 - being incognito
- One of the following is not an element of internet vocabulary:.....
 - mouse
 - menu
 - move
 - Monitor

6. WWW is a popular abbreviation that means.....
 - a. worldwide wire
 - b. worldwide weed
 - c. worldwide window
 - d. worldwide web
7. Identify the word wrongly spelt in the underlisted options.
 - a. Pharaoh
 - b. harassment
 - c. questionnaire
 - d. Accommodation
8. In your own words, how would you define a *preposition*, based on your understanding of the word as discussed in this module?
9. Is it true to state that the internet has influenced English grammar?
10. In two sentences, state why English has been described in this module as "a global tool for the dissemination of knowledge."

References and Suggestions for Further Reading

- Brandstrom, C. (2011). Using the Internet in education strengths and weaknesses: a qualitative study of teacher's opinion on the use of Internet in planning and instruction. An unpublished thesis. Akademin for Ytbildning OCEkonomi.
- Daramola, A. (2009). The lexical characteristics of Nigerian English. In Dadzie, A.B.K & Awonusi, S. (eds) *Nigerian English: influences and characteristics*. Lagos: Sam Iroanusi Publications. pp 242-248
- Hong-mei, S. (2010). A study of the features of Internet English from the linguistic perspective. *Studies in Literature and Language*. Vol 1 (7).
- Olaniyi, A. (2008). *Standard English: A handbook for everyone*. Lagos: Olaniyi Concepts Publishers.
- Olin-Scheller, C. & Wikstrom, P. (2010). Literacy prosumers: Young people's reading and writing in a new media landscape. *Education Inquiry* 1, 41-56. Retrieved on 14th January, 2017. http://www.use.umu.se/digitalAssets/40/40554_inquiry_olin.pdf
- Oyebode, O. (2012). The English language in the Internet age. In Adegbite, W., Adekoya, S. & Adegoju, A. (eds.) *Use of English: A manual on communication skills for tertiary institutions*. Ile-Ife: Department of English, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

MODULE 16

HOW TO BE CONCISE AND ORGANISED IN WRITING: PARAGRAPHING AND OUTLINING

John Ibanga

Module Preview

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Features of a Good Paragraph
- 16.3 Outlining
- 16.4 Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of this module are to:

- (a) enhance students' ability to write coherent and unified paragraphs; and
- (b) equip students with the skills for presenting main points in extensive writing.

16.1 Introduction

Writing good paragraphs is one of the qualities of an efficient writer, and it is important to the success of any piece of writing. Paragraphs are important to every piece of writing, whether it is an essay, a letter, a newspaper article or a term paper, since every piece of extensive writing is made up of paragraphs. Paragraphs are the building blocks of such writing. In other words, a writer expresses his or her points of view in paragraphs. This module will provide you with some guidelines on how to write coherent and unified paragraphs. It will also discuss how to develop an outline that will guide you through the process of developing a good paragraph. In addition, we shall discuss the required parts of a good paragraph. Thereafter, we will provide model paragraphs and engage in exercises that will help you to practise how to write good paragraphs. At the end of this module, you should be able to:

3. Identify the major and minor themes in the recommended literary text and write them.
4. **Summarisation skills:** Summarise, in not more than two pages, a chapter from the recommended literary text.
5. **Grammar skills:** Write out five examples each of (a) simple, (b) compound and (c) complex sentences in a selected chapter of the recommended literary text.
6. **Literary exercise:** Write out the plot of the literary text.
7. What is the narrative technique or point of view in the text?
8. State the setting of the story.
9. What are the major and minor themes of the story?
10. Write at least twenty (20) figures of speech you can find in the text.

References and Suggestions for Further Reading

- Achebe, Chinua. (1958). *Things Fall Apart*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Baric, Leeza. (2012). Using Proverbs as Writing Prompts. Retrieved from www.leezabaric.com/using-proverbs-as-writing-prompts
- Mallan, K (2000). Teaching storytelling as part of university and professional development courses. In N.Yelland (Ed.), *Innovations in practice: Promoting meaningful learning for early childhood professionals* (59-66). Washington, DC: NAEYC
- Massa, Katherine. (2008). Storytelling as a Strategy to Increase Oral Language Proficiency of Second Language Learners. Retrieved from http://teachersinstitute.yale.edu/curriculum/units/2008/2/08_02.01.x.html
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- Rao, V. Jayalakshmi and A.V.N. College. (n.d). Proverbs and Culture in the Novels of Chinua Achebe. Retrieved from www.postcolonialweb.org/achebe/jvrao1.html
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- Tompkins, G.E. (2003). *Literacy in 21st Century* (3rd ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

MODULE 25

HOW TO WRITE RESEARCH PROPOSALS AND LONG ESSAYS

Theophilus Ayoolu Banji

Module Preview

- 25.1 Introduction
- 25.2 The Criteria for Writing a Good Research Paper
- 25.3 How to Choose a Research Topic
- 25.4 How to Narrow a Subject into a Researchable Topic
- 25.5 How to Write a Thesis Statement
- 25.6 How to Find Relevant Information
- 25.7 Sources of Information
- 25.8 How to Draft, Revise, Edit and Proofread a Research Paper
- 25.9 How to Avoid Plagiarism
- 25.10 How to Cite and Reference Existing Works
 - 25.10.1 The Harvard Style
 - 25.10.2 The American Psychological Association (APA) Style
 - 25.10.3 What is a Bibliography?
 - 25.10.4 What is a Business Proposal?
 - 25.10.5 How to Request for a Sponsorship or Grant
- 25.11 Conclusion
- 25.12 Exercises

Objectives of Module

The objectives of the module are to:

- (a) expose students to the rudiments of project writing;
- (b) equip students with the necessary skills for project writing; and
- (c) give an overview of business proposals and requests for sponsorship/grants.

25.1 Introduction

Rozakis (2007:3) states that a "research paper is such a useful and efficient method of gathering and presenting reliable information..." Indeed, at undergraduate and postgraduate levels of formal education, research papers and long essays are regular features of the requirements for the achievement of first and higher degrees. Being formal pieces of work, research papers and long essays are expected to be written with great care, and following stipulated guidelines and conventions. Such guidelines and conventions vary from one institution of learning to another. However, there are a number of key characteristics, which are common to, or shared by, virtually all institutions of higher learning. This module discusses the characteristics. The discussion of the characteristics in this module is guided, to a great extent, by Rozakis' model which focuses, amongst others, on the following significant and relevant key areas:

- the qualities of a good research paper
- how to choose a topic to research
- how to narrow a subject into a researchable topic
- how to write a thesis statement
- how to find relevant information
- sources of information
- how to draft, revise, edit and proofread a research paper
- the importance of using the mechanics of writing correctly
- how to avoid plagiarism
- how to cite existing works
- the layout of a research paper

In addition to the above areas, this module also discusses referencing styles and conventions and types of proposals. The module also presents samples of business proposals and requests for sponsorship.

25.2 The Criteria for Writing a Good Research Paper

Rozakis (ibid) identifies the following criteria for writing a good research paper:

- (a) The writer or researcher stays focused on the thesis of the paper, and avoid irrelevant points or argument.
- (b) The writer must show that he or she has a good understanding of the topic and make use of appropriate material or data.
- (c) The writer reads as widely as necessary on the research topic, particularly focusing on the works of recognised authorities in the relevant field.
- (d) The writer acknowledges existing and relevant research, and shows how his research has a new perspective that contributes to existing knowledge.
- (e) The argument or topic of the research is organised and logical.
- (f) The research must be original, without any form of plagiarism.
- (g) The material used for the research paper must be verifiable.
- (h) The format of the paper conforms with that which is stipulated by the relevant authority, such as a university.
- (i) The paper is written in a standard and formal style that reflects educated usage.

25.3 How to Choose a Research Topic

The choice of a topic for a research paper must be done very carefully, and not in a haphazard manner. Rozakis (ibid) asserts that the success or failure of a research paper often depends on the subject. Therefore, he proffers the following:

- (a) Do not research a subject that you cannot complete within the time allocated to you for your paper to be submitted.
- (b) Do not choose a subject for which you have no access to relevant or suitable material.
- (c) Do not research offensive or vulgar subjects.
- (d) Think about or brainstorm your subject.
- (e) List ideas and create a web of points around the ideas.
- (f) Where relevant, draw visuals.
- (g) Use question words, such as who, what, when, where and how to generate ideas.

- (h) Start writing around the ideas, using single words, phrases and sentences; and not focusing on problems of spelling, punctuation and grammar at this stage.
- (i) Read widely around your ideas.
- (j) Be consistently mindful of how much time you have to submit your research paper.
- (k) Be mindful of the expected or stipulated length of your research paper.
- (l) Consistently focus on the purpose of your research paper. For instance, the purpose of your paper is to convince your reader or audience about the claim(s) you make in the paper.

25.4 How to Narrow a Subject into a Researchable Topic

The topic of your research is developed or extracted from the subject of the research. The subject is general, but the topic is specific. For instance, a subject could be about education or music. However, the topic is about a very specific issue within the subject. Importantly, narrowing a subject to a researchable topic is a process of starting with a general subject, turning the subject into a question, brainstorming different areas of the subject for probable topics, consulting relevant sources of information, sifting your ideas in relation to your purpose and expected audience; and, finally, writing a final topic.

25.5 How to Write a Thesis Statement

A thesis statement is the core issue you are discussing in your research paper. Rozakis (ibid:29) asserts that a thesis statement states the main idea of a research paper. Secondly, it shows the purpose of the paper. Thirdly, it implies the direction of the paper and the order in which relevant ideas are presented. The statement is focused, interesting, clear, and uses appropriate style. For instance, a research paper uses a formal style in terms of spelling, punctuation, grammar and expression. Importantly too, your thesis statement must be written in a declarative sentence, not as a question. Finally, a thesis statement should not be too general. Make it specific.

25.6 How to Find Relevant Information

The world around us is full of information. Information abounds in books, newspapers, magazines, journals, television programmes, e-mail, on bill boards and others. Therefore, one needs to be careful in the choice of sources of information to write a research paper. The researcher must be careful about what kind of information is relevant and useful. In summary, the researcher should examine information carefully.

25.7 Sources of Information

There are two main sources of information: primary and secondary. Sometimes, the quality of a research paper is enhanced by the use of primary and secondary sources of information.

Primary sources are created through direct participation by their compilers. Examples of primary sources are autobiographies, diaries, interviews, historical records (oral and written), journals, eyewitness accounts, letters, journals, photographs, maps, surveys and statistics.

Secondary sources are described as indirect; they originate from existing accounts produced by others. Examples of secondary sources are abstracts, government documents, almanacs, literary criticism, textbooks, biographies, web pages, interpretations, book reviews and critical analyses.

25.8 How to Draft, Revise, Edit and Proofread a Research Paper

Even though the fact is obvious, it is important to state that it is very useful to consistently read through and revise a research paper as the writing progresses. Sometimes, the whole process of writing produces many drafts of the same paper. It is all about producing a quality output. The more revision is done, the greater the likelihood of improving the quality of a research paper. Rozakis (ibid: 155) presents a number of guidelines for revising, drafting, editing and proofreading a research paper:

- (a) Allocate sufficient time to revise your paper.
- (b) Do not hesitate to make significant (or extensive) changes

in your paper, where necessary. For instance, you might need to change the order of your argument, paragraphs and sections.

- (c) Save each draft of your paper under clear and proper file names.
- (d) Make your paper available for peer review.
- (e) Where possible, go to writing centres, and use their resources.
- (f) Edit your paper by checking the accuracy of your writing and the structures of your sentences.
- (g) Also, edit by determining whether or not you have proved your thesis.
- (h) Check your choice of words and how coherent your writing is.
- (i) Confirm whether or not you have acknowledged the sources you referred to in your paper.
- (j) Check the layout of your paper: page numbering, outline, title and subtitles.
- (k) Check grammar, spelling and punctuation.
- (l) Proofread your paper by checking your final draft for errors of typing; if possible, read your draft aloud to yourself; ask someone to read through your paper.

25.9 How to Avoid Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the use of someone else's work or words without acknowledging the source. Rozakis (ibid: 117) describes plagiarism as the act of paraphrasing and presenting an existing idea as your own, or as if you are the originator. Rozakis states further that it is the act of arranging one's ideas exactly as someone else has done. He states that plagiarism can be avoided in the following ways:

- (a) Acknowledge the source of an existing idea, and do not paraphrase the idea as if it is yours.
- (b) Do not present or develop an entire paper or a major part of it in exactly the same line of thinking as someone else's.
- (c) Do not arrange your ideas exactly as someone else has done, even if you acknowledge the source.

It is very informative to add here that advances in technology have produced devices for detecting plagiarism.

25.10 How to Cite and Reference Existing Works

There are conventions which give guidelines on how to cite and reference existing works. Citing of existing works and providing a list of references or a bibliography is a major requirement of a good research paper. The guidelines for following the requirement must be adhered to very strictly, to avoid negative outcomes of the research paper. One of such negative outcomes is the danger of being accused of plagiarising other people's works.

What is referencing? Referencing is a process which lets anyone reading your research paper know that you have read or consulted a range of relevant sources in relation to your research. It is also a clear way to show that you have acknowledged ideas and views of previous writers or authors in your research. Two of the major conventions which provide guidelines on referencing are the Harvard Style and the American Psychological Association (APA) Style. Each of the styles follows its strict convention.

25.10.1 The Harvard Style

The Harvard style uses an 'author-date' format. In other words, the researcher cites or refers to an existing work by writing the author's last name followed by the year of the publication of the work. The format is discussed further below, using the Imperial College London's (2016) publication on Harvard referencing.

(a) How to Cite One Author

There are two ways to cite one author in the Harvard style as follows:
Life in the forest is very tiring (Banji, 2007).
Banji (2005) states that life in the forest is very tiring.

(b) How to Cite Two or Three Authors

The following examples show how to cite two or three authors:
Animals are easy to handle (Olutayo & Ayoola, 2011).
Dogs are friends to others (Banji, Ayoola & Idowu-Faith, 2009).

(c) How to Cite Four or More Authors

If the work being cited has four or more authors, the term 'et al.' is used after the name of the first author. It is also acceptable to use the term to cite a work that has three authors. The following examples show how to cite four or more authors:

Travelling at the speed of light is exciting (Banji et al., 2010).

(d) How to Cite Works Written in the Same Year by an Author

Use a lower case letter after the date of a new work which has the same author and is written in the same year as one you have already cited in your paper. Look at the following example: Children tend to see the positive side of life at all times (Aderibigbe 2009a; Aderibigbe, 2009b).

(e) How to Cite form Chapters Written by Different Authors

Where works are cited from chapters written by different authors, cite the author of each chapter to which you have referred. Do not cite the editor of the whole book.

(f) How to do Secondary Referencing

Secondary referencing occurs when an author cites the work of another author, but has no access to the original or primary author. In such a case, the researcher cites the author of the primary source and the author of the secondary source, as follows:

According to Aiyetoro (2006), as cited by Banji (2009), life is full of challenges.

Note that it is advisable to avoid citing a primary source to which you do not have a direct access.

(g) How to Cite a Direct Quotation

Use single quotation marks to cite a direct quotation, unless you are quoting a speech. After the quotation, indicate the page number, as follows:

Akinwale (1990) states that running 'across the jungle is a very daunting experience' (p.9).

(h) How to Cite Illustrations, Images, Tables, Diagrams, Photographs, Figures and Pictures

Use in-text reference for illustrations, images, tables, diagrams, photographs, figures and pictures you have used in your work. Cite them with all their details both within your writing and their captions within the body of your work. Look at the following example 'Map of the West Side of the Amazon' (Rotunda, 2011: 502).

(i) How to Cite a Work that Has no Specific Author

Use the name of an institution or organisation to cite a work which does not have a specific author, as follows:

Nigeria needs a new direction to find a cure for a number of diseases (Federal Ministry of Health, 2017).

(j) How to Cite Multimedia Works

Multimedia works are works such as television, radio, video and film. Cite such works, using their titles. Where the author's name is available, cite the name of the author, such as that of a video you have uploaded.

(k) How to Cite an Interview or A Personal Communication

Cite the interviewee as the author, using his or her surname (last name).

(l) How to Cite Quotations which are Longer Than Two Lines

Insert quotations that are longer than two lines as a separate paragraph that is indented. In addition to the indentation, use the opening and closing quotation marks, the full stop, followed by the page number(s) of the quotation kept within brackets. Where you do not want to include a part of the quotation, use the ellipsis marks

(...) to indicate the non-inclusion. Also, where you have inserted your own words into a quotation, enclose the words you have inserted inside square brackets: [].

Note that it is advisable not to use too many quotations in your work.

Paraphrase existing works as much as practicable to do so.

(m) How to Write a List of References

A reference list should contain all the sources you have cited in your paper. List your sources alphabetically by author or editor. If you have cited an author more than once, list the author's works which you have cited, beginning with the latest work.

(n) An Example of a Reference List (Source: Imperial College, London)

References

Arrami, M. & Garner, H. (2008) A tale of two citations. *Nature*. 451 (7177), 397399.

Barros, B., Read, T. & Verdejo, M. F. (2008) Virtual collaborative experimentation: an approach combining remote and local labs. *IEEE Transactions on Education*. 51 (2), 242250. Available from: doi:10.1109/TE.2007.908071 [Accessed 29th June 2015].

Department of Health. (2009) Living well with dementia: a national dementia strategy. Available from: www.gov.uk/government/publications/living-well-with-dementia-a-national-dementiastrategy [Accessed 4th June 2015].

Goldacre, B. (2008a) Dore the media's miracle cure for dyslexia. *Bad Science Weblog*. Available from: <http://www.badscience.net/2008/05/dore-the-medias-miracle-cure-for-dyslexia/#more-705> [Accessed 19th June 2015].

Henderson, J. (2005) Google Scholar: A source for clinicians? *Canadian Medical Association Journal*. 172 (12), 15491550.

Holding, M. Y., Saulino, M. F., Overton, E. A., Kornbluth, I. D. & Freedman, M. K. (2008) Interventions in Chronic Pain Management 1. Update on Important Definitions in Pain Management. *Archives of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, 89 (3, Supplement 1), S38S40.

Pears, R. & Shields, G. (2008) *Cite them right: the essential referencing guide*. 3rd ed. Durham: Pear Tree Books.

Ramalho, R., Helffrich, G., Schmidt, D.N. & Vance, D. (2010) Tracers of uplift and subsidence in the Cape Verde archipelago. *Journal of the Geological Society*. 167 (3), 519538. Available from: doi:10.1144/0016-76492009-056 [Accessed: 14th June 2015].

Simons, N. E., Menzies, B. & Matthews, M. (2001) *A Short Course in Soil and Rock Slope Engineering*. London, Thomas Telford Publishing. Available from: <http://www.myilibrary.com?ID=93941> [Accessed 18th June 2015].

Smith, A. (2004) *Making mathematics count: the report of Professor Adrian Smith's inquiry into post-14 Mathematics education*. London, The Stationery Office.

Van Alphen, K., Voorst, Q. V. T., Kekkert, M. P. & Smits, R.E.H.M. (2007) Societal acceptance of carbon capture and storage technologies. *Energy Policy*. 35 (8), 43684380.

25.10.2 The American Psychological Association (APA) Style

In this book, the discussion of the American Psychological Association (APA) manual for referencing is based on the information provided by Trexler Library. The American Psychological Association (APA) manual for referencing stipulates that sources should be cited in two ways: in-text and in a list of references at the end of a paper. Also, the manual stipulates that the reference list should start on a new page, and must be double-spaced, with all lines after the first one indented.

Furthermore, a reference should provide information about the author and year; and quotations and summaries should include the specific pages or numbers of paragraphs. Also, if a direct quotation is less than forty words, it should be incorporated into the paper with quotation

marks. If more than forty words, a quotation should be entered separately in an indented block without quotation marks.

(a) How to Cite a Work by One Author

A work by one author should be cited in any of the following three formats:

- (i) In one study of adolescents (Andem, 1985), nineteen subjects...
- (ii) In the study by Andem (1985), nineteen subjects...
- (iii) In 1985, Andem's study of adolescents...

