

The goal of this course is to sustain an unwavering focus on developing knowledge, skills, pedagogy and essential understanding required of a good English teacher to teach English Language through to the Junior High School in Ghana. The course is to equip the student-teacher with an understanding of contemporary theories, concepts and practices in English Studies in enhancing literacy.

Course Description for significant learning (indicate NTS, NTECF, BSC GLE to be addressed)	The course is a build-up of the previous EBS 108 that was taken in the first semester. The English Language Studies 1 course will help students to learn the concepts of rank scale and rank shift. It will expose students to the major and minor word classes in English and their functions. This course will further equip the student-teacher with knowledge of the parts of speech as used in context. Writing will also be discussed with emphasis on good paragraph development and writing of narrative and descriptive as well as expository essays. The course is also designed to develop fluidity of written and oral competencies in students. Students will be expected to read passages and extract meaning from them. Students will then use the knowledge acquired in this course in their own essays and in teaching their pupils later on. The mode of delivery will be discussion, group and individual work. The student-teachers will be assessed through quizzes, project writing, and examination. The course is in line with NTECF; NTS 1a, b, e, 2b,c,d,3a,e,3i,	
Course Learning Outcomes including indicators for each learning outcome	Outcomes By the end of the course, the student will be able to:	Indicators
	1. Explain the concept of rank scale and the grammatical units. (NTS 1 b, 2c, 3i).	1.1 explain what rank scale is and identify the various grammatical units. 1.2 arrange the grammatical units in hierarchical order, situating these in context. 1.3 identify the types and features of each unit 1.1. bring out the differences between rank scale and rank shift
	2. Identify and describe the open and closed word classes in English. (NTS 1b, 2c).	2.1 discuss word classes 2.2 describe the two major groups, stating the members that fall within each group. 2.3 identify the morphological and syntactic features of each part of speech 2.3 discuss each part of speech in context, focusing on the major classes.
	3. Use punctuation marks in sentences correctly. (1 b, 2c)	3.1 identify punctuation the various marks in English. 3.2 discuss the function of each punctuation mark 3.2 use punctuation marks in texts appropriately

	4. Organize and render ideas clearly and coherently (NTS 1 b, 2 c, 3 e)	4.1 rearrange sentences correctly to follow a logical pattern. 4.2 discuss contemporary topics and present ideas logically in writing, making use of punctuations correctly.
	5. Give the narration of an event that has taken place. (NTS 2c)	5.1 discuss the steps of narrating events. 5.2 work in groups to brain storm ideas on a chosen event. 5.3 plan and present a narration of the event.
	6. Read a passage and extract relevant information from it. (NTS 2c)	6.1 read a given passage and discuss how meaning could be made from it. 6.2 work in groups on a given passage to determine the meaning of that passage, using skills discussed.

Course Content	Units	Topics:	Sub-topics (if any):	Teaching and learning activities to achieve learning outcomes
	1	1. Rank scale and Rank shift 2.Word Classes	1.Definition of rank scale 2.Elements of rank scale – a. morpheme (discuss types: free, bound, inflectional, etc.) b. word, (types of word formation – affixation, inversion, etc.) c. phrase (types of phrases) d. clause e. sentence 3.Definition and functions of rank shift What is word class 1.Open word classes – nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs 2. Closed word classes a. pronouns, b. prepositions, c. conjunctions	Let students brainstorm on rank scale Explain what the rank scale is and identify the various grammatical units. Arrange the units in hierarchical order, situating these in context. Explain rank shift and discuss its functions Review the concept of parts of speech and link it to word classes Describe the two major groups, stating the members that fall within each group. Discuss each part of speech in context, focusing on the major classes

		<p>3. Introduction to writing</p>	<p>(Discussion should cover types, features, functions, etc. of each word class, especially the open word class.)</p> <p>1. Punctuation marks: Attention should be on the following punctuation marks:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. capitalization b. full stop c. comma d. question mark e. apostrophe f. exclamation mark g. quotation marks <p>(Discussion should lay emphasis on how the various punctuation marks are used.)</p> <p>2. Paragraph Development</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Definition of paragraph b. Components of a good paragraph: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Introductory paragraph ii. Topic sentence: identification and importance iii. Supporting sentences iv. Concluding sentence c. Other features of a good paragraph <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Cohesion and coherence (Appropriate use of transitional devices) ii. Unity iii. Completeness 	<p>Guide students to identify punctuation marks in sentences.</p> <p>Discuss punctuation marks in contexts.</p> <p>Discuss contemporary topics and presents ideas logically in writing, making use of punctuations correctly.</p> <p>Guide students to discuss the paragraph and the types. Discuss elements of an introductory paragraph</p> <p>Discuss the components of a good mainstream paragraph Discuss cohesion, and unity in the paragraph</p> <p>Invite students to narrate familiar events Discuss steps of narrating events.</p>
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		<p>4 The Writing Modes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Narrative - Descriptive - Expository <p>5. Reading Comprehension/Textual Analysis</p>	<p>d. Correct spelling, punctuation, etc.</p> <p>1. Narrative Essay: Elements of good narration, structure, cohesion, etc.</p> <p>2. Descriptive Essay: features of good descriptive essay: use of colourful words, etc.</p> <p>3. Expository writing: describing a process</p> <p>1. Skills for effective comprehension (prediction, forecasting meaning using titles, pictures, topic sentences, etc.)</p> <p>2. Identify text structure (how sentences are put meaningful together into paragraphs)</p> <p>3. Skimming, scanning, critical reading skills, etc.</p> <p>4. Types of comprehension questions: factual, inferential, speculative, appreciative, etc. (Practice exercises should be based on narrative and descriptive text.)</p>	<p>Work in groups to brainstorm on a chosen event.</p> <p>Plan and present a narration of the event.</p> <p>Discuss the structure and features of a descriptive essay</p> <p>Discuss the structure and features of the expository essay</p> <p>Read a given passage and discuss how meaning could be made from it.</p> <p>Work in groups on a given passage to determine the meaning of that passage, using skills discussed.</p> <p>Let students identify and discuss sentence structure and meaning</p> <p>Discuss different types of questions used in comprehension exercises</p>
Required Text (core)	<p>Leech, G. (1989). <i>English grammar and usage</i>. London: Edward Arnold.</p> <p>Quirk, Randolph, Greenbaum, Sidney et al. (1985). <i>A comprehensive grammar of English language</i>. Essex: Longman.</p>			

Additional Reading List	<p>Clouse, B. F. (1997). <i>Transitions: From reading to writing</i>. Boston: McGraw-Hills.</p> <p>Cobuild, (1990). <i>English grammar</i>. London: Harper Collins.</p> <p>Cobuild, (1992). <i>English usage</i>. London: Harper Collins.</p> <p>Crystal, D. (1998). <i>The Cambridge encyclopedia of language</i>. Cambridge: CUP.</p> <p>Johnson, K. (1982). <i>Communicate in writing</i>. Essex: Longman.</p> <p>Ploeger, K.M. (1999). <i>Simplified writing skills</i>. Illinois: NTC Publishing Group Press.</p> <p>Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). <i>University grammar of English</i>. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.</p> <p>Rozakis, L. E. (2003). <i>Grammar and style</i>. Indiana: Alpha Books.</p> <p>Thomson, A. J. & Martinet, A. V. (1999). <i>A practical English grammar</i>. Oxford: OUP.</p>
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UNIT ONE

RANK SCALE AND RANK SHIFT

1. What is Rank scale?
2. Elements of rank scale – (sentence, clause, phrase, word and morpheme)
3. Morpheme (discuss types: free, bound, inflectional, etc.)
4. Word, (types of word formation – affixation, inversion, etc.)
5. Phrase

Course Learning Outcomes:

- i. Explain what the rank scale is and identify the various ranks;
- ii. Arrange the grammatical units in hierarchical order, situating these in context;

iii. Identify the features of morpheme, word and phrase;

(NTS 2c, d, e)

What learners should do:

Learners should use their smart phones to:

- i. identify the features of each unit;
- ii. show the differences and relationships between morpheme, word and phrase;
- iii. explain rank shift and discuss its functions;
- iv. compare their findings with what is provided in the notes attached and make appropriate conclusions.

Practice questions.

1. What is the difference between inflectional and derivational morphemes?
2. Plural and past morphemes are classified under which type of morphemes?
3. Identify the types of word formation for the following words:
 - a. brunch
 - b. phone
 - c. WAEC

d. goody-goody

e. armchair

4. Identify the type of phrase underlined in the following sentences.

a. I hid the book the book under the table.

b.. The king danced majestically.

c. Kwame bought a very beautiful red dress for Adwoa.

d. The robber has been killed by the food.