(b) How to Cite Works by Two or More Authors

Works by two authors should have the names of both authors cited, followed by the year in brackets. Works by three to five authors should have all the names of the authors the first time the works are cited, and the names should be followed by the year in brackets.. Subsequent citations should include only the name of the first author flowed by 'et al', followed by the year in brackets. For works by six or more authors, only the name of the first author, followed by 'et al' and the year in brackets should be cited.

(c) How to Cite Works by Unidentifiable Authors

To cite works by unidentifiable authors, cite the titles of the works; and use double quotation marks for the titles of articles, chapters and web pages. Titles of periodicals, books, brochures and reports should be italicized. Always treat legal materials (court cases, statutes and legislations) as works with unidentifiable authors.

(d) How to Cite Two or More Works within the Same Parenthesis

When citing two or more works within the same parenthesis, the works should be cited alphabetically, then chronologically.

(e) How to Cite Works in a Reference List

In a reference list, the entries for a work should indicate the

following: the name(s) of the author(s), date of publication, the title of the work, followed by the place of publication and the name of the publisher.

See the following example of a reference list (Source: Trexler Library):

Books:

- Strunk, W., Jr., & White, E. B. (1979). *The guide to everything and then some more stuff*. New York: Macmillan.
- Gregory, G., & Parry, T. (2006). *Designing brain-compatible learning* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Chapter of a Book:

- Bergquist, J. M. (1992). German Americans. In J. D. Buenker & L. A. Ratner (Eds.), *Multiculturalism in the United States: A comparative guide to acculturation and ethnicity* (pp. 53-76). New York, NY: Greenwood.

Journal Article with DOI:

- Paivio, A. (1975). Perceptual comparisons through the mind's eye. *Memory & Cognition*, 3, 635-647. doi:10.1037/0278-6133.24.2.225

Journal Article without DOI (when DOI is not available):

- Becker, L. J., & Seligman, C. (1981). Welcome to the energy crisis. *Journal of Social Issues*, 37(2), 1-7.
- Hamfi, A. G. (1981). The funny nature of dogs. *E-journal of Applied Psychology*, 2(2), 38-48. Retrieved from <http://ojs.lib.swin.edu.au/index.php/fdo>

Online Newspaper Articles:

- Becker, E. (2001, August 27). Prairie farmers reap conservation's rewards. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>

Encyclopedia Articles:

Brislin, R. W. (1984). Cross-cultural psychology. In R. J. Corsini (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 319-327). New York, NY: Wiley.

Developmental genetics. (2005). In *Cambridge encyclopedia of child development*. Retrieved from http://0-www.credoreference.com.library.muhlenberg.edu:80/entry/cupchilddev/developmental_genetics

Technical and Research Reports (often with corporate authors)

Hershey Foods Corporation. (2001, March 15). *2001 Annual Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.hersheysannualreport.com/2000/index.htm>

Book Reviews:

Dent-Read, C., & Zukow-Goldring, P. (2001). Is modeling knowing? [Review of the book *Models of cognitive development*, by K. Richardson]. *American Journal of Psychology*, 114, 125-133.

NOTE: For articles that have a DOI, see Journal Article with DOI example.

Data Sets:

Simmons Market Research Bureau. (2000). *Simmons national consumer survey* [Data file]. New York, NY: Author.

Blog post:

Lincoln, D. S. (2009, January 23). The likeness and sameness of the ones in the middle. [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.blogspot.com/lincolnworld/2009/1/23.php>

Website with no author or date of publication:

Census data revisited. (n.d.). Retrieved March 9, 2009, from Harvard, Psychology of Population website, <http://harvard.edu/data/index.php>

Do not include retrieval dates unless the source material may change over time. If no DOI has been assigned to the content, provide the homepage URL.

Reprint from Another Source:

Citation in the text: (Newton, 1998/1999).

Reference List Citation:

Newton, W. (1999). Return to Mars. In C. Mari (Ed.), *Space Exploration* (pp. 32-41). New York, NY: H.W. Wilson. (Reprinted from *National Geographic*, pp. 2-25, August 1998).

In this example of a reprinted book review, the author of the book is named first, followed by the editor of the reprinting source, then the reviewer. In your parenthetical citation, it is necessary to name the author of the book, while the reviewer is named to distinguish from other reviews of the book.

25.10.3 What is a Bibliography?

A bibliography is a list of works or sources which a researcher has consulted, but not cited. Such works in a bibliography at the end of a research paper. The works should be listed alphabetically and in the format of a reference list.

25.10.4 What is A Business Proposal?

In this module, the discussion of the concept of a business proposal is based on the views expressed by Bidsketch. A business proposal is designed to present a service or product to an intended buyer or client. It contains a business plan which is a formal statement about a set of business goals. A business proposal could be solicited or unsolicited. A solicited business proposal is written in response to an advertisement. An unsolicited business proposal is written and submitted to potential buyers or clients.

A business proposal consists of three main parts: problem statement, proposed solution and pricing information. The problem statement aims

at convincing potential buyers or clients that you understand their needs more than anyone else. A proposed solution offers a solution to an existing problem which a prospective client has. The presentation of the solution should be as detailed as possible. Pricing information aims to make your prospective buyer or client decide whether to offer you a contract or not.

In writing a business proposal, do the following:

- (a) Research relevant people and products. For example, research those who are competing with your prospective buyer or client. Research their products also.
- (b) Imagine that you are the potential buyer or client, and imagine the kinds of questions he or she might ask. Such questions could be about pricing and the expected benefits of the service or product you are offering.

25.10.5 How to Request for a Sponsorship or Grant

In this module, the overview of how to request for a sponsorship or a grant is based on Fatokun's (2017) views. To request a sponsorship or a grant, one should understand what one is about to do. Fatokun asserts that, in requesting for a sponsorship or a grant, one is "trying to do" the following: "generate interest, negotiate, persuade, inform, sell, motivate..."

Furthermore, Fatokun states that, in writing a grant proposal, one should establish the following:

- (A) a clear research idea
- (b) potential impact of a project
- (c) that the potential project is relevant to the interest of the potential funder
- (d) expertise
- (e) any history of a previous grant
- (f) the nature of one's research environment
- (g) good writing (clear, straight to the point, logical, comprehensively informative and factual)

Furthermore, the structure of a sponsorship or grant proposal should be as follows: title, abstract, background, aims and objectives, methodology, potential outcomes and outputs, benefits, statement of potential impact, personnel and resources required, costing, dissemination plan, lay summary, references/bibliography.

25.11 Conclusion

In this module, project writing has been discussed. The discussion has focused on a number of central issues such as the qualities of a good research paper, how to choose a topic to research, how to write a thesis statement, how to find relevant information and how to cite existing works. The module has also discussed referencing, and given an overview of the nature of a business proposal and the subject of requesting for a sponsorship or a grant.

25.12 Exercises

1. What is a research paper?
2. What are the qualities of a good research paper?
3. What is a thesis statement?
4. What is plagiarism?
5. What is *referencing*?
6. How does one write a list of references?
7. What is a bibliography?
8. What is a business proposal?

References and Suggestions for Further Reading

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ANSWER GUIDE

This section is designed especially for the use of students that are desirous of personally developing their communicative competence in the Use of English. Some of the questions in the manual do not have predictable answers, while there are some that expects guidance from the group lecturer or instructor. The answers to such questions may not be found in this section so as not to confuse you.

MODULE ONE

- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| 18. Handsome (adj) | occurrence (N) | residential (adj) |
| honestly (adv) | drink (N&V) | |
| 19. fast (adj/adv) | student (N) | wash (V) |
| disorder (N) | view (V&N) | |
| 20. honey (N) | although (adv) | boxing (N) |
| news (N) | happiness (N) | |
| 21. repetition | 22. assassination | |
| 23. explanation | 24. received | |
| 25. occasion | 26. accommodation | |
| 27. indigenes | 28. disease and medicine | |
| 29. separate | 30. Preferred | |

MODULE THREE

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 4. understand and retain | 5. passive and active |
| 6. Thinking | 7. Receptive |
| 8. Passive listener | 9. Active or Reflective listener |
| 10. Internal noise | |

MODULE FOUR

S/N	Action		
1.	While reading through a Newspaper Article		✓
2.	While in a Committee Meeting	✓	
3.	While consulting an English Dictionary		✓

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Using Needs Analysis to Develop a Learner-Centred Use of English Curriculum for First Year Students in a Nigerian University

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Abstract

This paper is a survey of the language and communication skills required of first-year students in a Nigerian university. The survey was done with a view to using the information gathered to revise the Use of English curriculum to conform to the specific needs of first-year students at university. Data was gathered from (1) observations of the authors who are experienced Use of English instructors, (2) responses to a questionnaire administered to 320 first-year students and (3) answers from unstructured interview sessions with 30 lecturers across academic faculties on the linguistic and communicative skills required by first-year students at university. The questions asked during data gathering centred on the four basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The data was analysed, using simple percentage statistics. The findings reveal that English usage by contemporary Nigerian first-year university students is greatly influenced by colloquial and non-standard forms. The results further show that the linguistic and communicative needs of the present generation of first-year Nigerian university students differ markedly from those of their predecessors. Therefore, there is the need to review the Use of English curriculum to meet their specific needs. The authors of this paper use the findings to highlight the need to review the Use of English curriculum, to make the course more relevant for the present generation of Nigerian university students. They conclude that making the course more student-friendly will enhance first-year Nigerian university students' communicative competence in English.

Keywords: Curriculum, use of English, Needs analysis, Learners' needs, communicative competence.

1. Introduction

Generally, first-year students, irrespective of whether they are native or non-native users of English, often come to university with poor skills in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The attention that has been paid to improved use of English and communication skills, especially in countries where English is non-native, is an outcome of the challenges posed by globalisation and internationalisation of university educa-

tion, on the one hand; and the increasing prominence given to English as the default language of education worldwide, on the other. To meet global demands for improved communicative competence in English in both academic and professional contexts, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course designers have continued to explore opportunities for helping to improve university students' proficiency in the basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. These skills, which fall squarely within the purview of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), are reflected in one way or another in the curriculum of Use of English and Communication Skills in Nigerian universities.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), according to Johns and Swales (2002), encompasses a complex set of skills required for advanced language learners to function as independent researchers in a university context. EAP is literally located in English-medium universities and universities worldwide. EAP in the UK, for instance, arose in response to the increasing internationalisation of tertiary education (Jordan, 2002). In India, the term Communication Skills is widely used; but, in Singapore, terms such as English for Business or English for Engineering, among others, are commonly used in order to situate the course in specific disciplinary contexts. EAP, therefore, plays a preparatory and catalytic role for first year university students, thereby ensuring a smooth transition to the university level (Bock, 1993; Drury & Webb, 1997). However, universities in Africa generally use labels such as Communication Skills, Communicative Skills, English for Communication Purposes or Use of English. While these differences in labels demonstrate the differences in curricular and philosophical orientations, they point to the increasing role of English as an "academic lingua franca" worldwide (Duszak, 1997, p.21).

According to Jordan (2002), many changes have occurred in the last two decades in the curricula, methods, technology and financing of EAP in both the UK and the USA. For instance, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) observe that issues bordering on critical use of language, plagiarism and cultural conventions have been given more serious attention in the EAP curriculum in these countries. This observation brings to the fore the need to review Use of English curricula in non-native English settings such as Nigeria, to meet the changing needs of the new generation of university students. Afful (2007) proposed a change in EAP curriculum in a Ghanaian university, which has an identical sociolinguistic setting with Nigerian universities. Afful argues that the revised curriculum should address issues such as remediation, study skills and discipline-specific writing skills. According to him, the main issues in the Communication Skills programme in Ghanaian universities are summarised below (Afful 2007, p.145):

- Note-taking and note-making (from lectures and textbooks)
- Reading (e.g. skimming, scanning and summarising)
- Conventions of Usage (spelling, grammar, punctuation, documentation etc)
- Writing (sentence patterns, clause patterns, paragraphing, types of essays, introduction, body and conclusion).

The Use of English course was incorporated into the curriculum of Nigerian universities by the Nigerian National Universities Commission (NUC) to boost the proficiency of Nigerian university students in English, the country's official language and language of education. Paying close attention to course content and teaching methodology in the course curriculum has become more critical in view of strident complaints by major Nigerian employers about poor linguistic and communicative competence of too many of the country's university graduates. According to Adegbite

(2012, p.2), Use of English is mounted as a course in Nigerian tertiary institutions, not only to enhance the communicative competence of students, but also to enable them "learn their courses well and perform well in academic and social situations." The ideal when designing a Use of English course for Nigerian university students is that its objectives, course contents and learning materials should not only meet the demands of communication in the university, but should also fulfil the expectation of their prospective employers or clients, if they opt for self-employment. It is also important that Use of English instructors identify relevant language skills required by the students to promote all-round competence in the target language. Consequently, aside from exposing learners to the grammar of the language, the use of English curriculum should focus essentially on the receptive skills of listening and reading and the productive skills of speaking and writing.

University studentship entails writing essays and term papers in academic English and presenting projects and research activities clearly and accurately. The language skills required to achieve the above exceed sheer knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary. The skills also highlight the ability to engage in academic discussions, take notes, ask questions and answer examination questions to earn good grades at the end of the learning period. Undergraduate students also require appropriate reading skills to get the best out of academic articles, books and other materials in their areas of specialisation. Regrettably, the use of English course is often viewed by many Nigerian university students and lecturers as a bother at worst or a course with limited relevance at best. This is compounded by the fact that it does not carry credit units in many Nigerian universities; therefore, students and course instructors often handle its teaching and learning with levity, which partly explains why many Nigerian university students today have poor communicative competence in English. In view of the above observations, it is our considered opinion, in this study, that university authorities, lecturers and students should collaborate in updating the Use of English course content, so that it can achieve optimum benefit for the present generation of Nigerian university students.

In addition, the advent of multimedia has made it appropriate and indeed mandatory for Nigerian universities and colleges to revise their approach to the teaching and learning of Use of English, so that the course can be made more accessible to the new generation of learners, who have been aptly described by Raji-Oyelade (2014, p.15) as "netizens" or "digital citizens". The foregoing raises a number of questions on the use of technology for teaching and learning Use of English in Nigerian universities:

- To what extent is the use of technology incorporated in the Use of English curriculum?
- How equipped are Nigerian Use of English instructors in the use of multimedia to supplement their teaching?
- Are Nigerian university lecture rooms adequately equipped for the use of multimedia for teaching and learning Use of English?

Pennington (1996) observes that learners gain more self-confidence, take more risks and are more spontaneous when they use the computer on their own for the purpose of language learning. Also, Kramsch and Anderson (1999, p.31) surmise that the use of computers brings the target language and culture as close and as authentically as possible to the students in the classroom. Effective English learning by the present generation of Nigerian university students should, of necessity, entail the use of technology.

Consequently, appropriate facilities should be provided in universities to make language learning more accessible to students.

2. EAP in an ESL Setting

The Use of English course in Nigerian universities falls within the ambit of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in view of the need to design it to meet the specific needs of homogenous groups of learners. Specifically, the course can be classified under English for Academic Purposes (EAP) because it caters for the needs of learners in an academic setting. According to Shing and Sim (2011, p.2), the growth of EAP derives from the awareness that university students possess different learning needs that cannot be fulfilled by teaching the same type of English to all categories of students. Indeed, EAP, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.10), gives priority to the language forms students would be exposed to in their studies; it gives low priority to forms they are not likely to be exposed to. In view of the function of English as Nigeria's official language and language of education, in addition to addressing relevant EAP skills and sub-skills, the course curriculum should also accommodate issues relating to the acquisition of English as a Second Language (ESL).

According to Wei and Flaitz (2005), EAP has a key responsibility to assist ESL students to develop a level of proficiency in English that will enable them to succeed both in their present academic endeavours and their future professions. Mo (2005) observes that optimum exposure of EAP skills to pre-university students (exemplified by first year Nigerian university students) will give the students a strong academic English background that will enhance their ability to learn more effectively at a higher level. Liyanage and Birch (2001) opine that the content of any English course designed to prepare students for the demands of university study has to be different from the content of general ESL courses that emphasises mainly everyday interaction. Liyanage and Birch claim further that the EAP curriculum has to build on students' awareness towards a particular language of the academy and certain ways of talking, reading and writing about ideas and texts. Consequently, the inclusion of various language and study skills in the content of an EAP course would help students to develop literary abilities that would continue to be applied to the complex set of skills that they would need to excel in their studies.

Orr (2001) observes that the content of ESP is not fixed, but is enriched according to the requirements of the learning context. Aside from addressing the linguistic needs of specific disciplines, Teoh (1995) suggests that a well-designed EAP course should be able to enhance students' ability to work on their own. In this way, students would become better and more independent learners; and they would be able to take more responsibility for their own learning. Underlying the Use of English curriculum for Nigerian universities are EAP and ESL perspectives on linguistic and communicative competence, as well as issues on the basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Linguistic and Communicative Competence in Second Language Acquisition

The notion of linguistic competence was inspired by Chomsky (1965) in reaction to the behaviourist underpinnings of Structural Linguistics, which favoured audio-lingualism (or habit formation) as a pedagogical approach to language teaching. According to Chomsky, a language skill is innate; therefore, children are born with an

understanding of the way languages work. Described as Universal Grammar, the theory has instigated a series of research activities, and stimulated developments in second language acquisition. Cook (2003, p. 42) summarises linguistic competence as follows:

Chomsky's idea is that the human capacity for language, as illustrated by a child's acquisition of the language around them, is not the product of general intelligence or learning ability, but an innate, genetically determined feature of the human species. We are born with considerable pre-programmed knowledge of how language works, and require minimal exposure to activate our connection to a particular language around us. In this view, the new born infant's brain already contains a Universal Grammar (UG) which forms the basis of competence in the particular language the child goes on to speak. (Cook 2003, p.42).

The competent user is one who knows when, where and how to use language appropriately. The term 'communicative competence' was initiated by Hymes (1966) as a deliberate contrast to Chomsky's (1965) notion of linguistic competence. Hymes (ibid) observes that a person who has only linguistic competence would be unable to communicate effectively. Such a person would produce grammatical sentences quite alright, but such sentences would be unconnected to the situation in which they occur. Hymes suggests that four types of knowledge are needed for successful communication: possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and attestedness. Possibility refers to what is formally possible in a language; whether an instance conforms to the phonological and grammatical rules of the language. Feasibility refers to the extent to which a grammatical expression is realistic, practical, tolerable or acceptable. Appropriateness refers to the relationship between language and context. It concerns conformity to social convention, saying the right thing at the right time. Attestedness has to do with whether an instance of language use has antecedent. Has it been used before and how frequently?

The concept of communicative competence has greatly influenced the popularity of the communicative approach in English language teaching, especially to students in non-native contexts. The approach focuses on the use of games, debates, role playing and other real life practical activities in language teaching. According to Canale and Swain (1980), communicative competence has four components; the first component is grammatical competence, which entails vocabulary, word formation, meaning, sentence formation, pronunciation and spelling. Sociolinguistic competence has to do with the status of the participants, the purpose of an interaction and the norms or conventions of the interaction. Discourse competence refers to the ability to combine and connect utterances and sentences into a meaningful whole. Strategic competence involves the manipulation of language in order to meet communicative goals. In line with Canale and Swain's approach to second language teaching, Use of English course designers in Nigeria often focus on opportunities for enhancing not only students' linguistic competence, but also their communicative competence in the language.

2.2 Needs Analysis in EAP

Needs analysis is described by Brown (2016) as the "cornerstone" of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) without which it could not exist. It can be described as the gap

between a current state of affairs and a desired goal. According to Brown (1995, p.36), needs analysis is a sum of the "activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students." Wei and Flaitz (2005) observe that it entails the collection of data to identify the tasks that students will encounter in university classrooms and the skills they need to perform such tasks successfully. It is an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners' goals and backgrounds, language proficiency, reasons for taking the course, teaching and learning preferences and the situations in which the learners will need the language to communicate, within and outside the university. Needs analysis, therefore, can be described as the most crucial of all the steps in curriculum design because all the other steps are based on it.

Given the focus of this paper, the desirability of updating the contents and methodology of Use of English, the concept of needs analysis is central. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.54), needs analysis in EAP consists of the procedures designed to gather and analyse information about the language skills for a specific group of learners in an existing or proposed setting so that inferences about curriculum can be drawn and informed decisions can be made. Therefore, needs analysis in EAP; or, specifically, Use of English, entails collecting, collating and assessing information relevant for effective design and delivery of an appropriate course for learners. The ideal is to have slight modifications for Use of English sub-skills for learner groups with different specialisations, interests and goals.