· Read page 8, 1.4 (Phrase) to page 15 for the next lesson)

1. Clause (types)

2. Sentence (types of sentence structure)

3. Definition and functions of rank shift

Course Learning Outcomes:

i. Identify the types and features of clause and sentence

ii. Explain rank shift and discuss its functions.

(NTS 2c, d, e)

What learners should do:

Learners should use their smart phones to:

i. identify the features of each unit;

ii. show the differences and relationships between clause and sentence;

iii. explain rank shift and discuss its functions.

iv. compare their findings with what is provided in the notes attached and make appropriate conclusions.

Practice questions.

1. Identify the structure of each of the following sentences:
 - a. I bought a new red car.
 - b. John came after the train had left.
 - c. He gave whoever he meet a gift.
 - d. My friend promised to come but he failed.
 - e. When a visited my friend, he was busy so I went back home.
2. Identify the subordinate clause in each of the following sentences.
 - a. This is the house which I want to buy.
 - b. The train left before I arrived at the station
 - c. Although John loves singing, his voice is very hoarse.
 - d. He went wherever he liked.
3. Examine the difference between rank scale and rank shift.

Unit 1.1 Rank scale

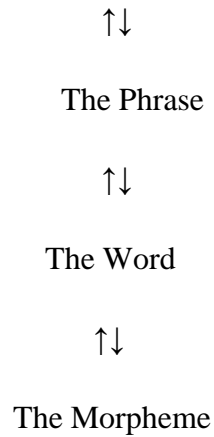
In systemic linguistics, a hierarchical ordering of grammatical units such that a unit of a given rank normally consists of units of the next lower rank, as, in English, the ordering is sentence, clause, group or phrase, word, morpheme.

When these ranks are arranged hierarchically, the arrangement is called 'rank scale'. Rank scale is, therefore, the arrangement of grammatical units according to size that is, it is arranged from the biggest and highest unit to the smallest and lowest unit. The biggest/highest grammatical unit is the sentence whereas the morpheme is the lowest/smallest unit. This is shown in the diagram below:

The Sentence



The Clause



The relationship between the members on the scale is the same. The sentence, which is the highest rank consists of at least one member of the unit immediately below it, that is, the clause. The clause also consists of at least one phrase. The phrase consists of at least one word. The word consists at least a morpheme which is the smallest since it cannot be broken down (decomposed) further. Viewed from top/down (the arrows point downward), the relationship between the units is referred to as consists-of relationship. But taken from bottom/up, the relationship is known as constituent-of relationship because the lower unit is a constituent of the higher unit (the arrows move upward). This means that the morpheme is a constituent of the word; the word a constituent of the phrase and the clause is the constituent of the sentence. You may observe that the higher rank contains all the other units below it. Thus, the sentence is made up of the clause, the phrase, the word and the morpheme.

Sentence	Sentence
↓ Clause	↑ Clause
↓ Phrase/group	↑ Phrase/group
↓ Word	↑ Word
↓ Morpheme	↑ Morpheme

Diagram 1: Consist-of Relationship	Diagram 2: Constituent-of Relationship
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1.2 Definition of Morpheme

A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word. The main difference between them is that a morpheme sometimes does not stand alone, but a word, by definition, always stands alone. A word may be a morpheme but a morpheme may not be a word.

The book is mine. (Four morphemes)

I am playing a good game. (seven morphemes: I + am + play + ing + a + good + game.)

1.2.1 Classification of Morphemes

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit which has function and creates meaning. There are types of morphemes. These include prefix, suffix, full, empty, free, bound, inflectional and derivational morphemes. Morphemes can be classified into two types in terms of their capacity of occurring alone. These are free morphemes and bound morphemes.

1.2.2 Free Morphemes

Free morphemes can stand by themselves and either tell us something about the world (content/lexical morphemes) or play a role in grammar (functional/grammatical morphemes). *Man, pizza, run,* and *happy* are instances of free lexical morphemes, while *and, but, the,* and *to* are examples of free morphemes that have grammatical function.