Needs analysis, in relation to Use of English, involves what learners already know, should know or wish to know. The outcome of a needs analysis should help to articulate teaching objectives, develop lesson plans, assemble materials, engage students in activities and carry out appropriate tests for students. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.60) use the term 'present situation analysis' (PSA) to draw attention to what students are able to do at the beginning of a course and what they need to do at the end of it. Consequently, use of English course tutors and designers should endeavour to identify their students' present situation with a view to motivating them and taking them to the level of competence expected of them in English usage.

Needs analysis involving students is a learner-centred bottom-up approach that makes the learner the centre of attention instead of the traditional top-down process where all powers are vested in university authorities in the determination of students' linguistic and communicative needs. According to Long (2005), it is vital to be aware of learners' needs when designing courses and lesson objectives, especially in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Ananyeva (2014, p.11) advocates the merging of boundaries between instructional designers, material developers and students in order to encourage ESL instructors to go beyond their disciplines so as to enhance their students' success in today's dynamic world. When students are involved in needs analysis, there is the advantage of making them better motivated and more attentive in class since they are taught what they want to learn. Likewise, when tutors are aware of the specific needs of a particular group of students, they would make decisions that would lead to better assessment and pedagogy (Tarone & Yule, 1989).

A needs analysis aimed at enhancing the teaching of Use of English in Nigerian universities should entail an accurate interpretation of the vision and goals of the course as stipulated by the Nigerian National Universities Commission (NUC), aimed at identifying students' 'wants' and 'lacks' as observed by lecturers in their respective areas of specialisation. Consequently, needs analysis for Use of English in a non-native setting like Nigeria can be achieved through formal and informal means, such as structured or unstructured interview, the use of questionnaires and students' test

scores. The information gleaned could, then, be used to update the Use of English course and ultimately enhance students' communicative competence in the target language.

Essentially, Use of English for Nigerian university students focuses on grammar, the receptive skills of listening and reading; and the productive skills of speaking and writing. Emphasis is too often on remedial English, which is dominated by vocabulary and grammar topics, because it is perceived as the bedrock on which reading and writing skills are taught and learnt. Many needs analysis studies such as Kim (2006), Bacha & Bahous (2008) and Liu, Chang, Yang & Sun (2011) focus on the immediate language needs of students, while others such as Crosling and Ward (2002), Deutch (2003) and Gea-Valor, Rey-Rocha & Moreno (2014) investigate needs that extend beyond the classroom up to students' professional careers. Brumfit (1984, p.69) distinguishes between mono-skills and integrated skills, while Candlin (1981) makes a distinction between macro and micro language skills. Price (1977, p.26) discusses the need for study skills, which include listening to lectures, note-taking and note-making, in the Use of English curriculum.

Much research work has been carried out in the past three decades or so on needs analysis in EAP in both native and non-native settings. As observed above, Tarone & Yule (1989) surmise that awareness of the specific needs of homogenous student groups enables instructors to make better decisions for pedagogy and assessment, while Teoh (1995) suggests that a well-designed EAP course would enhance students' ability to study independently. Liyanage and Birch (2001) observe that an EAP curriculum has to build on students' awareness of specific ways of talking, reading and writing in academic contexts. Hence, Ananyeva (2014) advocates encouraging EAP instructors to go the extra mile to enhance their students' success in today's dynamic world. Afful (2007) argues for the revision of the EAP curriculum in Ghanaian universities, to meet the specific needs of ESL learners.

In spite of the plethora of studies on needs analysis in both native and non-native settings, scholars have paid little or no attention to the input of first year university students and the views of lecturers in their respective disciplines when reviewing the Use of English curriculum in Nigerian Universities. Too often, scholars base their revisions mainly on the field experience of the Use of English instructors, which is not necessarily conclusive. This is the gap this paper intends to fill. The paper, therefore, aims to answer the following research questions:

- (1) What are the specific language needs required by the present generation of first year Nigerian university students?
- (2) What are the sub-skills that should be included in the Use of English curriculum for first year Nigerian university students?
- (3) What are the practical approaches that can be adopted for teaching and learning Use of English in Nigerian universities?

3. Methodology

This study used the survey approach because its aim was to gather detailed information about a phenomenon by collating and describing responses about it; and analysing and interpreting such responses to generate accurate generalisations for application to cover a larger group. The data for the study was collected from Bowen University, Iwo (BUI), in south-western Nigeria. The data was gathered from three primary sources. The first was through participant-observation method by the authors who are Use of English instructors at BUI. The other two sources were questionnaire and in-

interview to first year students and lecturers from all the six academic faculties at the university. Only a single university out of almost 150 Nigerian universities was selected for the survey in view of the status of the research as a pilot study. Secondly, first year BUI students were considered to be sufficiently representative of Nigerian university students because they possess the same characteristics as their counterparts in other Nigerian universities. Such characteristics include a large and mixed population of first year students (usually running into thousands), with diverse specialisations, as well as comparable sociolinguistic and demographic variables.

The first step taken at the inception of the research was to present the university's Use of English course outlines for the last three academic sessions to some first-year students and lecturers from all the six academic faculties in BUI. The comments of the students and lecturers on the strengths and weaknesses of the course outlines were used to compose statements used to generate responses from a questionnaire that was distributed to the students and the interview questions posed to the lecturers. What makes this study unique is the fact that it was anchored on the responses of both the Use of English students and the lecturers who interact with them in domains beyond the Use of English classroom. This approach made it possible for the authors, as Use of English instructors and course designers, to include the input of stakeholders (students and lecturers) in their review of the Use of English curriculum.

The questionnaire was used to obtain information about the expectations of BUI students from the Use of English course. Three hundred and twenty copies of the questionnaire were distributed to students randomly selected from all the six faculties at BUI: Agriculture, Basic Medical Sciences, Humanities, Law, Science and Science Education, and Social and Management Sciences. The study was done at the beginning of the second semester because the students were expected to be better equipped to respond accurately to the questionnaire, after having been exposed to the Use of English course for a full semester. The questionnaire contained 20 statements on the four basic language skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing. The students were expected to tick one of the three options of 'Yes', 'No' and 'Don't know' in response to statements relating to the four language skills. Each statement began with: "I expect my learning of Use of English to ..." The elicited responses were expected to reflect the students' expectations from the Use of English course in respect of the specified sub-skills.

Thirty lecturers, five from each of the six academic faculties in the university, were interviewed to know their views about the linguistic and communicative competence of their students and the benefit that their students were expected to derive from the Use of English course. The information gathered from both students and lecturers was expected to form the basis for revising the Use of English course content so that its teaching and learning could meet the real needs of the present generation of Nigerian students. At the end of the exercise, 309 copies of the questionnaire were returned; and these formed the basis for the data analysis presented below.

4. Data Analysis

This section is a summary of the data analysis comprising the lecturers' responses to the interviews and the students' responses to the questionnaire. The following is a breakdown of the returned questionnaire in respect of all six faculties at BUI: Agriculture: 44, Basic Medical Sciences: 39, Humanities: 49, Law: 46, Science and Science Education: 68, Social and Management Sciences: 63; making a total of 309. The students' responses to the topics they would like to be included in the Use of English

curriculum for first year university students are presented in Table 1 below. The section also explains the students' and lecturers' responses to the questionnaires and interviews, respectively.

- (a) *Research Questions One and Two (merged): What are the topics that should, appropriately, be included in the use of English curriculum for the new generation of first year Nigerian university students?*

Use of English teaching in Nigerian universities focuses, too often, on vocabulary, grammar, summarisation, comprehension, essay writing and other sub-skills associated with reading and writing, to the detriment of listening and speaking skills. Table 1 below summarises the responses of first year BUI students to questions on topics that should, appropriately, be included in the Use of English curriculum for first year BUI

S.N	Topics Students want	Yes	No	Don't know
1.	Listening Skill-related Questions			
(a)	Effective listening skills	83%	9%	8%
(b)	Note-taking skills	76%	14%	10%
2.	Reading Skill-related Questions			
(c)	Effective use of the dictionary	72%	19%	9%
(d)	Improving reading efficiency	84%	11%	5%
(e)	Improved study reading skills	82%	12%	6%
(f)	Summarisation and comprehension skills	84%	9%	7%
3.	Speaking Skill-related Questions			
(g)	Correct pronunciation of English sounds	77%	12%	11%
(h)	Fluency in international spoken English	78%	16%	6%
(i)	Public speaking skills	76%	14%	10%
(j)	Vocabulary development	81%	12%	7%
4.	Writing Skill-related Questions			
(k)	Word formation in English	62%	28%	10%
(l)	Distinguishing between British and American English	70%	18%	12%
(m)	Essays, letters and report writing skills	79%	11%	10%
(n)	Spelling and punctuation skills	82%	9%	9%
(o)	Correctness in English usage	83%	8%	9%
5.	E-Learning and Creative English Usage			
(p)	Identifying appropriate literary texts to help improve English usage	77%	16%	7%
(q)	Using the Internet for English learning	53%	23%	24%
(r)	Gender sensitivity in English usage	61%	24%	15%

students:

Table 1: Summary of First Year BUI Students' Responses to Needs Analysis Questionnaire

1. Listening Skills

The focus on listening skills is often overlooked in the teaching of Use of English in many Nigerian universities. The lecturers interviewed did not emphasise the importance of this aspect of the course; therefore, there was no significant response from them in respect of listening-skills-related topics. Table 1 shows that an average of 79.5% of BUI students expressed their desire for the inclusion of listening-skills-related sub-skills in the Use of English curriculum. As stated in the introduction to this paper, Use of English teaching in Nigerian universities transcends merely helping to boost students' linguistic competence. It is often used as an opportunity to transmit important learning skills exemplified by critical listening skills and note-taking. Most first year BUI students fall within the age brackets of 15 to 17 years; as a consequence, their youthfulness often makes them easily distracted during lectures. Therefore, topics on listening skills would enhance their ability to derive optimum benefits from lectures and other teaching and learning sessions. The students' response underscores their appreciation of the need to give a greater measure of prominence to the receptive skill of listening in the Use of English curriculum for first year university students.

2. Reading Skills

Good reading skills form the foundation for improved performance in examinations and the expansion of university students' knowledge base. The lecturers interviewed in this study were generally effusive about encouraging students to devote more time to intensive and extensive reading instead of their widespread practice of spending inordinate amount of time on less-productive activities exemplified by prolonged visits to social media sites. Table 1 summarises the students' responses to reading-skills-related statements in the questionnaire. The statements centred on the use of the dictionary, improving reading efficiency, study reading skills, as well as summarisation and comprehension skills. On the average, 80.5% of the students responded positively to the inclusion of the four reading-skills-related topics in the Use of English curriculum for BUI students. University studentship entails extensive reading on different subjects. Indeed, the present generation of first year BUI students belong to the digital age that has endless volumes of reading materials on all subjects. This category of students would benefit from some guidance on reading speed, reading comprehension and note-making skills, among others.

3. Speaking Skills

Also, Table 1 contains a summary of BUI students' responses to spoken-English-related questions. The students' positive responses, of 78% on the average, shows that they expect the Use of English course to help to improve their spoken English skills. Being second language learners, BUI students, like their counterparts in other universities in Nigeria, often require spoken English skills to help refine their pronunciation of English sound segments and the supra-segmental features of stress, rhythm and intonation. However, the effective teaching of topics in spoken English remains a daunting challenge in Nigerian universities. Apart from the absence of language laboratories that could effectively meet the needs of hundreds and sometimes thousands of students taking the course in each university, there is also the problem of authentic models of international spoken English that would be a source of motivation for the students. There is a limit to the extent to which many Use of English instructors can serve as models of spoken English for Nigerian students. Notwithstanding these and other chal-

allenges, a good Use of English curriculum should ideally include topics in spoken English. Therefore, Use of English instructors should explore opportunities of using available audio-visual equipment to expose their students to basic spoken English skills.

4. Writing Skills

Largely, writing-skills-related topics in Table 1 reflect traditional Use of English topics; therefore, the students' general positive response of 75.5% is not too far below expectation. However, the reduced enthusiasm reflected in the 63% "Yes" response for word formation and 70% for distinguishing between British and American English points to the students' limited knowledge of the importance of the two skills. Notwithstanding, both skills qualify for inclusion in the Use of English curriculum, in view of their importance in advanced English usage. Writing skills subsume topics in grammar, word formation, continuous writing, spelling, capitalisation and punctuation. Lecturers complain emphatically about the poor quality of the written English of their students. Indeed, some of them observe that some of their students use 'textese' (the informal language of text-messaging on mobile phones) in their written assignments and examination answer scripts. This reality brings to the fore the need for a new approach to the teaching of writing skills in the Use of English course in Nigerian universities.

5. Opportunities for E-learning and Creative English Usage

Table 1 shows that 77% of the students were positively disposed to the inclusion of a literary text in the Use of English course materials. However, they did not seem very enthusiastic about using the Internet for language learning; neither did they fully appreciate the benefits of gender-sensitive usage in contemporary English. A modern Use of English course should give students ample opportunity for improved English usage through e-learning. Also, Nigerian university students should explore avenues for exposure to contemporary English usage, through extensive reading and other informal learning avenues, such as watching entertaining videos, documentaries and news broadcast on both national and international audio-visual media channels. Teaching and learning Use of English at BUI entails the use of a recommended literary text in view of the well-known benefits of literature in second language acquisition. Aside from using the literary text to learn the target language independently, students acquire vocabulary and other practical applications of the rules of the language through informal learning sessions.

(b) Research Question Three: What are the practical approaches that can be adopted for teaching and learning Use of English in Nigerian universities?

Language learning today has moved from traditional or classical methods to more generic and constructive methods. The traditional methods of teaching Use of English is basically teacher-centred, whereby tutors pontificate on how to use the language; and the students, in turn, conform accordingly. However, with the new generation of students, tutors have to modify their teaching methods to enable them to guide the students towards optimum performance in the language. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) talk of a learner-centred approach which employs the use of formal and informal audiovisual materials that learners find much more interesting for language learning. However, this approach poses a great challenge to language teachers who need to continuously update themselves, especially in the area of material selection and testing, to meet the demands of the new generation of Nigerian university students.

Current approaches can be broadly split into two models which are the Communicative Approach (or Communicative Language Teaching) and the Post-Communicative approach. The communicative method includes the Functional or Notional-Functional Approach (Wilkins, 1974). The salient features of this method are termed the 3Ps – presentation, practice and production. Here, tutors present the target language through everyday situations, permit sufficient time for practice, and allow learners' independent production of the language in appropriate situational contexts. This method allows teachers to recreate real-life social and functional situations in the classrooms, since it aims at learners' communicative, sociolinguistic and strategic competences, not just mere linguistic competence. This methodology embraces three basic principles of communication, task and meaningfulness.

Task-based language learning is grounded in cognitive theories and cognitive processes, such as memory, attention and recall. The approach enables language learners to apply their communicative competence whenever they are called upon to undertake a selection of tasks in the language learning process. Under this method, language learners are given tasks or instructions that must be accomplished within a stipulated period. The tasks, which may be closed or open-ended, can be assigned to individuals or groups with the ultimate goal of boosting their communicative competence in the target language.

5. Implications and Conclusion

The opinions and input of both students and lecturers form the basis for updating the course contents and methodology for the Use of English course for Nigerian universities, particularly in the following regards:

(a) *Course Content*: A good Use of English course should strike a healthy balance between receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing). Of course, writing would still take the bulk of the course content, but sufficient hours must also be dedicated to the skills of speaking, listening and reading.

(b) *Class Size*: The Use of English class should not be a typical lecture where the instructor would make his or her presentation with minimal interruptions in the form of questions and contributions from students. Adopting Nunan's (1991) related views, to facilitate the required balance between teacher talk time (TTT) and student talk time (STT), it is essential that the Use of English class has a manageable number of students. The ideal number for each class is 25, but where there are insufficient numbers of tutors, it could be up to 30. At BUI, it took the intervention of the vice chancellor to aim at Use of English classes not exceeding 25 students per class. Aside from the obvious advantages of the small class, the tutor is able to have more one-on-one interactions with more students than he or she would have done in a class of 60 or more students, which is the norm in most Nigerian universities.

(c) *E-learning Opportunity*: Today's generation of students belong to the internet age. Many of them visit the social media regularly, and spend a lot of time toying with their phones. They could be encouraged to form *WhatsApp* groups that forbid the use of non-standard English as one of their house rules. To boost their fluency in spoken and written English, they could be made to download and share interviews and news broadcasts from the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and other reputable media organisations. The tutor could bring such materials to class, and share them with

his or her students. This would achieve the purpose of making Use of English teaching and learning more interesting and, consequently, boost the interest of the students in the course.

(d) *Other Informal Learning Opportunities*: The communicative approach to language learning entails the use of informal activities like role play, classroom debates and short narrations. If such activities are included in the curriculum, they would help to develop students' confidence and boost their communicative competence in the target language.

(e) *The Role of Literature in ESL Acquisition*: The role of literature in ESL acquisition cannot be overemphasized. Therefore, it is beneficial to include, at least, one literature text in the Use of English reading list. The instructor could introduce the text early in the course, and give the students individual or group assignments on the material.

In summary, this paper has addressed the growing desirability of updating the contents and methodology of the Use of English curriculum in Nigerian universities. This desirability is predicated on the fact that the universities are operating in an age where technological advancement plays a great role in learning. A revised Use of English curriculum for first year university students should be technologically driven. In addition, it should aim to strike a balance between the receptive skills of listening and reading and the productive skills of speaking and writing. These four skills make a difference in the ultimate performance of the students at the end of their study. It is very crucial, therefore, that the course contents and approach to teaching and learning Use of English should be innovative and as motivating as possible for the new generation of first year university students.

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Corporate Advertising as an Index of Intertextuality in Death Discourse

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ABSTRACT In the mass media landscape of Nigeria, English-medium newspapers present intertextuality as an enduring feature of death discourse. This paper examines intertextuality as a key element of reactions of corporate or business communities to the phenomenon of death. Anchored to the theoretical framework of literacy as a social practice, the analysis in this paper shows how literacy practices can travel across and become incorporated into different discourses. The paper discusses indicators of intertextuality, using excerpts of a representative data from pieces of death discourse (obituaries and in-memoriam) in four English-medium Nigerian newspapers: the Daily Times, the Daily Sketch, the Sunday Sketch and the Guardian with a focus on corporate advertising in advertised obituaries and in-memoriam in the newspapers. Based on theoretical underpinnings of the concept of advertising, the paper examines corporate advertising as a veritable source of intertextuality, specifically in death discourse. The paper highlights the significance of intertextuality as a definer of the distinctive textual norms and practices of corporate institutions in Nigeria within the purview of death discourse.

Keywords: intertextuality, corporate advertising, death discourse, community of the bereaved

Introduction

In this paper, advertising is examined as an inter-textual component of death discourse, as evident in obituaries and in-memoriam published in English-medium newspapers in Nigeria. The examination of the intertextual nature of aspects of the discourse is a focus on the corporate or business community of the bereaved. The particular display of intertextuality in advertised or publicised death discourse shows that the community is simultaneously engaged in the publicity of death-texts alongside the promotion of its corporate interests. In essence, there is a convergence of more than one social practice in the literacy employed in death discourses. This paper asserts that the features of advertising in the discourse show the ubiquitous nature of advertising in the community in general.

Literacy is best understood as a social practice (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanicj, 2000, Ade-Ojo, 2015). Indeed, it has been argued that literacy is utilised for specific purposes (Ade-Ojo, 2015). Each social practice would, therefore, attract or reflect specific literacy features. However, the notion of inter-practice suggests that features of one

practice can be replicated in another social practice, thus promoting what might be referred to as intertextuality (Raj (2015 & Graham, 2005).

In this paper, we set out to explore two things. First, what are the features of death discourse as a social practice? Second, does this practice and, therefore, its literacy draw from other practices? Through this analysis, we expect to be able to provide further evidence of the nature of inter-textuality and inter-practice literacy. This might ultimately become a pedagogical tool for aiding the use of inter-practice and its literacy in the development of other literacy practices amongst adult language learners.

Death in the construct of social practice

Searle (1998) observes that the study of the human experience of death enables the understanding of some fundamental features of social life, highlighting that embodiment dictates basic parameters for the construction of culture, and that it is a basic motivation for social and cultural activity. He concludes that, within this social understanding and through a variety of practices, the fear of mortality is transformed into some human social activities, which orientate society towards the acceptance or recognition of existence, death notwithstanding. In the foregoing regards, the data for this paper show advertising as a corporate social and cultural activity thus demonstrating the intertextual relationship between these two discourses.

Parkes (1993) describes bereavement as a psychosocial transition, noting that human beings have the capacity to organise (or construct) the world that we experience. Parkes's view resonates with Prior's (1993) view that human grief is socially patterned and channelled. In this paper, we suggest that the patterns of the construction of corporate identities are the channels through which the reaction of the bereaved to death is projected, even through the medium of advertising. In arriving at this conclusion, we draw on Gee's (1999) view that cultures, social groups and institutions shape social activities. The kind of *onsite* language use that this paper examines portrays the textual construction of communal reaction, which involves the announcement and the remembering of deaths; and, resultantly, the construction of identities. The paper views the construction as social, in relation to Stewart's (1978) view that *discourse* refers to language as a social event, not language as some contained and abstract fact which is a product of some individual psyche, but rather language as discourse, accomplished by social process.

St Clair and Giles (1980) state that contexts of language usage portray the individual as an active participant in the social construction of reality. Therefore, one underlying assumption, in this paper, is that the presence of intertexts in death discourse published in newspapers is a reflection of attempts by the bereaved to cope with the social and psychological experience of losing a loved one by drawing on experiences and literacy practices from other social contexts and their associated discourses. In the context of this paper, the key discourses and practices relate to death and advertising. As such, the evidence we intend to analyse will emerge from the interaction between the text, literacy and practices across the two social domains.

Advertising as an Element of the Social Construction of Corporate Culture

Our understanding of advertising in this paper draws on the construct offered by Cook (1992). Cook states that advertising is a ubiquitous phenomenon. This feature of advertising serves as the basis of an influential assumption underpinning this work, that

corporate advertising is an index of the enduring intertextual nature of corporate death discourse in English-medium newspapers in Nigeria. The intertextual nature of the advertised discourse depicts the cultural and semantic value of the discourse of the corporate community's simultaneous practices of giving publicity to death while at the same time enhancing the promotion of business interests. Cook states further that it is not only the medium of advertising that matters, but also its social meaning, which is equally significant. Therefore, we assume in this paper assumes that the value, as well as social practices from which advertising draws, makes it one of the principal features of intertextualised death discourse.

The Concept of Intertextuality

Graham (2005) views text as an intervention in a cultural system. Also, examining the concept of intertextuality, Raj (2015) states that text is not a unilinear entity, but a heterogeneous combination of texts. Raj highlights Kristeva's (1980) notion of *intertextuality*. Kristeva (1980) examines the potential dynamics that characterise intertexts, and the point that a text is not a unilinear entity but a heterogeneous combination of texts. Raj argues that any text is simultaneously literary, social, creative and cultural; and, therefore, culturally and institutionally fashioned. The foregoing views about the concept of intertextuality relate very closely to the focus of this paper, which examines the corporate community of the bereaved as an organ of the intertextualisation of advertised death discourse. Raj states that intertextuality deals with the materialisation of a text from the social text and its perpetual existence within society and history. In the data for this paper, the corporate bodies that have produced the death discourse are perpetual sources of institutional or corporate advertising; and, therefore, producers and manifestations of death discourse as an inter-text product. Raj adds that texts are not isolated personage but culturally fashioned discourses, ways of institutional speaking and saying. He concludes that text is a practice and productivity.

Lemaster (2012) sees intertextuality as the reference to or application of a literary, media or social text within another literary, media or social text. This converges with the views of literacy as a social practice and encourages the possibility of practices interacting and, therefore, texts interacting. Lemaster states further that intertextuality asks us to think about why the author is choosing this particular social text and why the features of a particular social text and its associated practices might be present in another social text. The discussion of corporate death discourse in this paper draws on Lemaster's views in this context.

Mebuke (2011) asserts that intertextuality is responsible for the evolution of text types as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. She adds that intertextuality is one of the central standards of text construction, which determines how we perceive a definite text and the principles of its function. Mebuke states further that the fundamental concept of intertextuality is that no text is original and unique in itself, and that texts are generally a tissue of inevitable references to and quotations from other texts and practices. Therefore, she concludes that intertextuality can be seen as the concept of texts borrowing of each others' words and concepts, as well as the signifying of practices of a culture.

Mebuke's assertion echoes the views of Lotman (1994), who argues that culture can be considered as a text. Advertised corporate death discourse in the data for this paper depicts a culture which engenders the resultant intertextual discourse. Mebuke and Lotman's views are very true of the existence of intertextuality in advertised cor-

porate death discourse as found in the data for this paper. The discourse shows distinct typical patterns that characterize intertextuality as a form of death discourse. All of this reinforces the argument of Kilbride (2016) that intertextuality acknowledges the fact that no text is an island.

Indicators of Intertextuality in the Social Construction of Corporate Culture

The genre of advertising in the death discourse that forms the data for this paper is characterised by detailed information, such as business names, addresses and logos, which make the resultant death discourse a combination of death discourse and other texts. This paper establishes the view that corporate advertising in death discourse published in English language newspapers in Nigeria is dependent on the primary purpose of publicising death events, specifically death notices (obituaries) and remembrances (in-memoriam), rather than on the normal culture of business advertising. The dependency engenders the dual function of advertising in which the primary function of death publicity subsumes the secondary function of business advertising.

The function of business advertising as a cultural element relates to Harris and Seldon's (1962) view that the practice and excesses of advertising are universal and essentially the same in commercial, political, cultural, aesthetic, literary, professional and other non-commercial activities. In this paper, we examine the phenomenon of business advertising in death notices as an intrusion into the primarily non-business related activity of announcing or remembering the occurrence of death. Importantly, the intrusion depicts the intertextual nature of corporate death notices; and reflects the strong influence of the demands or features of business on the corporate community of the bereaved, to the extent that the community considers it normative to promote its businesses as an integral element of corporate death publicity. Cook (ibid) states that the context of communication focuses on the following elements: the communicator, the receiver, the purpose of communication, the kind of society, the situation and the medium of communication.

Day (1999) claims that corporate advertising may be created to gain consumer acceptance, overcome an image problem, or promote the company name as a brand. Therefore, in this paper, we hold the view that the corporate culture of advertising in death notices aims at making the consumer or reader of the advertised death notices accept the dual personality of the corporate advertiser as the bereaved, as well as the supplier of advertised products or services.

The contents of the corporate death discourse in the data for this study provide the basis for the view that aspects of advertised corporate death discourse are designed to promote the advertisers' business or corporate interests. Dyer's (1982) view that textual analysis of one sort or another is based on the meaning ascribed to a text by an analyst, or interpreter, justifies, in this paper, the analysis of corporate advertising in corporate death discourse. Dyer argues further that advertisers claim that advertisements are one of the most important influences in people's lives; and they advance and perpetuate the ideas and values which are indispensable to a particular economy. Therefore, I assume that providing information about a business, within a death notice, provides the suitable ground for touching the feelings of the reader, who is made to see the information as an integral part of the notice.

Also, Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) discuss the phenomenon of social needs in advertising. They reason that people do not exist in isolation, and that we need love, friendship and recognition from our fellows; we need to belong to groups and to feel

that we belong, and we need to be aware of ourselves as persons in relation to surrounding social groups. To examine the issue of corporate advertising in death notices, we assume in this paper that the corporate advertisers, being a social group, do not exist in isolation; but attempt to interact with other people and other practices, including in death-related matters. We assume in this paper that the incorporation of advertising in death discourse suggests the existence of the corporate group seeking recognition by another social group consisting of newspaper readers. According to Cook (ibid), the recognition can be indicative of the advertiser's personality or social and ideological position. Essentially, corporate advertising in death discourse presents an element of the identity of the corporate community of the bereaved.

Aspects of the data for this paper exemplify three indicators of corporate advertising in death discourse. The first is the presentation of the corporate advertiser's identity, which includes information about name, location and route(s) of communication. The second is the presentation of product or service. The third is the incorporation of clients or customers into the corporate expression of loss or sorrow. Excerpts A, B, C and D below are used to illustrate these indicators in the reality of death discourse. In discussing these exemplifications, we draw on linguistic frameworks and categories to illustrate the features of texts across discourses and practices.

The Presentation of the Corporate Advertiser's Identity

Excerpt A

Ladokun Feeds Ltd, Km 6 Old Lagos Road, Podo Industrial Estate, Ibadan, Nigeria. 2 years in mind. The Chairman, Directors, Management and Staff of Ladokun Feeds Ltd recall today, 6th November 1988 our late chairman...who passed to the world beyond on 6th November 1988. Chairman, Management and entire Staff, Ladokun Feeds Ltd... "Grow with the best, use Ladokun Feeds"

In Excerpt A, a number of features are prominent and help to illustrate the phenomenon of intertextuality. First, the identity of the advertiser is made specific and detailed through the following features:

- Proper nouns signifying specificity: In the excerpt, proper nouns are used to provide specific information. For example, 'Ladokun Feeds Ltd', 'Old Lagos Road', 'Podo Industrial Estate', 'Ibadan' and 'Nigeria' are all proper nouns. These are usually features of corporate advertisement and have now occurred within the literacy practice and textual reality built around the discourse of death, thus clearly illustrating the notion of intertextuality.
- A second exemplifier is the specific use of the adverb 'in mind'. This can be seen as signifying a mental perspective of a corporate feeling in a corporate mind which has been transferred across texts and practices.
- Another feature represented in Excerpt A is the use of adjectives. There is the use of 'entire', signifying a sense of completeness or totality and 'best', which shows the use of superlative terms. There is also the use of the possessive pronoun, 'our' signifying a collective body of advertisers. The superlative term and the possessive pronoun are usual features of corporate advertisements.

- d. Another feature of intertextuality in the excerpt is reflected in the use of imperatives: 'Grow with the best', 'Use Ladokun Feeds.' Advertisements are meant to persuade potential consumers; the use of imperatives is a usual feature of such persuasion. This again is a reflection of the intertextual nature of death discourse.

In summary, the information in Excerpt A strengthens the presentation of the corporate advertiser. Therefore, this indicates that some intertextual and inter-practice movement had occurred, leading to the generation of the death-related but intertextual text.

Excerpt B

The Board of Directors, Management and Staff of...Ltd wish to express our deeply felt sympathy to the family, relations and the entire management of Crown Trust Limited for the untimely loss of their illustrious chairman and chief executive...which sad event took place in the late hours of Tuesday, 18th June 1991...Management, C.L... Limited, Building & Civil Engineering Contractors, 5 Ring Road, Ibadan, Oyo State, Tel:- (022) 313983

Excerpt B also exemplifies corporate details as in Excerpt A above. Also, it contains two additional and usual features of advertisements which provide evidence of intertextuality: The first is the detailed specification of location: "5 Ring Road, Ibadan, Oyo State". The second is the inclusion of telephonic information: 'Tel:- (022) 313983'.

Excerpt C

The Board of Directors, Management and the entire staff of Guinea Insurance Company Ltd remember and treasure always the evergreen memory of our dear friend and colleague...who died on Sunday, the 18th October, 1987...Management...Guinea Insurance Company

In Excerpt C, an additional feature is the subtle advertisement of the advertiser's service: insurance. The presentation of the service as an element of death discourse is significant, particularly with the corporate name 'Guinea Insurance Company' occurring two times in the text, an instance of repetition for emphasis, which is a feature of advertising.

Excerpt D

We wish to use this medium to express our profound gratitude to all our numerous customers, bankers and organisations who stood by us during and after the period of our terrible loss.

Excerpt D exemplifies another feature of business advertising, where clients or customers are presented as participants with the advertiser. The excerpt shows the following features of a collective presentation of feelings:

*We wish...
our profound gratitude
our numerous customers, bankers and organisations
all our numerous customers, bankers and organisations*

who stood by *us*
our terrible loss

The use of the three pronouns '*We*' (subject pronoun), '*our*' (a possessive pronoun used four times in the excerpt) and '*us*' (an object pronoun) shows the construction of a corporate identity in the advertised text. The excerpt contains clear features of corporate advertising. The features exemplify Dyer's (1982) identification of advertisement text as part of a flow or pattern of culture, as well as Vestergaard and Schroeder's (1985) description of the culture of advertising as performing the directive function, in which language is oriented towards the addressee, where language is used to influence the actions, emotions, beliefs and attitudes of the addressee, referred to in the excerpt as '*numerous customers, bankers and organisations*'.

Conclusion

As shown in excerpts A, B, C and D, the phenomenon of corporate advertising in corporate death discourse reveals the conflation of the boundaries of the social contexts of death publicity and business promotion. In other words, literacy and, therefore, texts have moved across practices. In this paper, the analysis and discussion of indicators of advertising in death discourse has characterised advertising as an indicator of corporate social and cultural reaction to death. It shows an element of the culture of business communities in Nigeria, who use death discourse as an avenue to advertise business interests, and exploit their existence in a consumer-oriented environment. Because of this culture, features of advertisement have been seamlessly incorporated into death discourse. This embedding of textual features across discourses provides further evidence of intertextuality, and shows how texts can evolve as carriers of the practices with which they are associated.

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Abstract

In the linguistic landscape of Nigeria, newspapers constitute one of the key media of death discourse, in addition to the electronic sources of the television and the radio. This paper examines societal or communal reaction to the death of a loved one, in terms of the construction of individual identities. The paper focuses on the concept of identities and their construction in English-medium newspapers in the country. It discusses identities as found in representative two hundred and thirty-five (235) pieces of death discourse (obituaries and in-memoriam) in four English-medium Nigerian newspapers: the Daily Times, the Daily Sketch, the Sunday Sketch and the Guardian. The paper discusses the societal construction of identities of the dead as individuals in the newspapers. Adopting the theoretical and analytical framework of systemic functional grammar, the paper examines the construction, in view of the theoretical principles of genre analysis, in view of the fact that the issues of the construction of identities have implications for the description of the particular genre of death discourse by the Yoruba community of the bereaved. The paper also highlights the semantic significance of the distinctive socio-cultural characteristics of the Yoruba in terms of textual norms and practices.

Key words: construction, identities, discourse, the dead and the bereaved

Introduction

The Social Construction of Death

This paper examines death discourse in English-medium newspapers in Nigeria as a contextual and identifiable body of texts produced by members of the Yoruba socio-cultural group. The paper examines the group as the *community of the bereaved* who consistently undertake the functional social construction of identities. The notion of the functionality of the construction relates to Firth's (1993) view that culture invests meaning from religious, psychological and social perspectives. This paper contends that the construction is evident in death notices advertised in English language newspapers in Nigeria by the members of the Yoruba community of the bereaved.

A Functional Analysis of the Construction of Identities in Death Discourse

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Abstract

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Adopting the theoretical and analytical framework of systemic functional grammar, the paper examines the construction. It also adopts the theoretical principles of genre analysis, in view of the fact that the issues of the construction of identities have implications for the description of the particular genre of death discourse by the Yoruba community of the bereaved. The paper also highlights the semantic significance of the distinctive socio-cultural characteristics of the Yoruba in terms of textual norms and practices.

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the community construct the dead as individuals whose identities are textually presented. Therefore, the constructors, being members of the community of the bereaved, are engaged in the social textualisation and construction of identities.

The foregoing views relate to Seale's (1998) view that the study of the human experience of death enables the understanding of some fundamental features of social life. Seale notes that embodiment (for example, of emotion) dictates basic parameters for the construction of culture, and that it is a basic motivation for social and cultural activity. Seale concludes that, through a variety of practices, the fear of mortality is transformed into some human social activity, which orientates society towards the acceptance or recognition of existence, death notwithstanding.

Also, in relation to the human activity as the response to the experience of death, Parkes (1993), describing bereavement as a psychosocial transition, states that human beings have the capacity to organise (or construct) the world that we experience. The foregoing views relate to Prior's (1993) view that human grief is socially patterned and channelled. In this paper, it is claimed that the patterns of the construction of identities are the channel through which the reaction of the bereaved to death is projected. The claim relates to Gee's (1999) view that cultures, social groups and institutions shape social activities. Gee adds that applied linguists and sociolinguists are interested in how language is used "on site" to enact activities and identities. The kind of *onsite* language use that I examine in this study portrays the textual construction of communal reaction, which involves the announcement and the remembering of deaths; and, resultantly, the construction of identities. This paper views the construction as social, in relation to Stewart's (1978) view that *discourse* refers to language as social event, not language as some contained and abstract fact, nor as a product of some individual psyche, but rather language as discourse, accomplished by social process.

St Clair and Giles (1980) state that contexts of language usage portray the individual as an active participant in the social construction of reality. Therefore, one underlying assumption, in this paper, is that the construction of the identities of individuals in death discourse published in newspapers is an index of attempts by

the bereaved to cope with the social and psychological experience of losing a loved one. The assumption relates to the functions of language in its social contexts. And, as stated by Applegate and Delia (1980), the construction of social reality is intimately connected to the physically and experientially defined interpersonal and cultural matrix. Thus, this paper examines the construction of the social reality of death, and the attendant ritual of the construction of identities.

Furthermore, the focus of this paper on the specific context of the Yoruba community of the bereaved relates to Seale's (op cit) view that the cultural forms made available to members of different societies to deal with the fact of death vary. Seale states that an understanding of cultural variation helps one to perceive the degree to which the construction of death, dying, bereavement and the broader issues of identity are influenced greatly by the conceptions of particular social groups.

Furthermore, this paper contends that the occurrence of death and the resulting bereavement is indexed by the reaction of the bereaved who claim either familial or non-familial ties with the deceased. In other words, the bereaved exploit the ties in the post-death social construction of the identities of the dead. The familial ties are indicative of kinship relationships and experiences. The non-familial indicate non-kinship relationships and experiences, such as are based on business and other associations. The ties are reflected in the social constructions that are characterised by the social and pragmatic employment of language.

Death Discourse: Social and Pragmatic Issues

The data for this paper, formed by written discourse that focuses on societal reaction to death, enable the examination of the notion of participation that underlies the presentation of experience, in which the dead and the bereaved are socially constructed as *participants*. In essence, the production of death discourse, being socially situated, engenders particular socio-functional categories of actions which are constructed in text in form of participants and their identities. Importantly, the paper contends that the pragmatic construction of the reaction underlies the functional semantic import of death discourse. Being primarily a functional semantic

examination of death discourse, the approach to the examination of the data is descriptive. Therefore, the pragmatic analysis of the constructed categories in the data is not the concern of this paper, neither does the paper adopt a pragmatic approach to the analysis of the data. However, since the element of construction has to do with a social, functional human activity, it is considered worthwhile to recognise the relative relevance of the underlying pragmatic use of language in the data. Leech (1983) states that pragmatics is interpersonal and textual. He adds that pragmatic explanations are primarily functional, and that the textual characteristic of pragmatics depicts language as a means of what this paper recognises as the community of the bereaved contextually, socially, and textually constructing identities of the dead.

The fact that the construction of identities is socially situated as a human activity presupposes the pragmatic import of the construction. The social significance of the pragmatic use of language is also examined by Peccei (2001) who states that pragmatics concentrates on those aspects of meaning that cannot be predicted by linguistic knowledge alone and takes into account knowledge about the physical and social world. Also, Mey (1996) states that pragmatics is the science of language seen in relation to its users, which starts from the active conception of language as being used. Therefore, from the perspective of this paper, the contextual, meaning-driven use of language in the social construction of identities has to do with the publicity of feelings by the bereaved. The notion of context makes the perspective of the paper definitive, with regard to what it recognises as the *community of practice*, in which the members are affiliated in the functional socio-cultural use of language to construct the identities of the dead. The use indicates a communal sense of belonging in the act of construction.

A 'Community' Perspective

The examination of the functional, social construction of identities relates to Saville-Troike's (1989) view that a *speech community* is identifiable by the way in which it patterns, or organises, communication. In this paper, it is assumed that the speech community also constitutes the *community of the bereaved*. Labov

(1972) states that the community is best defined as a group of speakers who share the same norms in regard to language. From the perspective of the subject matter of this paper, such sharing of norms presents the community as a group, which exploits language to perpetuate the identifiable culture and patterns of collective reaction to death.