1.2.3 Bound Morphemes

Some morphemes need to be attached to a free morpheme in order to make meaning. Bound morphemes are morphemes that cannot stand on their own and make meaning but are used exclusively attached to free morphemes. The morpheme *-er*, used to describe “someone who performs a certain activity” cannot stand on its own, but needs to be attached to a free morpheme, a verb in this case. For example

dance-dancer

teach-teacher

bake-baker

tease-teaser

Bound morphemes come in two varieties, inflectional and derivational. The core difference between the two is that while the addition of inflectional morphemes merely changes the word forms, the addition of derivational morphemes creates new words.

a. Inflectional morphemes

An inflectional morpheme is attached to words to make the sentences or utterances conform to the rules of grammar. It involves the process which produces forms of the same word. For example, *cut*, *match* and *send*, in the sentences below, will have their respective forms when inflectional morphemes are attached to them.

match – matches – matching – matched

send – sends – sending – sent

cut – cuts – cutting – cut

The absence of these morphemes makes the structure becomes unacceptable. For example:

I matched the items yesterday.

*I match the items yesterday.

He sends his family much money.

*He send his family much money.

Sentences (ii and iv) above are ungrammatical because the inflectional morpheme -ed and -s are omitted.

The inflectional morphemes do not change the class of a word. After an inflectional affixation, a verb still remains a verb in a structure though its basic form may change, depending on the tense and the person (first, second or third person singular or plural) or number. For example

The lady student works hard.

The men are reading in the classroom every day.

The verbs underlined have their forms changed and yet remain verbs. In English, inflectional morphemes are easy to recognise because they are always suffixes - they are at the end of words, and there are only a few of them. There might be a change in meaning or sense, but not the grammatical category. Let us consider some more examples in the following:

Verbs

break + ing = breaking

↓

↓

verb

verb

Both 'break' and 'breaking' are verbs. 'Breaking' is the progressive form of 'break' obtained by adding the '-ing' morpheme to the verb. We can also say the same thing for the past tense morpheme '-ed'

Nouns

Nouns are usually marked either for countable or non-countable. Morphemes used to mark plurality in nouns include '-s', '-es', '-en', etc.

Singular	Plural
car	cars

box	boxes
ox	oxen
ministry	ministries

Adjectives

Adjectives are inflected for comparison. For example

positive	comparative	superlative
warm	warmer	warmest
crazy	crazier	craziest
Fat	fatter	fattest

The inflectional morphemes 'er' and '-est' are used for comparative and superlative adjectives. Usually it is the end of the adjectives that are inflected. The comparative of 'easy' takes -ier, with the root losing -y, and the superlative taking - (i) est.

Adverbs

The commonest inflectional morphemes for marking comparison in adverbs (also used for adjectives) are '-er, est'. For example

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
soon	sooner	soonest

fast	faster	fastest
early	earlier	earliest
hard	harder	hardest

b. Derivational Morphemes

Derivation is the morphological process of forming a new word from an existing one by the addition of a bound morpheme. A derivational morpheme changes the meaning of a word or the word class or both. The significant quality of derivational morphemes is that they *derive* new words. In the following examples, derivational morphemes are added to produce new words which are derived from the parent (root) word.

expense -expensive -inexpensive

body -embody -embodiment

examine - examination – re-examination

In all cases, the derived word means something different than the root and the word class may change with each derivation. As demonstrated in the examples above, sometimes derivation will not cause the word class to change, but in such a case the meaning will usually be significantly different from that of the root.

probable – improbable

visible – invisible

tie – untie

create - recreate

Independent of whether or not the word class changes and how significantly meaning is affected, derivation always creates new words from existing ones, while inflection is limited to changing the word forms.

Class Maintaining Derivational Morphemes

There are other derivational morphemes that do not change the class of the word. They are described as class-maintaining morphemes. Some nouns are derived from other nouns by the addition of derivational morphemes.

E.g. friend (noun) + ship = friendship (noun)
champion (noun) + ship = championship (noun)

In the above we add the suffix 'ship' to derive 'friendship' and 'championship'. The derivational morpheme could be a prefix

ex + president (noun) = ex-president (noun)
co + writer (noun) = co-writer (noun)

1.2.4 Full and Empty

Full morphemes have meaning but the empty morphemes do not. They also have function in grammar. The word 'boy' has meaning (young male child) but the word 'as' has no meaning. It only has grammatical functions. So, 'boy' is full but 'as' is empty of meaning.