The phenomenon of sharing also relates to Gumperz's (1972) claim that, as long as the members of the community share knowledge of the communicative constraints and options governing a significant number of social situations, they can be said to be members of the same speech community. In this study, the community is recognised as formed by the members of the same community of the bereaved, who are guided by identifiable norms and practices of communication. This paper contends that the norms and practices are shown in the similar and consistent patterns of advertised death discourse, which members of a speech community produce. The recognition of the similar and consistent patterns is based on the view that the material event of dying is a social situation that engenders closely guarded and normative communicative constraints in the community of the bereaved. Therefore, this paper argues that the constraints govern the elements of the social construction of identities, which is the response, by the community, to a particular social situation (such as that of death) that is characterised by shared knowledge among the members. Gumperz (ibid) also observes that, because such shared knowledge depends on intensity of contact and on communicative networks, speech boundaries tend to coincide with wider social units, such as tribes, religions or ethnic groupings. The existence of such boundaries informs the contextual examination of the Yoruba community of the bereaved in this paper. The foregoing perspectives on the notion of the community of the bereaved provide the basis for the examination of death discourse, produced by members of the Yoruba community of the bereaved.

In summary, the notion of *death discourse* and the construction of identities is that of the textualised reaction of the community of the bereaved, in the forms of the announcement or the remembrance of death. The community is consistently engaged in the construction of the reaction through the textual presentation

of functional language patterns. Within the scope of this paper, the *community of the bereaved* is that of the members of a group, who are identified by their involvement in the construction of individual identities to project their experience of bereavement to the reading public through English-medium newspapers.

An Illustrative Base

Yoruba death lyrics compiled by Ajuwon (1981) and Amoo (1983) are veritable points of reference for the examination of the construction of individual identities by the Yoruba community of the bereaved. This paper has done a loose translation, into English, of excerpts of Ajuwon and Amoo's compilations of death lyrics. In essence, the reference to the compilations is to identify cultural antecedents of the construction of identities in death discourse.

The compilations reflect the fact that the Yoruba genre of death discourse is indexed by oral and written traditions, which are replete with varied language elements and structures, which are employed extensively by the bereaved, particularly in dirges. For instance, the dirges are designed to celebrate the attributes of the deceased, a celebration which involves the construction or projection of the identities of the dead. Also, the dirges serve as a channel for the projection of communal bereavement. This paper contends that, as an index of the enduring culture of such projection, the bereaved exploit the informative resource of death discourse published in English-medium newspapers in the southwest of Nigeria.

Such publication relates to Brown and Yule's (1984) view about the process of interpreting discourse producers' intended meaning. Brown and Yule contend that the interpreting has to do with the computing of the communicative function (how to *take* the message), using general socio-cultural knowledge (facts about the world) and determining the inferences to be made. They state that computing the communicative function has to do with the assumption that speakers (and writers) convey both social and propositional meanings when they produce particular utterance (and written) forms in particular contexts. They also contend that using general socio-cultural knowledge points to the fact that the general knowledge about the world underpins the interpretation,

not only of discourse, but also of virtually every aspect of human experience, which makes the interpretation context-dependent. Therefore, using the excerpts of Ajuwon and Amoo's compilations of dirges, I examine how the traditional Yoruba community of the bereaved demonstrate their reaction to death.

Ajuwon and Amoo's Dirges

The construction of individual identities in Ajuwon and Amoo's compilations is depicted in the highlighted aspects of *Excerpt A*, in a dirge sung by a group of hunters at the funeral of their colleague:

Excerpt A

He who prepares good ground

Will prepare good ground today

God will prepare good ground for the good.

In the excerpt, the identities of two individuals are constructed. The first is '*He who prepares good ground*' in line 1, which refers to *God* in line 3. The second is '*the good*' in line 3, which refers to the deceased or the dead. Though the dirges sung by the hunters are primarily focused on the deceased, reference is made to *God*, with a view to introduce some positive value into the identity of the deceased. Therefore, the reference to *God* and *the good* (the deceased) in the excerpt is to highlight the belief that there is some kind of rapport between the deceased and *God*. *God*, referred to as *He*, is constructed as the one who makes a good place ready for the individual, the dead, identified as *the good*. The construction of *the good* is also shown in *Excerpt B*:

Excerpt B

I say do not go to the heaven of the wicked

Do not go to the heaven of the pain giver

The good heaven is the heaven of the good

In the excerpt, the identities '*the wicked*' and '*the pain giver*' are juxtaposed with the identity of the dead (the addressee) as '*the good*'; therefore, *the good heaven* is the place the identified individual '*the good*' must go. In essence, the positive identity of the deceased as an individual is projected, through the emphatic presentation of the notion of being good in reference to '*the good heaven*' '*of the good*' (the deceased). The attribute of being good

is reinforced by the juxtaposition that is realised by the negative import and rejection of, or advice against, *the heaven of the wicked* and *the heaven of the pain giver*.

Use of Figurative Expressions

Amoo and Ajuwon's compilations also show the construction of individual identities through the use of figurative expressions. Excerpt C exemplifies the construction:

Excerpt C

There is no disease **as deadly as filariasis**

There is no disease **as deadly as filariasis**

The buffalo wades through the forest

The buffalo wades through the forest

In the excerpt, the identity of the deceased as an individual is constructed through the simile: *as deadly as filariasis* (which is a deadly disease) and the metaphor: *the buffalo*. The use of *deadly*, an adjective that indicates a high degree of destructiveness, shows the attempt to construct the identity of the dead. The adjective is not meant to eulogise *filariasis*; rather, it is a forceful and convenient way of constructing the identity of the deceased. Essentially, the import of *filariasis*, in the context, is not aimed at constructing a negative identity of the dead; rather, it refers to the dead as one to be feared, as one would fear a terrible disease.

Furthermore, as a perspective of the construction of the identity of the deceased, the metaphor *buffalo* suggests the construction of the huge, physical build of the deceased. The verb 'wades' describes the forcefulness of the buffalo's movement *through the forest*, which serves as a metaphor for the concept of life. The entire expression: '*The buffalo wades through the forest*' portrays the dead, whose identity is being constructed, as an *actor*, who undertakes some awesome activity, and displays the quality of strength, not of weakness. Also, the repetition of '*There is no disease as deadly as filariasis*' and '*The buffalo wades through the forest*' emphasises the identity of the deceased as an individual.

Material and Relational Processes

In addition to the examination of the use of figurative expressions in the construction of identities of the dead, the data for this paper

also show the construction in terms of the functional categories of material and relational processes. As aspects of the systemic functional analysis of language, as propounded by Halliday (1971) the material process involves the construction of experiences in which the deceased is presented as *actor*, or as *goal*. The relational process has to do with the identity of the deceased as *carrier* or possessor of *attributes*.

Material Process

The use of the material process by the Yoruba community of the bereaved in the construction of identities involves references to actions undertaken by, or done to the dead. Such references are realised by either active or passive constructions. Thompson (1996) states that material processes have to do with things (actions) that go on in the 'external world', rather than in the 'internal world' of mental processes; and that the processes can be categorised on the basis of two questions: *What did X do?* and *What happened to X?* In the data for this paper, through material processes, the Yoruba community of the bereaved attempt to construct the identities of the dead as either *active* or *passive* participants. In essence, Thompson's categorisation of material processes on the premise of the questions: *What did X do?* (as *actor* in the active participation) and *What happened to X?* (as *goal* in the passive participation) underlines the communal practice of constructing the identities of the dead.

Active Participation

The concept of "*What did X do?*" involves the giving of information on the *material process* in which the dead is constructed as an *actor*. The examination, in this paper, of the notion of *doing* in respect of the social construction of identities in death discourse also relates to Levin's (1992) perception of the *self*. Levin states that there is the notion of the self as activity, where activity depicts the organiser or agent; in this case, the *actor*. Levin concludes that there are two notions here: one, the self as doer, or centre of initiative; and two, the self as organiser. The underlined aspects of the data for this paper construct the identities of the dead through the use of relative or defining clauses, for example as the elements of the active material process of dying:

Ramos... who departed this life on December 2, 1960...

...our dearly beloved brother and father, Pedro Akinrinola... who slept in the Lord on May 1, 1966...

...a dear husband and father, Joshua Ojo... who died in a car accident two years ago August 5, 1967...

...our beloved Ezekiel... who passed into eternal rest on 21st April 1969

A mother who laboured all her life, to see her only child succeed in life, was, in a fit of ungovernable temper, jealousy and suspicion mowed down by one...

...Gilbert... who answered the home call on the 31 of May 1996.

In the excerpts, the verb: "died" depicts the material process of dying, which is euphemistically depicted by the verb phrases "departed this life", "slept in the Lord", "passed into eternal rest", and "answered the home call". Essentially, the depiction specifies the identifying material process experienced by the dead as participant (*actor*). It also forms the core of the construction of the identifying element of the dead by the bereaved. The construction of identities in the excerpts is strengthened by circumstantial details, such as "ten years ago today", "in the Lord", "this life", and "in a car accident", "in the Lord" and "all her life" enhance the attempt by the bereaved to construct the identities of the dead through very specific information.

Passive Constructions

The data for this paper are also indicative of 'What happened to X (the dead)?' as opposed to 'What did X do?' as a feature of the social construction of the identity of the dead through the construction of material processes, where the dead is given the identities of passive participants, or victims. The underlined aspects of excerpts, below, exemplify the processes that identify the dead as the sufferers, or goals, of an act performed by an active actor: death, as shown in the references to a series of actors, such as a *colleague* and *armed robbers* who have inflicted death on the deceased:

Samuel... who was snatched away from us by death on April 1, 1966.

Prince... who was murdered in his office...by a colleague on Tuesday, 18th June, 1991.

Samson... who was killed by armed robbers at his residence on 5th April, 1996...

The phenomenon of passive participation involves either an implied agency, or a specified initiator of death. Essentially, the Yoruba community of the bereaved employ the passive voice in the construction of the identity of the dead. The construction of identities is enhanced through the choice and use of emotive words, such as "snatched", "murdered", and "killed", all of which makes the identities more definitive.

The data for this study also show the use or construction of implied agency, where the initiator of death is not specified, but is implied, as an element of the construction of the identities of the dead as sufferers or goals in the material process of dying. The use is found in the highlighted aspects of the following excerpts:

...our beloved wife and mother...who was called to the higher service above, at Kaduna, on Friday, August 30, 1957, in the prime of her life...

Mr Bolaji...who was murdered May 1, 1996.

...our wife, mother and grandmother...who was transformed into glory above on the 6th day of November 1987

Olayinka...who was gruesomely murdered on Tuesday June 4, 1996...

...our father, husband and brother who was assassinated on the 6th of March, 1967 at the age of 60 years.

Daddy and Mummy who were killed in... January...

Furthermore, in the excerpts, the circumstantial details: "to the higher service above", "May 1 1966", "into glory above on the 6th day of November 1987", "gruesomely...on Tuesday June 4 1966", "on the 6th of March, 1967 at the age of 60 years" and "in January" enhance the identities of the identify the dead, in terms of the circumstances or nature of death. Through the reference to the circumstantial details of death, as shown, for instance, in the use of

- the adverb "gruesomely", the bereaved construct the identities of the dead as hapless sufferers of the action of inflicted death. The negative import of the material process of the infliction and the manner of dying highlights the construction of identities. For example, while one participant is identified by the tragic experience of being murdered, another is identified by the tragic circumstance of a slightly different nature, that of being assassinated, where the semantic value of the identification is enhanced by the choice of the pointedly emotive word: *assassinated*, which implies the murder of an important person (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 1995).

Furthermore, the presentation of the dead as the passive participant from the perspective of *What happened to X?* is also realised by the defining or identifying clauses that are headed by *whose* or *which*. The structures, as in '*which sad event took place*,' are the euphemisms for the occurrence of death. The structures, underlined in the following excerpts, construct the identities of the dead as the sufferers of non-self-inflicted death:

1. Samuel...whose peaceful end came on May 4, 1967

In excerpt 1, the experience of dying is given a positive value by the phrase "peaceful end". The phrase enhances the identity of the dead. However, excerpts 2 to 8 ascribe negative values to the identities of the dead, through the use of the following adjectives: "sorrowful", "sad" and "sudden".

2. Daniel...whose sorrowful death occurred on the 8th of March
3. We announce with regret the death of ...Marian which sad event took place at her residence.
4. ...College Old Students Association...regret to announce the untimely death of..Mr Odueyingbo...which sad event took place on 17th January 1978
5. We regret to announce the death of ... Dr ...Akinsete...which sad event took place in a ghastly motor accident on Ibadan/Life Road on Saturday, 25th March, 1978
6. ...Chief...which sad event took place in the late hours of Tuesday, 18th June 1991 at the UCH, Ibadan.
7. Mr...Adebayo... which sad event occurred after a brief illness...

8. ...the Acting Dean, Staff, and Students of the Obafemi Awolowo University Ile Ife announce the sudden death of their colleague, Professor Joshua...which occurred on June 14, 1992.

In summary, excerpts 1 to 8 depict how the occurrence of death is used in the constructing the identities of the dead, in terms of the very descriptive and identifying structures which give specific information on the nature of death, as found in "sorrowful death", "peaceful death", "sudden death". The excerpts illustrate the socio-cultural practice of announcing deaths in newspapers, where the announcement is characterised by the construction of the identities of the dead, with the inclusion of the varied natures of death. Importantly, the giving of circumstantial details in terms of the natures of death, such as "at her residence", "on 17th January 1978" and "in a ghastly motor accident" highlight the semantic import of the details as the discourse markers that enhance the process of constructing the identities of the dead. For instance, while "Marian" is identified by the circumstantial detail of dying at "her residence", "Dr Akinsete" is identified by the circumstantial detail of dying in "a ghastly motor accident". Essentially, the defining property of the different details of circumstance contributes to the identities of the participants.

Relational Process

The data for this study also show the use of the relational process in the construction of identities of the dead. Functionally, the processes, which are either *attributive*, or *identifying*, establish a link between the participant either as *carrier* and the identifying *attribute*, as in: '*You were kind...*' where '*kind*' is the attribute possessed by the *carrier*: *You*; or as the *identified* and the *identifier*, as in '*You were my friend*', where '*my friend*' is the *identifier*, and '*You*', the *identified*.

The Attributive

In the attributive mode, there is an *intensive* process, which characterises the relationship between an *attribute* (usually adjectival) and its *carrier* (realised by a noun phrase). Halliday (1994) states that, in the attributive mode, an entity has some quality ascribed or attributed to it. Therefore, aspects of the data

for this study show that the attribute, as a property of the carrier, contributes to the identities of the carriers, the dead, as found in the highlighted aspects of the following excerpts:

You were so humble and highly respected...
'Wale, as you were popularly called, you were too gentle, too meek, too loving and just too good to be snatched away from us by the cold hands of death...

In the excerpts, the carriers: 'you' are identified by the positive attributes "so humble", "highly respected", "too gentle", "too meek", "too loving", and "just too good to be snatched away from us by the cold hands of death". The intensive, relational verb 'were' provides the link between the carriers and the attributes. The link enables the construction of the identities of the carriers, the dead. Indeed, the construction is strengthened by the inclusion of the following intensifying elements: "so", "highly", "too", and "just".

The Identifying

Unlike the *attributive*, the *identifying* mode of the relational process, in the construction of identities involves two elements: *the identified* and *the identifier*. Halliday (ibid), states that, in the identifying mode, one entity is being used to identify another, as shown in the following excerpts, each of which has the form of the verb *to be* as the indicator of the *relational identifying process*:

You were a loving husband and a devoted father whose memory will forever be cherished.
You were a good wife and a loving mother too precious to forget.
You are a father too great to lose.
To us you were an amazing grace whose memory is so sweet to cherish.
You... were a source of inspiration to us...
You were a benefactor to many.
You were a pillar of strength, a woman of valour...
You were an epitome of hardwork, discipline and integrity.
You were a real gem, renowned for your frankness, uprightness and generosity.

The highlighted parts of the excerpts, which, structurally, are the subject and the complement respectively, functionally show the *identified* and the *identifier*. In each excerpt, the subject "You" is the identified, while the highlighted noun phrases, such as "a loving husband and a devoted father whose memory will forever be cherished" are the identifiers.

Societal Identification

In this paper, the notion of societal identification in relation to the construction of the identities of the dead has to do with the construction of the dead as pre-death participants in specific societal positions that define some degree of relevance to society, beyond the confines of families or friendship. Here, the notion of societal identification is based on the view that there are contextually or culturally definable relationships between members of a social group.

Stevens (1996) states that to be a person is to be intrinsically related to others, to exist in a social medium of meanings and customs, and even when physically absent (or dead, from the perspective of this paper), the people of our world may remain with us. Essentially, the construction of identities of the dead by the community of the bereaved who produced the data for this study is characterised by the construction of social relationships. Wetherell and Maybin's (1996) state that the self is shaped through interactions with others and involvement in social and cultural activities. They add that language actually constructs the world and the self in the course of its use. The community of the bereaved constructs the identities of the dead from the perspective of the wider society through reference to the pre-death relevance or roles of the dead in the social milieu. In relation to the foregoing, Potter and Wetherell's (1987: 116) state that the presentation of selves in discourse is undertaken through the process of categorization:

Categorization is an important and pervasive part of people's discourse. In the course of conversation, everyone populates their lives with friends, doctors...and a thesaurus of other categories of people. Pick up any newspaper and many of the stories will concern people who are described,

evaluated and understood not in terms of any unique features of their biography but through their category membership...

Potter and Wetherell conclude that people are taken to be members of relatively enduring social categories; and, in virtue of their category membership, inferences are made from the attributes of individuals to the attributes of the rest of the category. Therefore, in this paper, the examination of the notion of societal identification in terms of the construction of identities of the dead, has to do with references to societal roles. Wetherell and Maybin (ibid) state that the identity of the self is shaped across a relational and social field. They contend that the identity is multifaceted, rather than singular or unitary; and that they emerge in fields of meanings and practices that are socially and culturally organised. They conclude that language and discourse actively construct the world and the self.

Also related to the present examination of societal construction of identities is Levin's (1992) view that the social self extends the object-relational aspect of self. In other words, the myriad of relationships that persons forge with others in society modifies, expands, and defines the nature or composition of their identities. Therefore, this paper recognises the fact that the concept of the social self, or social identification, has to do with recognition by others or by society.

In this paper, such recognition is examined as the kind that is done by the living (the bereaved) who engage in an assessment of the dead, for the purpose of constructing their identities from the societal perspective. The assessment demonstrates the effect on the societal identification of the dead. The scope of the assessment is determined by the concept referred to by Levin (op cit) as *significant others*:

...man has as many social selves as he has significant others (for example, one's boss, parents)...My social self is importantly the degree of fame and honour I can garner for myself...Self is experienced as, and indeed is, an interaction between innate potential and environmental response. (pp. 76 & 208)

Also, Levin (op cit) discusses the possibility of an entity having more than one *social identity*. He contends that *self*, which is recognised in my study as the object of identification, certainly arises out of a social matrix. It arises as something that exists in the world, is public, and defined in relation to others. The societal identification of the dead is exemplified in the following excerpt of the data for this paper:

...Late Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs who lost his life ten years ago today April 1st 1978 while on a mission in the service of the nation...

In the excerpt, the societal construction of the identity of the dead focuses on the following: (a) his position as "permanent secretary" in respect of an aspect of society: "Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs", and (b) the proof of his relevance to society: "on a mission in the service of the nation". In summary, the identity of the deceased is constructed as that of an entity who has been of specific relevance to society.

The highlighted aspects of following excerpts show more instances of such construction, with reference to different areas of public life or service, such as healthcare, education, agriculture, governance, news media, transport, publishing, religion, finance, socialising and the armed forces, as shown in the sub-titles to the excerpts:

Healthcare

The Nigerian Optometric Association regret to announce the death of their professional colleague...

X was the professional colleague of the Nigerian Optometric Association.

We regret to announce the death of...former controller of medical services in the old Western State of Nigeria.

X was the former controller of medical services in the old Western State of Nigeria...

It is with heavy hearts but with gratitude to the Lord Almighty that we announce the transition of...Raphael...Medical Director, Micand Clinics...