1.2.5 Prefix and suffix

a. Prefixes are morphemes that are affixed to precede a root word. For example

Prefix	As in
in-	incomplete, inattention, insensitive, inaccessible
mini-	mini-skirt, mini-bus, mini-market

sub-	subconscious, sub-urban
ultra-	ultra-modern,
inter-	inter-class,
co-	co-education,
poly-	poly-technical

b. Suffix

Suffixes are morphemes that are attached at the end of base words. Mostly suffixes change the class of the root words (or morphemes). For example

Suffix	As in
-dom	kingdom, officialdom,
-ery	slavery, refinery,
-ful	spoonful, faithful,
-hood	falsehood, neighbourhood
-let	starlet, booklet
-ness	kindness, selfishness
-ist	cyclist, racist
-ly	deadly, friendly

1.2.6 . Null Morpheme

A null morpheme or zero morpheme is a morpheme that has no phonetic form. In simpler terms, a null morpheme is an "invisible" affix. For example, “sheep”, “information”, “staff” can be analysed as combination of singular with added null affix for the plural.

1.2.7 Base/Root Morpheme

The base or root morpheme is a morpheme that gives the word its principal meaning. For example, the word “*develop*” in “developmental”.

1.3 Word

A word is a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing used with others to form sentences usually the easiest unit to identify in the written language. A word may consist of a single morpheme or a combination of morphemes. For example, “table” – a word consisting of one morpheme; “beautiful” – a word consisting of two morphemes. In the following sentences, there are eight and five words but there are more morphemes.

Michael has added three oranges to the fruits.

(Michael (1) + has (1) + added (2) + three (1) + oranges (2) + to (1) + the (1) + fruits (2))

Seth goes to Kumasi regularly.

(Seth (1) + goes (2) + to (1) + Kumasi (1) + regularly (2))

1.3.1 Types of Word Formation in English

According to Crystal, (1997) there are four normal processes of word formation in English. These are:

- i. Pre-fixation – an affix is placed before the base of the word.

dis + belief = disbelief

im + proper = improper

ii. Suffixation – an affix is placed after the base of the word.

good + ness = goodness

govern + ment = government

iii. Conversion – the class of the word changes without any change of form.

Henry is the man of the house. (noun)

The lady mans that company. (verb)

The total sum is fifty thousand Ghana cedis. (adjective)

They total the figures. (verb)

They gave us the total. (noun)

iv. Compounding – when two base forms are put together to become one word.

arm + chair = armchair

black + board = blackboard

door + mat = door mat

dining + table = dining table

mother + in + law = mother-in-law

Apart from these four processes of word formation in English, there are other ‘less usual’ ways of making new words. They include acronyms, blends, clipping, reduplication etc.

v. Acronyms – words formed by putting together the initial letters of the words which make up the name.

UNESCO – United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation

GNAT – Ghana National Association of Teachers

UTAG - University Teachers Association of Ghana

vi. Blends – two words merge into each other to form one word. It refers to joining the beginning of one word and the end of another to make a new word with a new meaning.

brunch from breakfast and lunch

smog - from smoke and fog

motel - from motor and hotel

vii. Reduplication – a type of compound in which both elements are the same or slightly different.

wishy-washy

goody-goody

hanky-panky

bye-bye

viii. Clipping – an informal shortening of a word, often to a single syllable. Words shortened by common use include:

television - telly

influenza - flu

mathematics - maths

1.4 The Phrase

A phrase is a group of words that stand together as a single unit, typically as part of a clause or sentence. It does not contain a subject or verb and consequently, cannot convey a complete thought. The class of the head word names the phrase therefore we have phrases such as noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, prepositional phrase and adverb phrase.

1.4.1 Types of Phrases

i. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a phrase that acts as a noun in the clause or sentence. It contains a noun and other associated words usually determiners which modify the noun.

The noun phrase consists of a noun as a head-word and other related words, (determiner and modifiers). The underlined words noun phrases in the sentence.

The children live here.

All the children work on this land.

The noun phrase performs all the functions performed by nouns. These are:

subject of the verb

subject complement

direct object

indirect object

appositive

object complement

His brother is handsome. (subject)

I buy exotic oranges for export. (direct object)

I buy the women some dresses. (indirect object)

These are the presents. (subject complement)

He is enthused about the discovery. (prepositional object/complement)

My sport, swimming, is always on the list of activities. (noun appositive)

ii. Adjective Phrase

The adjective phrase is a phrase that acts as an adjective in a sentence. It modifies a noun or pronoun. It consists of an adjective, modifiers and other words that modify the noun or pronoun.

She wears a beautiful dress on Sundays.