X was Medical Director, Micand Clinics...

Education

Eruwa Community announce with grave grief the sudden death of their illustrious son...former secretary, Department of Veterinary Pathology, University of Ibadan...

X was an illustrious son...former secretary, Department of Veterinary Pathology, University of Ibadan

We regret to announce the untimely death of Late Odu...teacher, Molusi College... 1957 – 1978

X was a teacher at Molusi College...1957 – 1978

In ever-sweet memory of our dearly beloved...Moses...President, National Postgraduate Medical College of Nigeria 1990-1991

X was President, National Postgraduate Medical College of Nigeria 1990 – 1991

On behalf of the Chairman, Members of the Governing Council, Staff and Students, I regret to announce the passing away of...Ayeni...Registrar, Oyo State College of Education...

X was Registrar, Oyo State College of Education

Agriculture

In affectionate memory of...Thomas...retired higher technical officer, CRIN Ibadan

X was retired higher technical officer CRIN Ibadan

...Robert...Former Principal Produce Superintendent (D) Ondo State Ministry of Agric and Natural Resources

X was Principal Produce Superintendent, Ondo State Ministry of Agric and Natural Resources

Governance

...Bateye...Late permanent secretary, Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs who lost his life ten years ago today...

X was permanent secretary Ministry of Local Government and Chieftaincy Affairs

With gratitude to God for a life well spent, we announce the transition to the great beyond of...Stephen...First Accountant General of Ondo State...

X was First Accountant General of Ondo State

In loving memory of our dearly beloved...Oloyede...Former Civil Commissioner in Oyo State (1979 – 83)...

X was Civil Commissioner in Oyo State (1979 – 83)

News Media

...In cherished memory of ...Ahmed...Late News Editor, Daily Times...

X was News Editor, Daily Times

Transport

With deep sense of loss, the Campbell...families announce the sudden passing away of...William...Retired boiler superintendent of the Nigerian Railway Corporation...

X was retired boiler superintendent of the Nigerian Railway Corporation

Publishing

In cherished memory of...Ezekiel...Late sales promotions manager of Longmans Nigeria Limited who slept in the Lord...

X was sales promotions manager of Longmans Nigeria Limited

Religion

We remember with ever cherished love...Julianah...Iyalode of St Michael African Church...

X was Iyalode of St Michael African Church

It is with the deepest regret and total submission to the will of God that we announce the passing into glory...of...Gladys...Iya Ijo Christ the Saviour's Church...

X was Iya Ijo Christ the Saviour's Church

Finance

The Board, Management and Staff of...Merchant Bank regret to announce the passing away of the mother of our MD/CEO...

X was the mother of our MD/CEO

The Chairman, Board of Directors, Management and Staff of...Bank of Nigeria...announce the passing away of the mother of our director...Christana...

X was the mother of our director

Socialising

The Committee and entire members of the Club regret to announce the death of one of our esteemed members...Ogundare...

X was one of our esteemed members

The Armed Forces

This announces the memorial service for the 50th (post-humous) birthday of Brigadier General (Pastor)...Odeleke...This is the first activity of the foundation set up to immortalise the great man; a gallant soldier, compatriot...

X was a great man; a gallant soldier, compatriot...

With heavy hearts but with gratitude to almighty God for a life well spent, we...announce the transition of...Alfred...retired chief superintendent of police...

X was retired chief superintendent of police

Commerce

In affectionate memory of our past Chairman Mr Emmanuel...Fondly remembered by ...District Professional Photographers Association...

X was Chairman...District Professional Photographers Association

In evergreen memory of our beloved...Madam...She was a prominent textile dealer at Gbagi Market Ibadan in the early thirties, distributing textile materials for ...John Holt, G. B. Ollivant...among other companies...

X was a prominent textile dealer at Gbagi Market Ibadan in the early thirties distributing textile materials for...John Holt, G. B. Ollivant...among other companies...

The Management & Staff of Bolajoko & Co...remember today as always...Gbolade...Late Chairman/Managing Director (D) Bolajoko & Co. Ltd...

X was Chairman/Managing Director Bolajoko & Co. Ltd...

With a heavy heart but also full of thanks to God Almighty...we announce the passing away of...Smith...former finance director (D), Nigerian Marine and Dredging Limited...

X was finance director, Nigerian Marine and Dredging Limited

Conclusion

The analysis of the data for this study shows that the Yoruba community of the bereaved produce a genre of death discourse, particularly publicised English-medium newspapers in Nigeria. The analysis shows that the discourse is characterised by the linguistic forms of material and relational processes. The processes enable the construction of identities of the dead. Also, the facets of society represented in the data show the intrinsic cultural norms of constructing identities of the dead in relation to varied perspectives of their pre-death relevance to society.

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Humorous Meaning Strategies in Nigerian Stand-up comedy: An Example of *I Go Dye* performance

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Abstract

The main objective of this article is to identify and analyse humorous strategies found in Nigerian stand-up comedy. Particularly, the illustrations were taken from the routines of a popular Nigerian stand-up comedian, I Go Dye. First of all, a case was made for humorous meanings. How humorous meanings were achieved in stand-up comedy performance was then explained. Analysis showed that I Go Dye, as a Nigerian stand-up comedian, adopted exaggeration, naming and labelling, self-praising, self-denigrating and retorts as strategies for expressing humorous meanings.

Introduction

Pragmatics is concerned with the investigation of meaning in context. Usually, a distinction is made between meaning as a property of linguistic expressions and meaning in relation to speech situations. In view of this distinction, Leech (1996) observes that in pragmatics, meaning is described relatively to language users; therefore, pragmatics is the study of contextual or utterance meanings. Thomas (1995) further explicates contextual meaning by identifying two types: the first level of speaker meaning and the second level of speaker meaning. At the first level, there is a pairing of linguistic expressions and the contexts where they are used; and at the second level, there is an identification of speakers' intention or the force of their utterance. The force of an utterance is more than its contextual meaning; nonetheless, the force is got from the contextual meaning (Thomas, 1995).

By extension, in humour research, a distinction can be made among studies that are focused on the explication of humour in the text and the use of humour in an interaction. In the first instance, the goal is to highlight and clarify how language constructions lead to humour while in the second instance, the goal is to spell out the purpose of humorous utterances in interaction. Several linguistic studies on humour are focused on explicating humour in jokes (Raskin, 1985; Giora, 1991; Ritchie, 2004; Attardo, 1994) while other studies explicate the functional use of humour in

COMMUNICATION SKILLS is a course in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). It is specifically designed for students pursuing diverse courses of study in universities and other tertiary institutions where English is the medium of instruction, particularly in second language situations. It is also a useful book for undergraduate students of English. Postgraduate students who are in the process of writing their theses will equally find some sections of the book invaluable.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS adopts an integrative approach. Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills are given incisive treatment with emphasis on the close interactive relationship between the speaker and the listener, and between the writer and the reader. The enabling skills are well illustrated and supported with practical exercises.

The authors are lecturers in the Department of English, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife and are all experienced teachers of English for Academic Purposes. Dr. J.H.O. Olowe is the Coordinator of the University's Use of English programme; Dr. C.O. Awonuga is a Senior Lecturer and currently the Head of Department and Mr. T.A. Banji is a Lecturer I in the Department. All three have been directly involved in the Communication Skills Project (COMSKIP) - a programme which was set up by the Nigerian Universities Commission in collaboration with The British Council and the British Overseas Development Agency to fashion out a curriculum for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Nigerian Federal Universities. **COMMUNICATION SKILLS** has been greatly influenced by the author's association with the project.



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COMMUNICATION SKILLS

J.H.O. Olowe
C.O. Awonuga
T.A. Banji



Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife
Series in Educational Studies

Ife Series in Educational Studies

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

**J.H.O. Olowe
C.O. Awonuga
T.A. Banji**

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Preface

Over the years, the use of English course has assumed prominence in the University curriculum in Nigeria. Unfortunately, however, this growth in the importance of the course has not been matched by the publication of useful books on the subject.

It is in order to contribute meaningfully to the filling of the void created by the dearth of books on Use of English that this book has been written. *Communication Skills* is designed as a course in English for academic purposes. It is written primarily to cater for the needs of first-year university students. However, given the wide scope and depth of treatment, students will continue to find the book useful throughout their university education. Even some sections, i.e. on reports, dissertation, long essays, and Unit VIII under writing skill will be of interest to post-graduate students.

The book is divided into three broad parts: section I - Speaking and Listening skills; Section II - Reading skills; and Section III - Writing skills.

The course adopts an integrated approach. Adequate attention has been given to both discoursal and cognitive aspects of the various skills. Also in recognition of the prime role grammar plays in language development, a little attention has been given to some grammatical concepts as a remedial measure in Section III - writing skills - where it is deemed to be mostly needed.

It is hoped that the book will be of immense value to both learners and teachers of English in the Nigerian environment and indeed in any second language situation.

J.H.O. Olowe
C. O. Awonuga
T. A. Banji

1

Speaking and Listening Skills

Part One: Fundamentals

1. Primacy of Speech

Speech is the primary medium of communication. When man first started using language, he first learnt to speak. And when a child first starts to use language, it is the spoken form that he employs. It is later that he starts writing the language. Thus, it can be seen that the written medium is secondary to the spoken form. It is also quite clear that in acquiring speaking and listening skills, it is with the spoken form of English that the student has to contend. It is for this reason that attention is focused on the spoken medium of English in this section of this book.

2. Pronunciation, Stress, Tone of Voice and Intonation

The central factors in spoken English are pronunciation, stress, tone of voice and intonation. The correct pronunciation of words is essential to communication. So also are the correct placing of stress on words, the speaker's tone of voice and the correct use of intonation patterns. We shall not go into details here; it will be neater to discuss these issues in Part Three, when we shall be

considering the nature of the difficulties posed by pronunciation, stress, tone of voice and intonation for the student trying to acquire speaking and listening skills.

3. Language and Situation

Linguists generally recognize that it is not enough just to describe the structure of a language and codify its vocabulary, since "language events do not occur in isolation from other aspects of human behaviour."¹ Thus, linguists know that language is closely related to the situations in which it is used. In this regard, a language form only becomes meaningful when it is used in situation. There are three major dimensions of the use of language in situation. These are: field of discourse, mode or medium of discourse and tenor or style of discourse. Field of discourse has to do with the experience that the speaker is verbalizing. This includes the subject matter of the discourse, that is, what is being talked about. The subject-matter may be specialized — that is, relating to specialist fields, such as science, medicine, technology, etc. — or non-specialized, such as casually exchanging views.

Mode or medium of discourse refers to the form that the discourse takes — whether spoken or written. There are basic differences between speech and writing. In speech, for instance, the speaker enjoys certain liberties which are denied the person using the written medium. The speaker can make false starts, leave a sentence uncompleted, change a sentence midway, and so on. But in the written medium, the language user has to say what he wants to say clearly, because he will not have the opportunity to reframe what he has written.²

Tenor or style of discourse has to do with the interpersonal relationship existing between interlocutors in the discourse situation. Thus, the linguistic choices made by a speaker are determined by the type of relationship existing between the speaker and the listener. For instance, if one's listener is one's peer, the language used will be informal. But if the listener is the speaker's superior, the language used will tend to be formal.

The points made in the last three paragraphs will be developed further in Part Two.

Part Two: Conversation and Spoken Prose

This Part is divided into three Units. These Units are meant to cover most of the situations in which English is used orally by the undergraduate. Unit I deals with conversation or naturally occurring talk in which undergraduates feature as participants. Unit II concentrates on spoken prose, or prose written down to be spoken aloud later. In Unit III, two main situations in which the undergraduate is likely to use English orally and in formal situations are examined to see the type of language that tends to occur in such situations.

Unit I: Conversation

a. Casual, Face-to-Face Interaction among Students

Casual, face-to-face interaction between two or more people usually occurs in informal situations, in which the participants in the discourse can relax and exchange ideas in a tension-free atmosphere. The restrictions inherent in formal situations are absent in informal situations. The participants in the discourse, in informal situations do not have to bother about well-constructed sentences; they are also free to use slang expressions and vulgarisms, both of which are not allowed in formal situations.

Now, there is casual face-to-face interaction among students everyday. Students meet in corridors in their hostels; they meet in the bathroom, in restaurants, in shops, in the classroom, etc. and each time they meet, they exchange pleasantries or establish phatic communion, i.e. the establishment or re-establishment of personal contact. In these situations, they are free from the "tyranny" of the classroom and their teacher. Let us consider the following example of the phenomenon we have been talking about. The venue of the meeting is a road on the campus.

Student A: "Old boy, how now?"

Student B: "Well, ~~not~~ bad. How ~~your~~ body?"

Student A: "No complaint. (Pause) Have you done your assignment?"

- Student B:** "Which one? Babalola?"
- Student A:** "No. Ojo."
- Student B:** "That one? Which time be submission date self?"
- Student A:** "Monday. I haven't even done mine."
- Student B:** "That man self. I can never be a university lecturer"
- Student A:** "Why not? They're important people, you know?"
- Student B:** "Important for where? (Pause) Important indeed!"
I won't ... don't you see how shabbily they are dressed most of the time?"
- Student A:** "Ah, to have a Ph.D is no joke o. But, anybody ... but if ... I mean ... Look at the society itself. What type of people get rich in this type of society? (Pause) Dubious characters, emergency contractors, swindlers. All sorts of people. (Pause) Well ... that's ... Are you going home this weekend?"
- Student B:** "To do what? I went last week."
- Student A:** "Ditto for me. See you later."
- Student B:** Okay.

In this example, three important factors stand out clearly. These are: (a) the use of highly informal language; (b) the occurrence of topic switches; and (c) the pauses and hesitations.

With regard to factor (a), we notice that pidgin English occurs in the discourse, the statements occurring in pidgin English being made by **Student B**: "How your body?" (line 2) and "Which time be submission date self?" (line 7). It is to be noted here that pidgin English is a strong marker of informality in the Nigerian second language situation. It therefore tends not to be used in formal situations. Other examples of informality in the passage in question are to be found at lines 14 and 21. At line 13, for instance, **Student A** says, "Ah, to have a Ph.D is no joke o." What marks this statement out as informal is the use of "o" at the end. This is not the usual English "on"; it is the "o" found in the Yoruba language, which is also present in pidgin English.

b. Face-to-Face Interaction Between Lecturer and Student

Conversation between a lecturer and a student tends, for obvious reasons, not to be as informal as that among students. A student cannot show as much familiarity with a lecturer as he would with a fellow student. This is because the student is expected to show a certain degree of respect for the lecturer, as the lecturer is accepted to be socially and intellectually above the student. Thus, when talking to the lecturer outside the classroom situation, the student has to be conscious of the nature of the interpersonal relationship existing between them. In this regard, it would be considered rude for a student to enter a lecturer's office and say, "Old boy, how now?" The lecturer would definitely send such a student out of his office.

How, then, does the student address his lecturer outside the classroom situation? Consider the following exchange:

- Student** (On entering the lecturer's office): Excuse me, sir.
- Lecturer** (Looking up from what he was writing) Yes.
- Student:** I was wondering if you could spare some time. I have a problem with IED 226 and ... and ... I don't know ...
- Lecturer:** Oh, I see. Look ... okay, what is it that you don't know?
- Student:** If you could explain it to me, sir.
- Lecturer:** What?
- Student:** IED 226
- Lecturer:** The whole course? It cannot ...
- Student:** Em ... Sorry, sir, I mean the writing of biography, sir.
- Lecturer:** I see. Well ... you'll have to come back. I am quite busy now.
- Student:** When ... I mean, what time, sir?

Lecturer: Hm. Okay, tomorrow at 11.

Student: Thank you, sir.

It will easily be noticed that this exchange between lecturer and student is quite different from the exchange between two students, which was discussed in the last section. The most important difference is that the markers of informality, which are present in the former passage are absent in the latter. For instance, the use of pidgin English is absent from the exchange just reproduced above. One implication of this observation is that in this face-to-face interaction between lecturer and student, a certain degree of formality is maintained. The reason for this is that the interpersonal relationship existing between the two participants in the discourse is not based on equality: it is generally accepted that the lecturer is the student's superior. That is why, in the exchange in question, the student addresses the lecturer as "sir". He cannot address him as "mate" or "my friend"; the inequality in status has to be reflected in the language used.

Even when the student meets the lecturer outside the latter's office, he still has to recognise the fact that the situation remains a semi-informal one. The lecturer may joke with the student, but he (lecturer) knows that the student is junior to him in status; the student knows it, too. It does not matter if the student is older than the lecturer; he still has to show deference for the lecturer.

It is important to note how to start a discussion with a lecturer outside the lecture room or the lecture theatre. Notice that our student in the exchange above does not say "I want you to explain something to me." Instead, he starts on a polite and cautious note! "Excuse me, sir." "I want you to explain ..." Is not only impolite; it also betrays a lack of style in the use of language. For, it is one thing to know how to form grammatically correct sentences in English; it is another thing entirely to know the situations in which to use such sentences.

It is also to be noted that throughout the passage in question, the student's awareness that the other participant in the discourse situation — the lecturer — is in a socially and academically superior position to him, is constantly manifested in the language that he

uses. If, at any time during the discussion, the student's use of language does not conform to the linguistic reality of the situation, the lecturer may feel angry and terminate the discussion. But it does and the exchange succeeds — i. e. goes on smoothly to the satisfaction of both participants.

c. Face-to-Face Interaction Between Administrator and Student

We have seen how students interact with one another, and how lecturers interact with students outside the classroom situation. Now, we come to face-to-face interaction between administrator and student at different levels within the university community. This last form of interaction will be discussed in terms of face-to-face interaction between administrator and student

- (i) in the library
- (ii) in halls of residence, and
- (iii) in university offices.

With regard to (i), the university student interacts with different grades of officers and workers in the library. The workers that he deals with most are the clerks that attend to library users over counters. He also interacts a great deal with the clerks in charge of journals. All these are likely to be junior workers in the library. But the student also needs to interact with the circulation librarian and the reference librarian from time to time. These are senior staff in the library. So, the student interacts with both junior and senior staff in the library. How, then, does he interact with the two groups of workers?

In view of the fact that the situation in the library is formal, there cannot be any fundamental difference in the way that the student interacts with junior and senior staff in the library. The main difference is in the degree of respect shown to the two groups: the senior staff are respected more, because the student himself realizes that they are senior staff.

Similarly, face-to-face interaction between administrator and student in halls of residence and in university offices is also marked

by formality. The student realizes that he cannot address these officials in the same way that he talks to his friends outside the classroom. So, he has to tailor his language to fit the situation in which he finds himself.

Unit II: Spoken Prose

There are certain fundamental differences between conversation and spoken prose. It is essential for the student to be aware of these differences if his use of English is to be acceptable. But before we go on to discuss these differences, let us first see the types of language events that come under the heading, "Spoken Prose." Some of these language events are:

- (i) giving a lecture
- (ii) reading a news bulletin on the radio or on television
- (iii) dialogue in a play
- (iv) giving a speech on a formal occasion (as opposed to giving an impromptu speech), etc.

All these language events contrast with conversation in the following ways.

Conversation is spontaneous speech. As a result, it tends to be illogical, disorganized, and ungrammatical. In conversation, people get irritable or lose their temper, get mixed up "while they are speaking, forget what they wanted to say, hesitate, make grammatical mistakes, argue erratically or illogically, use words vaguely, get interrupted, talk at the same time, switch speech styles, manipulate the rules of the language to suit themselves, or fail to understand.³

One implication of the observation above is that the tempo of conversation is jerky. In spoken prose, however, the tempo is even. This means that the intonation patterns of spoken prose are highly standardized as compared with those of conversation.

Also, conversation is characterized by pauses, as we saw in the passages illustrating face-to-face interaction among students and face-to-face interaction between teacher and student. Pauses in conversation tend to occur at unpredictable places in the discourse.⁴ But in spoken prose, pauses tend to coincide with the end of a

sentence — typically marked by a full stop.

Furthermore, silence is quite important in conversation. Silence here is not to be confused with pauses. Pauses frequently come between two words in close grammatical connection. But long stretches of silence can occur in conversation between contributions of the participants in the discourse situation. During these periods of silence, the conversation continues, but mainly through gestures and facial expression. There is, however, nothing in spoken prose to compare with the silence that is noticeable in conversation.

In addition, stammers and errors of articulation are quite common in conversation. But these are rare in spoken prose, and conspicuous when they occur.

Having discussed some of the major differences between conversation and spoken prose, we shall now consider four examples of spoken prose. These are:

- a. Address by university officials, such as the Vice-Chancellor, to students
- b. lectures;
- c. radio and television news; and
- d. dialogue in plays.

Of these four sub-headings, examples of two will be provided for discussion. These are (i) lectures and (ii) dialogue in plays.

(i) Lectures

Lectures, as we know, are usually given in lecture rooms or auditoriums. Although lectures are given in and outside the classroom, it is with lectures in classrooms in universities that we are concerned here. Below is a sample of a lecture in the university.

Introduction to Linguistic Stylistics

In this lecture, I shall distinguish among general stylistics, literary stylistics and linguistic stylistics. I shall then examine the way in which linguistic stylistics works in practice with regard to the study of poetry and prose fiction.

The term "stylistics" is a very broad one. For this reason, it is

necessary to be quite specific in one's use of it at all times. In view of this factor, I shall now clarify the sense in which I am using the term in this and subsequent lectures.

Basically, general stylistics, literary stylistics and linguistic stylistics have to do with the study of style. But while general stylistics refers to the study of non-literary style, both literary stylistics and linguistic stylistics have to do with the study of literary style.

General stylistics, then, is the study of the uses to which the language user puts language. Use, however, necessarily implies style. From the linguistic point of view, style in the non-literary sense has to do with the cultivation on the part of the language user, of "appropriate linguistic 'manners' for the different types of situation in which language is used".² In other words, the notion of style in the way it is being used at this point in this lecture is essentially concerned with the manner in which language is used to mean: it only becomes meaningful when used in situation. This means that fluency in a language does not simply involve the user's cognitive knowledge of the various formal meaning relations that exist in that language. It means rather that fluency in a language depends more on the user's ability to match those formal patterns with extra-linguistic contexts or situations, that is, his ability to select the appropriate linguistic patterns to use in particular situations.

Thus, a language user has to know how to construct grammatically correct sentences in the language in question. At the same time, however, he must be able to use these sentences appropriately in different situations to "achieve a communicative purpose".⁶ In other words, while he has to be able to produce correct sentences in a language, a language user should also be aware of the constraints imposed on his use of those sentences by the principle of appropriacy if he wants to be intelligible. In order to be able to do this, then, the language user must have a sense of style. Style and meaning are therefore correlated.

At this point in this lecture, I shall talk about literary stylistics and linguistic stylistics. Literary stylistics refers to the study of literary style. This means that any study of literary style, no matter

the approach made use of, qualifies as literary stylistics. Thus, literary criticism is an aspect of literary stylistics. Another aspect of literary stylistics is the study of the literary text mainly from the perspective of linguistics. By this, we mean that this approach studies the language of the literary text in a linguistically disciplined manner. The approach being described here is known as linguistic stylistics ...

* * *

For obvious reasons, the entire lecture cannot be reproduced here, but the part set out is quite adequate for the point being made in this section of this Unit: that lectures in the classroom are a formal affair and that this fact is reflected in the language used in them. The hesitations, pauses, use of ungrammatical sentences, etc., which are quite common in conversation, are conspicuously absent in lectures. The sentences in lectures and the way in which such sentences relate to one another have been carefully thought about before they were written down. It is in the sense discussed above that lectures constitute an example of spoken prose.

ii. Dialogue in Plays

The second example of spoken prose that will be considered in this Unit is that provided by dialogue in plays. Here is a specimen dialogue from a play, *The Trials of Brother Jero*, by Wole Soyinka:

The Trials of Brother Jero

Jero: Indeed, it must be a trial, Brother Chume ... and it requires great ...

He becomes suddenly suspicious.

Brother Chume, did you say that your wife went to make camp only this morning at the house of a ... of someone who owes her money?

Chume: Yes, I took her there myself.

Jero: Er ... indeed, indeed. (*Coughs*) Is ... your wife a trader?

Chume: Yes, petty trading, you know. Wool, silk, cloth and all

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Brother Chume, did you say that your wife went to make camp only this morning at the house of a ... of someone who owes her money?

Chume: Yes, I took her there myself.

Jero: Er ... indeed, indeed. (*Coughs*) Is ... your wife a trader?

Chume: Yes, petty trading, you know. Wool, silk, cloth and all

that stuff.

Jero: Indeed. Quite an enterprising woman. (*Hems.*) Er ... where was the house of this man ... I mean, this man who owes her money?

Chume: Not very far from here. Ajete settlement, a mile or so from here. I did not even know the place existed until today.

Jero: (*to himself*). So that is your wife ...

Chume: Did you speak, Prophet?

Jero: No, no. I was only thinking how little women have changed since Eve, since Delilah, since Jezebel. But we must be strong of heart. I have my own cross too, Brother Chume. This morning alone I have been thrice in conflict with the daughters of discord. First there was ... no, never mind that. There is another who crosses my path every day. Goes to swim just over there and then waits for me to be in the midst of my meditation before she swings her hips across here, flaunting her near nakedness before my eyes ...

Chume: (*to himself with deep feeling*). I'd willingly change crosses with you.

Jero: What, Brother Chume?

Chume: I was only praying.

Jero: Ah. That is the only way. But er ... I wonder really what the will of God would be in this matter. After all, Christ himself was not averse to using the whip when occasion demanded it.

Chume: (*eagerly*). No, he did not hesitate.

Jero: In that case, since, Brother Chume, your wife seems such a wicked, wilful sinner, I think ...

Chume: Yes, Holy One ...?

Jero: You must take her home tonight ...

Chume: Yes ...

Jero: And beat her.

Chume: (*kneeling, clasps Jero's hand in his*): Prophet!

Jero: Remember, it must be done in your own house. Never show the discord within your family to the world. Take her home and beat her.

Chume *leaps up and gets his bike*

In this extract also, it can be seen that the sentences are well constructed. This factor marks it out as an example of spoken prose. A playwright decides to write a play, takes out pen and paper, creates characters and puts words and sentences — well-constructed sentences — in their mouths. The characters thus say, on stage, what has been carefully prepared for them to say.

At the same time, however, playwrights try as much as possible to incorporate features of conversation into the dialogue in their plays. In the extract reproduced above, for instance, we have pauses, hesitations, change of sentence mid-way and incomplete sentences. These factors are exemplified as follows:

Pauses

- (a) **Jero:** Er ... indeed, indeed. (*Coughs.*) Is ... your wife a trader?
- (b) **Jero:** But er ... I wonder really what the will of God would be in this matter.

The pauses are indicated by the dots.

Hesitation

Jero: Brother Chume, did you say that your wife went to make camp only this morning at the house of a ... of someone who owes her money?

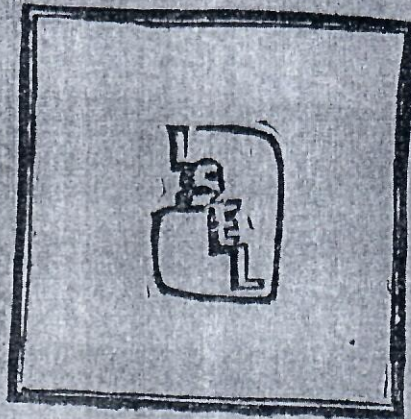
Here, the hesitation is noticeable in "the house of a ... of someone". There is a break after the indefinite article "a" and the sentence resumes with the repetition of the preposition "of".

AKIHWALE

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SEQUENCING IN THE BODY OF INFORMAL YORUBA-ENGLISH LETTER-
TEXTS: SOME SOCIOCULTURAL
INDICES

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Key to Abbreviations

EMT:	English as Mother Tongue
OED:	Oxford English Dictionary
PI:	Primary Information
SI:	Secondary Information
SM:	Subject Matter
YE:	Yoruba-English
YMT:	Yoruba as Mother Tongue

Introduction

This study is an attempt to highlight some effects of the Yoruba socioculture on sequencing in informal English letter-texts. OED defines discourse as "a spoken or written treatment of a subject, in which it is handled or discussed at length". More relevant to the focus of this paper is Coulthard's (1977) view of discourse analysis as having as one of its fundamental aims the task of discovering "rules for the production of coherent discourse." He asserts that the structure and presentation of the units in a discourse are described by sequence. In this study, we wish to assert further that such sequencing rules could be sociocultural.

Discourse organisation involves, in the main, the treatment of a subject-matter where sequence plays a vital role in highlighting such a subject-matter. Furthermore, discourse can be verbal or written but this study is a focus on the written mode.

Data Base and Research Methodology

The letter-texts which constitute our data for the study were written by twenty secondary school pupils in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Our choice of the writers was based on the following considerations: they have Yoruba sociocultural background; they have Yoruba as their mother tongue; they have English as the main medium of learning; they have had at least four years of contact with the English language, especially at the secondary school level.

The writers, in a classroom situation, were instructed to write a letter, based on the following instruction:

Write a letter to your friend's older sister, asking after the health of your friend who is yet to resume schooling after an attack of malaria fever.

The twenty letter texts have been analysed with the aim of highlighting the vital role played by sequence in discourse organisation and the attendant identification of some Yoruba sociocultural indices in our data.

Discourse Organisation in Informal EMT and YMT Letter-Texts

Organisation of discourse in the informal EMT letter-texts depicts sequence as making the subject-matter of a letter-text occur first, thus making the information on the subject-matter prominent. The following illustrates this observation:

Write a letter to your friend's older sister, asking after the health of your friend who is yet to resume schooling after an attack of malaria fever.

The twenty letter texts have been analysed with the aim of highlighting the vital role played by sequence in discourse organisation and the attendant identification of some Yoruba sociocultural indices in our data.

The letter-texts which constitute our data for the study were written by twenty secondary school pupils in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Our choice of the writers was based on the following considerations: they have Yoruba sociocultural background; they have Yoruba as their mother tongue; they have English as the main medium of learning; they have had at least four years of contact with the English language, especially at the secondary school level.

"Just a brief note to say that I asked my head of department to send you an invitation as you requested..."

"I am sorry this is just a brief note but I am still snowed-out with marking and general administration."

"All best wishes".

Sequence in the above extract shows that the writer gives prominence to the subject matter which is that of asking the addressee to be invited. This comes in the first paragraph of the letter and constitutes what can be described as primary information. The second paragraph provides secondary information which merely explains why the letter is brief. The third paragraph is a brief compliment or greeting.

On the other hand, in the informal YMT letter-text sequence makes what is considered as secondary information occur first, as in the following extract.

Mo ki nyin l'oruko Jesu Oluwa... Se ise yin nlo dede? Oluwa yio fun yin ni igbega l'ona gbogbo.

Pataki oro mi ni lati dupe fun gbogbo inawo nara yin l'ori awon omo yin ti o wa l'odo yin papa julo lori Remi. Oluwa yio ma bu kun apo yin... best wishes".

The above is translated as follows:

Greetings in the name of Jesus, the Lord...
How is your work?... May God grant you progress in all ways.

On the other hand, in the informal YMT letter-text sequence makes what is considered as secondary information occur first, as in the following extract.

"Just a brief note to say that I asked my head of department to send you an invitation as you requested..."

"I am sorry this is just a brief note but I am still snowed-out with marking and general administration."

"All best wishes".

My main reason for writing is to thank you for your financial and physical support for the wards under your care, most especially Remi. May God bless you...

This example exhibits delayed presentation of the subject matter which is to thank the addressee for some wards in his care. The first paragraph of the letter is full of greetings and prayers. Thus, sequentially, greetings is given prominence because within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are not mere use of phatic communion just to ensure good relations. Within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are normally employed as a prelude to effective communication. They are made to perform more expressive functions as some sort of 'cushion' to what message(s) follow(s). We assert that though speakers of English as mother tongue (EMT) and Yoruba-English (YE) use greetings to ensure social cohesion, YE speakers, guided by Yoruba sociocultural demands as obtains in their YMT usage make greetings play a more communicative role. Thus, within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are no mere formality.

My main reason for writing is to thank you for your financial and physical support for the wards under your care, most especially Remi. May God bless you...

Discussion of Data

The discussion of the data for this study shows the use to which sequence in discourse organisation has been put in the twenty letter-texts which constitute the data. The following terms have been used in this study to indicate differences in sequence:

(a) Sequence in informal EMT letter-text:

Primary information subject matter + secondary information
PI /sm/ + SI

(b) Sequence in informal YE letter-text:

Secondary information + primary information subject matter
SI + PI /sm/

My main reason for writing is to thank you for your financial and physical support for the wards under your care, most especially Remi. May God bless you...

Discussion of Data

This example exhibits delayed presentation of the subject matter which is to thank the addressee for some wards in his care. The first paragraph of the letter is full of greetings and prayers. Thus, sequentially, greetings is given prominence because within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are not mere use of phatic communion just to ensure good relations. Within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are normally employed as a prelude to effective communication. They are made to perform more expressive functions as some sort of 'cushion' to what message(s) follow(s). We assert that though speakers of English as mother tongue (EMT) and Yoruba-English (YE) use greetings to ensure social cohesion, YE speakers, guided by Yoruba sociocultural demands as obtains in their YMT usage make greetings play a more communicative role. Thus, within the Yoruba socioculture, greetings are no mere formality.

(a) Sequence in informal EMT letter-text:

Primary information subject matter + secondary information
PI /sm/ + SI

(b) Sequence in informal YE letter-text:

Secondary information + primary information subject matter
SI + PI /sm/

Our discussion of the data for this study will focus on the placement of the subject matter in the letters written by each of the twenty writers who have been asked to ask after the condition of an ill schoolmate. This focusing will enable us to determine which part of the data is EMT or YE with regard to sequence. The letter-texts have been numbered one to twenty. First, we shall make a sample comparison of two of the letters. Then, we shall present the rest in a tabular form. The data has been placed in two categories: letter-texts that exhibit either EMT or YE discourse structure.

We shall now discuss the following extracts from two of the texts:

From letter five, we have the following:

"It takes much pleasure to write this letter to you. How is your work? I think everything is going well."

"The purpose of this letter is to tell you about my friend who has been sick of malaria".

Our discussion of the data for this study will focus on the placement of the subject matter in the letters written by each of the twenty writers who have been asked to ask after the condition of an ill schoolmate. This focusing will enable us to determine which part of the data is EMT or YE with regard to sequence. The letter-texts have been numbered one to twenty. First, we shall make a sample comparison of two of the letters. Then, we shall present the rest in a tabular form. The data has been placed in two categories: letter-texts that exhibit either EMT or YE discourse structure.

From letter seventeen, we have:

"You will please forgive me for not communicating you to ask after the health of my friend. How is she now?"

"How is your work and everything generally?"

These two extracts show sequencing differences with regard to what is supposed to be the subject-matter, that is, asking after the condition of someone ill. In the first extract, what we consider to be secondary to the subject matter occurs first, sequentially. For instance, we have the writer asking to know about the addressee's work and condition before going on to the subject matter. But, in the second extract, the subject matter is treated first as the writer asks to be pardoned for not writing to ask after his friend's

"The purpose of this letter is to tell you about my friend who has been sick of malaria".

Our discussion of the data for this study will focus on the placement of the subject matter in the letters written by each of the twenty writers who have been asked to ask after the condition of an ill schoolmate. This focusing will enable us to determine which part of the data is EMT or YE with regard to sequence. The letter-texts have been numbered one to twenty. First, we shall make a sample comparison of two of the letters. Then, we shall present the rest in a tabular form. The data has been placed in two categories: letter-texts that exhibit either EMT or YE discourse structure.

health. Thus, going by our earlier discussion of sequencing in informal EMT and YE letter-texts, the two extracts above show that letter five is YE while seventeen is EMT. The EMT sequence is reflected in a text which follows the PI + SI mode while the YE sequence is shown in that which reflects the SI + PI mode even when the language used is English. Table A below shows extracts from seven of the letter-texts which have been analysed as having the PI + SI mode of sequencing:

Table A: Sequencing in Informal Letter-Texts that
Reflect EMT Usage: PI + SI

EXTRACT	PRIMARY INFORMATION	SECONDARY INFORMATION
1.	The other day, I received Sola's letter I was very unhappy because I did not expect that type of letter that Sola was not well.	...Tell Sola that I say compliments of the season to her.
6.	It came to my surprise when I was told by one of my friends living at your area that Toyin was ill but now feels better.	How are your babies? I heard that your husband had travelled to Lagos.
8.	I am very happy to write this letter to you about the sickness of Sola.	How is your work? I think that everything is going on well?
13.	I was very surprised when Funke told me about the sickness of Sola.	How are your children...?
14.	I am very sorry to write this letter to you.	Please don't be annoyed that you didn't receive my letter before now.
16.	It was yesterday I heard that Sola is having malaria and had been admitted to the General Hospital.	Be expecting me at your house today.
20.	Is Biola getting better?	Aunt, how are your husband and children, especially little Dayo...?

The table shows that in sequencing information, the writers make the subject matter occur first. This mode makes the subject matter outstanding. All the extracts showing primary information occur early in the texts while those containing secondary information occur towards the end.

Table 2, below, shows extracts that have been analysed as displaying the SI + PI mode.

Table B: Sequencing In Informal Letter-Texts That Reflect Yoruba-English Sequence: SI + FI

EXTRACT	SECONDARY INFORMATION	PRIMARY INFORMATION
2.	Hello my dear sister. How is everything generally? Hope there is nothing?	Back to my point, the purpose of my letter was to ask about the sickness of my friend...
3.	I'm seizing this opportunity to write this letter to you.	The significance of my writing this letter is to know about your health over there.
4.	With great gratitude; humility and respect, I am writing this letter to you. How is your study? I think everything is going on smoothly.	The purpose of writing this letter to you is about the illness of my friend, Sade.
7.	Compliments of the season to you. How is your condition and I feel you are fine.	The purpose of writing this letter is to know how my friend is faring in the hospital.
9.	I am very happy to send you these few lines. How are you and your studies?	My aim of writing you this missive is to ask you about the illness of your sister.
10.	I am very grateful to write this letter to you. Hope you are in good condition of health?	The most important reason for writing this letter to you is just to ask about the condition of my friend who has been ill of malaria.

Summary of Tables A and B

Table A:- In sequencing the body of their letters, the writers made the subject-matter of their letters come first. They gave no primary importance to secondary matters which bordered largely on greetings and matters irrelevant to the subject matter. Thus, the subject matter is made prominent through sequencing. The extracts which show primary information PI or convey the subject matter occur first in the letters while those that carry secondary information SI occur much later.

Table B:- The extracts on the table reflect a YE mode of sequencing. It can be observed from the extracts that sequentially, secondary information SI occurs first while primary information PI follows.

The following discussion of three of the extracts which display the YE sequence further highlights some Yoruba sociocultural indices in sequencing, which is our focus in this study:

Extract 2:- In this extract, we have:

"Hello my dear sister. How is everything generally? Hope there is nothing...?"

This part of the extract shows the writer's attempt to display interest in every aspect of the addressee's situation and not just the case of the indisposed school-mate, hence the use of "everything".

Also, the writer did not address the subject matter of her letter first. She later remarked:

"Back to my point, the purpose of my letter was to ask about the sickness of my friend..."

The following discussion of three of the extracts which display the YE sequence further highlights some Yoruba sociocultural indices in sequencing, which is our focus in this study:

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This part of the extract shows the writer's attempt to display interest in every aspect of the addressee's situation and not just the case of the indisposed school-mate, hence the use of "everything".

Also, the writer did not address the subject matter of her letter first. She later remarked:

The import of this part of the letter is that what had been made to occur first in the letter was not part of "the purpose" of the letter. For instance, even when the writer knew her schoolmate was ill, she still went on to ask: "Hope there is nothing?" This question was not, we observe, directed at eliciting an already obvious answer. Moreover, the use of "Back to my point..." is inappropriate because nothing had been said earlier about the "point" which was "the purpose" of the letter. The Yoruba sociocultural index of employing copious greetings and irrelevant but well-meaning questions as a vehicle to adequately or expressively make for the display of feelings about particular situations is shown in the extract.

Extract 3:- "I'm seizing this opportunity to write this letter to you. How is your work?"