She wears an extremely long black hair.

The man is handsome.

He became a teacher.

iii. Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase contains an adverb and other words (noun, preposition, modifier) which as a whole act as an adverb phrase. For example:

Carefully, I read the literature book.

The lady does her assignments hurriedly.

This work is done well.

The man was running very fast.

iv. Verb Phrase

The verb phrase has the verb as the head word. They can be one word, or a group of words where some of them may have auxiliary function. For example

We dance at church.

He is my brother.

All have done well.

The student is sleeping on the bare floor.

They may have been seen in the dark.

v. Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase is a phrase comprising a preposition and an object of preposition (noun or pronoun). It may contain other modifiers.

My tent is placed near the brick wall.

The basket is in the flower garden.

By this letter, you have been made the manager.

vi. Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase is made up of an infinitive “to + the base form (of a verb) and modifiers or other related words linked to the infinitive. It acts as a noun, adjective or adverb.

I enjoy to drive new cars. (Noun)

She played the organ to entertain the group. (Adverb)

James made a commitment to help the needy.

vii. Gerund Phrase

A gerund is a verb that functions as a noun in sentences. It can be used in most places a noun is used and yet have some characteristics of the verb. Usually the verb has the –ing form (verb + ing). They are sometimes called verbal noun/participles. For example:

Exercising is good to me.

I enjoy reading stories.

Seeing is believing.

Walking is a good exercise.

You cannot stay without laughing in a day.

1.5 The Clause

A clause is a group of words that contains at least a subject and a verb but cannot always stand as a grammatical sentence. There are types of clauses in English which include independent and dependent clauses.

a. Independent/Main clause:

An independent clause is a clause that can stand on its own as a simple sentence. An independent clause contains a subject and a predicate and makes complete sense by itself. For example,

He walked.

John ate the food.

He walked out when he saw us.

While I was away, he made a lot of noise in the neighbourhood.

The clauses underlined are independent clauses because they can stand on their own and still make meaning unlike the ones those we have not underlined.

b. Dependent/Subordinate clause

A dependent clause is a group of words with a subject and a verb. It does not express a complete thought so it is not a sentence and cannot stand alone. A dependent clause can either modify an adjacent clause or serve as a component of an independent clause. The following do not make meaning on their own unless they are put in context.

When he saw us

While I was away

1.5.1 Types of Dependent Clauses

i. Noun Clause

A noun clause is a dependent clause that acts as a noun. Noun clauses begin with words such as how, that, what, whatever, when, where, whether, which, whichever, etc. Noun clauses perform the functions of nouns in a sentence. It can act as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, etc. For example,

Whatever he did was wonderful. (Subject)

His prediction is that things will improve. (Subject complement)

Be sure to send whoever gave you a parcel a thank-you note. (Indirect object)

Do you know what the future has for you? (Object)

The assumption, that things will improve, is a mirage. (Appositive)

ii Relative/Adjective Clause

Relative or adjective clauses are dependent clauses that modify nouns or pronouns. They include a subject and a verb or verb phrase and are introduced by words known as relative pronouns, *that, who, whom, whose*.

This is the house which I want to buy.

The boy who stole the money has been arrested.

The books that were borrowed from the library have been returned.

iii. Adverb Clause

An adverb clause is a dependent clause that functions as an adverb. That is, the entire clause modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. In general, adverb clauses add information that elaborates on when, where, why, how, how much or under what condition the action in the sentence takes place. The adverb clause is capable of occurring in initial, medial and final position within the main clause.

Types of Adverb Clause:

a. Clause of Time

The adverb clause shows when something happens. It is usually introduced by time adverbs. Examples are: before, after, as, when, while, until, as soon as, since, no sooner than, as long as etc.

John came after we had left.

When in difficulty, consult your counsellor.

Buy your tickets as soon as you get to the station.

b. Clause of Place

The Adverb Clause of Place indicates the place about which the verb talks. The Adverb Clause of Place starts with where, wherever, whereas etc.

I don't know where they live

They went wherever they could find food.

c. Clause of Concession

Adverb clause of concession or supposition expresses an idea that suggests the opposite of the main part of the sentence. We may also say, the information in the independent clause indicates a concession or an unexpected result of something in the dependent clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions, though and although.

Although he has stayed in Accra all his life, he cannot speak Ga.

We won the game, though we expected to lose.

Although I enjoyed myself, I was glad to come back.

Even though we prepared the team well, we lost to our opponents.

d. Clause of Manner

Adverb clause of manner shows us how something happens. It is usually introduced by 'like', 'as though' or 'as if':

He looks as if he is going to be ill.

John treated me as if he had never met me.

e. Clause of Purpose

Adverb clause of purpose tells us about what is/was hoped would be achieved by carrying out the action. It is introduced by the adverbs “so that”, “in order that”, “in case”, “lest”.

Take your umbrella with you in case it rains during the journey.

They left the door open in order for me to hear the baby.

f. Clause of Reason

It explains and gives reason for the main idea. We use adverb clause of reason to explain why someone does something or why something happens. It is introduced by “because”, “since”, “as”.

I couldn't come because I was tired.

I didn't know that she was married since she seldom talked about it.

g. Clause of Result

An adverb clause of result or consequence is used to say what happens or what may happen as a result of the action mentioned in the main clause. Result clause is introduced by the adverbs “so that”, “in order that”, “so...that” and “such...that”.

We planted many different types of flowers so the compound looked beautiful.

He is such a honest man that the whole community trusts him.

h. Clause of Comparison

Clauses of comparison are used to compare things or ideas. They often begin with the conjunctions 'than' or 'as...as':

My brother is older than he looks.

It ended as I expected.

1.6 The Sentence

a. Traditional grammars define a sentence in such terms as a group of words that are put together to express a complete and single thought. Modern studies avoid this emphasis because of the difficulties involved in saying what “thoughts” are. Some traditional grammarians give a logical definition to a sentence as a group of words that has a “subject” (topic) and a predicate (what is being said about the topic).

b. A set of words that is complete in itself, typically containing a subject and predicate, conveying a statement, question, exclamation, or command, and consisting of a main clause and sometimes one or more subordinate clauses.

1.6.1 Types of Sentence Structure

There are four types of sentence structure: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex

a. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is a sentence that consists of just one independent clause. A simple sentence has no dependent clause or clauses.

The robber has been elected.

Asamoah did not attend the party last night.

b. Compound Sentence

A **compound sentence** has at least two **independent clauses** that have related ideas. The independent clauses can be joined by a **coordinating conjunction**.

I like fufu and John likes banku.

John studied hard but he failed the examination.

c. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is a sentence that contains one independent and at least one dependent clause (sometimes called a subordinate clause).

Although Adwoa studied all night, she failed all her exams.

I bought the book which he recommended.

They won a trophy, which surprised everyone.

d. Compound Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence has at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

Yaw came last night and told us that he was successful in the examination but his scores were low.

Yaw came last night – main clause

Yaw told us – main clause)

That he was successful in the examination – subordinate clause

But his scores were low – coordinate clause

Kwame loves his sister, and she loves him too because he pays her school fees.

Kwame loves his sister – main clause

She loves me too – coordinate main clause

Because he pays her school fees – subordinate clause

The sentence consisting of all the elements

The sentence is a constituent of all the elements we have discussed so far. For example

The gentleman is sleeping under the shed that we built.

This sentence is made up of two clauses

The gentleman is sleeping under the shed (independent/main clause)

that we built. (dependent/subordinate clause)

Each of these clauses consist of phrases as shown below

The gentleman is sleeping under the shed

the gentleman (NP)

is sleeping (VP)

under the shed (PP)

that we built

that (relative pronoun –NP)

we (personal pronoun –NP)

built (VP)

Each of these phrases consist of words as shown below

the (article)

gentleman (noun)

is (auxiliary verb)

sleeping (main verb, continuous form)

under (preposition)

the (article)

shed (noun)

that (relative pronoun, NP)

we (personal pronoun, NP)

built (VP, past tense form)

Phrases are made up words and some of the words consist of more than one morpheme while others are only one morpheme

the

gentleman = gentle + man

is

sleeping = sleep + ing

under

the

shed

that

we

built = build + past tense form -t

1.7 Rank shift

Rankshift has to do with functions. Each rank has a function to perform. Sometimes, however, a unit performs a function that is not originally assigned to it. Rankshift occurs when a higher rank moves down or a lower unit moves up to perform the function of another rank. Let us consider the following set of sentences.

The book is big.

The book here is big.

The book on the table is big.

The book which is on the table is beautiful.