Here, the writer did not address herself directly to the primary purpose of the letter. Indeed, she saw the situation as an opportunity to make up for something hitherto left undone, hence "...seizing this opportunity to write." For the writer of this extract, the EMT usage of PI + SI might sound too less identifying with the addressee's condition of one with the burden of caring for an indisposed relation. Our observation here is based on the writer's information or message sequence which is SI + PI.

Extract 7:- "Compliments of the season to you and your family. How is your condition and I feel you are fine."

The writer, instead of addressing the purpose of the letter, was sending "compliments of the season" and asking about the addressee's condition. All this had no relevance to the state of the indisposed schoolmate. Therefore, the form of greeting: "compliments of the season" in this case is, in EMT, inappropriate as it shows a mere use of greetings as a preamble to a subject-matter. The use of the form of greetings here is an index of the Yoruba socioculture. An appropriate EMT

form in this situation is one that expresses wishes for a state of improved health for the indisposed schoolmate.

Conclusion

In this study, we have examined some Yoruba sociocultural traits exhibited in some informal English letter-texts. The study has led to the following inferences:

First, the eight extracts which constitute 40% of our data are deviant from the Yoruba sociocultural viewpoint. However, in EMT, the extracts are acceptable because the nature of sequence in their organisation of discourse exhibits what is found in standard English usage. We therefore conclude that the writers of the eight extracts should be passed as co-ordinate bilinguals in respect of discourse-organisation or sequencing in informal English letter-texts. We base our conclusion on the fact that even though the writers are Yoruba secondary school pupils featuring in a Yoruba first language sociocultural setting, they still exhibit what is found in standard or EMT usage. They should be considered as having been acculturated into EMT practice of not using copious greetings or enquiries as preambles to a subject matter.

Second, the twelve extracts which constitute 60% of our data are instances of the Yoruba sociocultural practice of using elaborate greetings and enquiries as a prelude to a main purpose. Instances of this observation of the use to which the Yoruba put greetings abound during Yoruba marriage introduction and engagement ceremonies which are, however, outside the scope of this study. The writers of the twelve extracts should be passed as compound bilinguals who have used the English language to express an important aspect of the Yoruba socioculture and not what features in standard English usage. We therefore recommend that the Yoruba

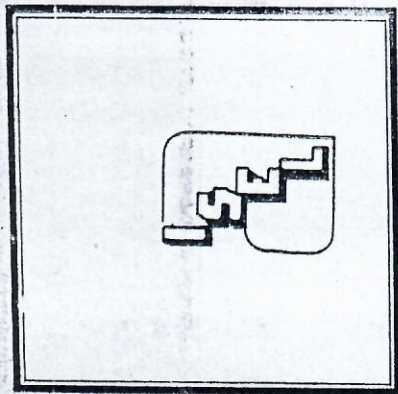
sociocultural practice observed in the extracts be considered and accepted as a feature of standard Yoruba-English (YE) particularly in informal English letter-texts.

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SOME FEATURES OF SALUTATION IN THE YESL INFORMAL LETTER-TEXT

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Introduction

The English language has been undergoing a lot of changes, such as have been occasioned by differences in culture, religion, education (both formal and informal), economic, political activities as well as social interactions. This paper aims at examining in some details the influence of the Yoruba language as mother tongue [Yoruba as Mother Tongue (YMT)] on English as reflected in a form of informal social interaction, namely, letter-writing. However, the paper focuses on one of the several aspects of the informal letter-text: salutation.

The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) (1971) defines salutation as an act of saluting; a manner of saluting; an utterance, form of words by which one salutes another. More specifically, the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English: International Student Edition (1978) defines it as an expression of greeting, using words such as 'Dear Sir' at the beginning a letter.

Salutation, within the Yoruba socioculture performs much more expressive functions than that of merely cementing phatic communion. Age, one of the main parameters of achieving a status on the Yoruba social ladder, is of paramount importance in the choice of appropriate kinship terminologies to depict appropriate statuses and the attendant honorific values attached to such statuses on the ladder. The expressive functions of salutation within the Yoruba socioculture are highlighted in this paper. Thus, the paper does not examine greetings in Yoruba, in general. Rather it is an attempt to go beyond limited earlier works which have not examined salutation, an aspect of greetings, with particular reference to the informal Yoruba English as a Second Language (YESL) letter-text. See Fadipe (1970), Ayoola (1984), and Akindele (1987).

The aims of this paper are, in effect, to identify salutation forms which are products of the influence of the Yoruba socioculture on English, and to proffer suggestions on the need to tailor the learning and use of English as a second language along the demands of the Yoruba socioculture.

Data Base

The letter-texts which constitute our data for this study were written by twenty secondary school pupils in Ile-Ife, Oyo State, Nigeria. We used the following

criteria in deciding on our choice of the twenty letter-texts: The writers are from a predominantly Yoruba speaking area and they have English as a major medium of learning at school. Moreover, they are fifth formers, who, by virtue of their having been exposed to the English language both as a medium of instruction and a subject are considered appropriate for our study. Also they had been introduced to the language right at the elementary or primary school stage. At that stage, each of them spent approximately five years of having at least minimal contact with the language, especially in the classroom while learning, for example, Arithmetic or learning to spell or write English words. At the secondary school level, they have had further and deeper exposure to the language for at least four years. Now, as fifth-formers, they are more appropriately described as Yoruba-English bilinguals who could be used as our subjects for the present study. In addition, there is no form of blood relationship between the writers and the addressee. The addressee is an older sister to a schoolmate of theirs.

The twenty letters were written in the classroom, based on the following instructions:

Write a letter to your friend's older sister, asking after the health of your friend who is yet to resume schooling after an attack of malaria fever.

In this paper, the letters which constitute our data are coded as Yoruba English as a Second Language (YESL) letter-texts.

An Overview of Salutation in English Letter-Texts

At this juncture, salutation in English as Mother Tongue (EMT) and YMT (and resultantly, YESL) letter-texts will be discussed briefly. Such a discussion would enable us determine the closeness of our data to EMT or YESL.

Salutation in EMT letter-Texts

For the EMT letter-text, there are two main forms, the formal and the informal. However, we need to mention that these forms are not peculiar to EMT letter-texts. The formal follows accepted rules which demand business-like approach to the writing of a letter. This approach is evident in the format of the letter as regards contact addresses, mode of salutation at the beginning of the letter, title to the letter, the body of the letter and the subscript. Usually, the absence of pleasantries is noticeable in a formal letter. For example, the tone and form of a formal letter should be adhered to, even when writing to a close relation who occupies a formal position. To illustrate this point, in applying for a job in a firm owned by an applicant's father, the applicant is expected to direct his application to the Personnel Manager and not to his father,

even if the father is the personnel manager. The following letter text illustrates our point further:

1, Modupe Avenue,
Lagos.

18th May, 1986

The Personnel Manager,
Tomboy Enterprises,
P.O. Box Box 90,
Akure.

Dear Sir,

Application for the post of Technical Adviser

I hereby apply for the post of Technical Adviser in your organisation.

I should be most appreciative of your favourable reply.

Attached are copies of my credentials and curriculum vitae.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

(sgd)

T.A. Johnson (Mr)

The above letter is formal, considering the two contact addresses, mode of salutation (Dear Sir), the title to the letter, the frame of the body, the subscription (Yours faithfully), the applicant's signature, initials and surname. However, an informal letter is usually very personal. There is usually a display of familiarity or informality in the tone and format of the text. Thus, the for-

mat is very relaxed. Pleasantries are freely introduced into the text as illustrated by the following example:

33 Femi Street,
Sogunle,
Ikeja.

29th August, 1988.

Dear Bukola,

How are you? I believe you are doing fine at your place of work. I believe Dad and Mum are also doing fine.

May I seize this opportunity to inform you of my intention to attend the next meeting of our family which has been slated for the first of next month. I look forward to a happy reunion with every member of the family.

Please, do extend my warmest regards to every one at home.

Good bye.

Yours,
Ayoolu.

The above letter-text shows the degree of freedom associated with informal letter-texts. Notable are the mode of salutation where the addressee's first name is used, the absence of a title to the letter, the writer asking to know how the addressee is faring, the writer sending his regards to "every one at home", the subscript (Yours), and the writer's first name.

Salutation in YMT and YESL Letter-Texts

The earliest collection of Yoruba words in print dates only from 1819 (Hair, 1967). Thus, the Yoruba language, in letter-writing, is a relatively new medium of expression. When Yoruba was reduced into writing, English was largely the model adopted particularly in text-formation. As a result, Yoruba as mother tongue (YMT) letter-texts have similar formats as YESL letter-texts which are an off-shoot of EMT letter-texts. The following are some forms of salutation in YMT and YESL letter-texts:

YMT

- A. Sisita/Anti/Egbon mi Kemi
- B. Buroda/Egbon mi Mayowa
- C. Sisita/Anti/Egbon mi owon

EQUIVALENTS IN YESL

- Sister/Aunt/Auntie Kemi
- Brother Mayowa
- My dear Sister/Aunt/Auntie

The above examples do not signify that there are no distinctions between salutation in EMT and YMT, especially as regards the use of kinship terminologies. For instance, *Buroda*, *Sisita*, and *Anti* are loan-words from English and they, sometimes, connote different meanings when compared to their EMT equivalents. For example, the semantic content of *Buroda* may be different from that of *Brother* in EMT and be similar to that of *Brother* in YESL in that *Brother* in YESL may not connote blood relationship while it may connote it in EMT. The similarity between salutation in EMT and YMT or YESL is, therefore, not necessarily concerned with the content or modes of salutation but with the format of the modes. This observation could be explained further by stating that salutation in informal YESL letter-text, as it does in YMT, considers age or social status as a deciding factor in the use of forms of salutations. It is pertinent to note that in the Yoruba socioculture, it is considered impolite to address an older acquaintance by name. This phenomenon of the Yoruba socioculture is amply displayed in interpersonal relationships among the Yoruba. (See Afolayan, 1974). The importance accorded to age or social status is exemplified by the YMT and YESL modes used in A, B, and C in the table above. Unlike what occurs in EMT, the use of the YMT modes of *Sisita/Anti/Egbon Kemi*, translated *Sister/Aunt/Auntie Kemi* in YESL, does not necessarily connote any form of blood relationship between the writer and the addressee. It simply signifies deference to the addressee as an older acquaintance.

Dear is another lexical item that may signify different interpretations when used in YESL and EMT informal letter-texts. For instance, in EMT, this lexical item does not always connote *dearness* while in YESL, it may be used in a way that makes it perform a much more expressive function than that of merely sustaining phatic communion. A Yoruba lexical item, *owon*, is normally used by the Yoruba to convey a felt sense of closeness, empathy, love and loss. Thus, the use of *dear* as an equivalent of *owon* in a YESL letter-text does not only emphasise the fact that modes of salutation in YESL informal letter-texts go beyond phatic communion; it also emphasises the relative novelty of Yoruba letter-texts or written communication when compared to what obtains in EMT. Thus, English is simply used to express feelings in YESL modes of salutation. In essence, *dear* in the YESL letter-text may be used as a mere substitute for *owon* because *owon* is rarely used in Yoruba spoken or written communication unless a situation really calls for its use for a more expressive display of feelings.

Discussion of Data

The twenty letter-texts which constitute our data have been grouped on the basis of the various forms of salutation found in them. Thus, the following six forms of salutation have been identified:

- 4.1 Dear + addressee's first name;
- 4.2 Dear + Sister;

- 4.3 Dear + Sister + addressee's first name;
- 4.4 Hello + Sister;
- 4.5 Sister + addressee's first name; and
- 4.6 Dear + Aunt + addressee's first name.

We shall now examine the six forms (4.1 to 4.6) so as to determine the closeness, or otherwise, of each of the forms to EMT or YESL.

4.1 Dear + addressee's first name

This form of salutation is used by one (5%) of the writers. The form is EMT in content. It shows that the addressee's first name is used by the writer who is a younger acquaintance of the addressee. It indicates the EMT practice of not displaying politeness through the use of kinship terminologies. Thus, the writer here does not have to use *sister*, *aunt* or *auntie* to indicate respect or politeness in relating to the addressee.

4.2 Dear + Sister

This form is found in eleven (55%) of the letter-texts. It is the form which is most pervasive in our data. We are of the view that the writers' use of this form is indicative of the Yoruba sociocultural norm of not addressing an older acquaintance by name. Thus, instead of sounding socio-culturally deviant by using the addressee's name, the writers have opted for *Sister*, a common noun which use portrays the writers as not only identifying themselves with the addressee (whom they have called a sister) but also as respectful younger acquaintances of hers.

4.3 Dear + Sister + addressee's first name

This is a mode of salutation used by three (15%) of the writers. One could observe here that this form is slightly different from the form in 4.2 above. The difference is the addition of the addressee's first name. However, it is easily observed that the writers have not deviated from what is demanded of them by their Yoruba socioculture; the addressee's name is not used without an accompanying kinship term, *sister*, which makes the writers sound polite and respectful in addressing an older acquaintance.

4.4 Hello + Sister

This form is used by one (5%) of the writers. It falls within a slightly different analysis when compared to the others. In EMT, the lexical item "Hello" is normally used in conversation; it is not considered an appropriate term to use in letter-writing as a form of salutation. It is somewhat exclamatory in tone, when appropriately used. The writer here has used it along with *sister*, making the two constitute a queer form of salutation in a letter-text.

However, the inappropriate use of *Hello* in this context could be attributed more to imperfect learning than to its use as an element of YESL. The writer seems oblivious of the semantic import of the word and the function it is

expected to perform as well as the situation or context in which it can feature appropriately. If its use is viewed more from the YESL perspective, we hold the view that the writer seems to have used it as an equivalent of *E pele o, sisita*, an empathising greeting in Yoruba conversational interaction. Also, the use of *sister* in this form emphasises the earlier stated observation that it is being used as an element of the Yoruba socioculture which demands respect for an older acquaintance.

4.5 Sister + addressee's first name

This form has been used by two (10%) of the writers. Just as observed in 4.3 above, the writers have merely avoided a direct mention of the addressee's name which they are not socioculturally encouraged to use because of her seniority in age. The only difference between forms 4.3 and 4.5 is the use of *Dear* in 4.3. The use of *Dear* is discussed in 5.3, below.

4.6 Dear + Aunt + addressee's first name

This mode has been used by one (5%) of the writers. The use of *Aunt* here does not conform with its concept in EMT. First, it has been used in addressing one not related by blood. Like we have observed above, in the use to which *sister* has been put, the writer has merely avoided addressing the addressee impolitely or disrespectfully. The use of *sister* and *aunt* in this respect is discussed further in 5.1 and 5.2 below.

Discussion of Results

From the foregoing, the following linguistic features which are basically YESL in content have emerged from our analysis of the forms in 4.2 to 4.6, above: These features are:

- 5.1 the upgrading of common nouns to the linguistic status of proper nouns;
- 5.2 the use of *sister* and *aunt* as synonymns; and
- 5.3 the use of *dear* and *hello* not as mere markers of phatic communion but as expressive markers of empathy.

Each of these three features is discussed below.

5.1 The Upgrading of Common Nouns to Proper Nouns

In EMT, *sister* and *aunt* are common nouns. When any of these two functions within the English clause, it is normally modified, especially by quantifiers or modifiers to make it grammatically well-formed. Thus, we could have *a sister*, *my sister*, *the sister*, *some aunts*, *an aunt*, *my aunt* and so on. In EMT, therefore, *sister*, *aunt*, or any other kinship term is not used in a manner that makes it function like a proper noun. Thus, we cannot have:

Dear Sister or *Dear Aunt* like we can have:

Dear Jane. (Jane is a proper noun, the name of an addressee)

The emergence of kinship terms as proper nouns in the forms in which they have occurred in our analysis is traceable to the influence of the users' Yoruba socioculture on their use of English as a second language.

5.2 The Use of Sister and Aunt as Synonyms

The Oxford English Dictionary (1971) defines *sister* and *aunt* as follows: A sister is "a female in relationship to another person or persons having the same parents," while an aunt is "the sister of one's father or mother; also as one's uncle's wife, more strictly called an aunt-in-law". In our data, we observe the use of these two kinship terms in addressing one not related by blood to the writers. In effect, the terms have been used as synonyms in the same bid to avoid a direct mention of the addressee's name, just to sound socioculturally adhering. This is another index of YESL which sanctions the use of kinship terms to avoid being disrespectful to persons or acquaintances.

5.3 The Use of Dear and Hello as Markers of Empathy

Another YESL feature observed in the data is the use of *dear* and *hello* in a manner that depicts them as having semantic implications which differ from their normal usage in EMT. Oxford English Dictionary (1971) defines *dear* as a term that expresses "personal feelings of high estimation and affection, used in addressing a person, in affection or regard in the introductory address of a letter." *Hello* is defined as "an exclamation to call attention; also expressing some degree of surprise, as on meeting any one unexpectedly". Like already observed in 3.2 above, the use of *dear* by some of the writers is a carry-over from the Yoruba sociocultural use of the lexical item *owon* which goes beyond mere phatic communion, especially in its use as part of salutation in a letter-text.

In EMT, *hello* is normally used in conversation, as in telephone conversation. It is not normally used in a written medium such as we have in our data. We are of the view that it has been used as a substitute for "*E pele o*", a form of empathising greeting in Yoruba, even though it is not, in normal usage, an acceptable lexical item to use in a letter-text. We are also of the view that its use is a feature of borrowing which has resulted in the transfer of a colloquial expression to the written form.

Conclusion

The two sociocultural sources identified in the six forms of salutation discussed in this paper are those of EMT and YESL. As discussed in the paper (see 4.1, above), *Dear + addressee's first name* reflects the EMT convention of addressing an acquaintance by name, irrespective of age differences. This form suggests to us two alternative, possible ways of interpreting the producer of the form. The first alternative is that the producer has been divested of the Yoruba sociocultural expectation of not addressing an older acquaintance by name. The second is that she has simply featured as a co-ordinate bilingual

who could use either EMT or YESL as situation dictates, not just as a Yoruba-English bilingual who has been greatly influenced by her mother-tongue, Yoruba.

The remaining five forms of salutation discussed in 4.2 to 4.6 above, reflect the Yoruba sociocultural norm of not naming an older acquaintance, as already observed in the discussion of our data. These five forms may have arisen not only as elements of the producers' Yoruba socioculture but also as indicators of imperfect learning. However, we recommend that teachers of English as a second language should teach correct, socioculturally acceptable forms of salutation to their students.

We also recommend that, placed against the background of the Yoruba socioculture of the producers of the salutation forms discussed in this paper, the five forms discussed in 4.2 to 4.6 as well as others that could function in similar positions should be accepted as candidates for an emerging, formalised, acceptable features of salutation in informal YESL letter-texts.

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ERRORS OF RELATIVIZATION IN NIGERIAN ENGLISH: A TRANSFORMATIONAL-GENERATIVE ANALYSIS

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Many applied linguists have concerned themselves with studies involving second-language learners. Many such linguists have specifically dealt with the problems encountered while learning English as a second language. And, in Nigeria, current interest in interlingual studies has concentrated on the inherent problems engendered by the interference of the local vernaculars in the acquisition of English.

The important point that stands out in all these studies is that when a person has to learn a second language, he has, consciously, to master the rules of this language. However, since he has earlier acquired the rules of another language, errors in performance are bound to occur, especially if the two languages are structurally different (as the case is between English and many languages in Nigeria). This, of course, derives from the view that any previously learned linguistic habits tend to affect the acquisition of a new language.

This work, therefore, is based on the assumption that because languages differ, a learner of another language will face problems. It is in realisation of this fact that this study is undertaken. It is an attempt to provide a linguistic explanation of the errors involved in the process of relativization in the English of some speakers in Nigeria. Some typical examples of relative structures are found in the following sentences:

- 1(a) I know the boys who are dancing.
- (b) The dog which took the bone escaped.
- (c) The soldiers to whom I gave the book thanked me.

The function of the relative clause is as modifier to the element it is attached to. Indeed, it is possible, in many instances, to replace an expression that has an adjective with one that has a relative clause:

- 2(a) Umar is an extremely old man.
- (b) Umar is a man who is extremely old.

1. Thompson has proposed the host-conjunct analysis in which restrictive relatives are derived from coordinated structures with coreferentiality between a host NP and an NP that later becomes pronominalized. However, we consider his approach more suited to account for non-restrictives, since this type is interpreted as additional, rather than identifying, information.