The NP 'the book' in sentence (1) is not modified. We do not know which book is it. In sentence (2) 'here', a word modifies 'book', and this makes the identity clearer. We say, in grammatical terms, the word 'here' modifies 'book'. As 'here' comes after 'book', we say the word 'here' post-modifies the head 'book'.

In sentence (3), we have the phrase, “on the table” doing the same job done by ‘here’. In other words, the phrase ‘on the table’ is contained in the NP. The second phrase post-modifies the head ‘book’ in the NP. We can then say “on the table”, a phrase, has rankshifted to perform the function earlier performed by a word ‘here’. In terms of rank, ‘here’ is lower than ‘on the table’, a phrase, but both perform the same function of post-modification. The phrase has therefore rankshifted to perform the function of a word.

In sentence (4) the NP. ‘The book’ has a clause “which is on the table” within it. The function of this clause is the same as that of the phrase “on the book” and the word ‘here’. The clause post-modifies the head word ‘book’ in the NP. The clause which is higher than the phrase has rankshifted to perform the function of a word, ‘here’.

Does rankshift always occur top down? Generally, the answer is ‘yes’. However, in elliptical constructions as often occurs in dialogues, a lower unit like a word or even a morpheme may rankshift to perform the function of a clause or a sentence. Here is an example;

John: Kofi, is the food ready?

Kofi: Yes.

In the context of this dialogue, ‘Yes’ clearly means,
“The food is ready”

“Yes” which is a word or morpheme has, as it were, rankshifted to function as a sentence, the highest grammatical unit. A rankshift is therefore the movement downwards or upwards of a grammatical unit to perform the function of another unit.

Unit 2 – Word Classes

(Unit 2 will be thought over three weeks.)

- 2.1 Introduction – What is word class?
- 2.2 Major and minor word classes
- 2.3 Major (open) word class – nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs
(Types, features, functions, etc. of each word class.)

Course Learning Outcomes:

- i. explain word classes – looking at both traditional and modern definitions;

- ii. describe the two groups (major and minor classes), stating the members that fall within each group;
- iii. State the differences between the major and minor word classes;
- iii. Identify the difference (s) between the major and minor word classes;
- iv. Analyse the morphological and syntactic features of the major word classes – nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. (NTS 2c, d, e);
- v. Identify the class of words as used in context.

What Learners Should Do

Learners should:

- i. explain word classes – focus on both the traditional definitions and the modern grammatical study of word classes;
- ii. study critically the morphological characteristics nouns;
- iii. examine the syntactic features of nouns;
- iv. examine and identify the features of the nouns.

(Read page 9 – 20 of the lecture notes attached for the next lecture)

Practice Exercise

Read the passage below and answer the questions which follow.

Three policemen were injured and four vehicles damaged when a mob attacked a police station in Accra. The mob also dumped the lifeless body of a man – believed to be aged between 35 – 40 years. Investigations are however on-going to establish the link between the attack and a supposed freak incident involving a man who jumped into the Odaw River and died less than two hours before the mob action. Meanwhile, four suspects have been arrested.

An officer at the station told the Daily Graphic that the attack took place around 4.30 p.m. last Wednesday when a mob comprising some young men and women, pelted the station with stones as they marched unto the premises. In the process, they vandalized an official police Nissan Navara pick-up, two Toyota saloon cars and a Daewoo taxi which were parked in front of the station.

1. List four proper nouns used in the passage.
2. Identify five common nouns in the passage.
3. Identify one collective noun in the passage.
4. Indicate the plural forms of the following words:
 - a. cargo
 - b. chief
 - c. furniture
 - d. luggage
 - e. knife
 - f. thief

Unit 2 – Word Classes Cont. (Verbs)

(Refer to Pages 9-20 of lecture notes)

Learning Outcomes:

- i. Define verbs looking at both traditional and modern definitions.
- ii. Analyse the morphological and syntactic features of verbs.
- iii. Identify tense formation in verbs – regular and irregular forms of tense formation. (NTS 2c, d, e).
- iv. Show the distinction between the different types of verbs.
- v. Indicate the various ways of indicating futurity.

What Learners Should Do

Learners should use their smart phones and other reference materials to:

- i. find out how traditional and modern grammarians define verbs;
- ii. examine and identify the morphological features of verbs;
- iii. critically examine the morphological characteristics of the major word classes;
- iv. identify the uses of the various tenses.

(Read page 21 – 29 of lecture notes attached for the next lecture)

Practice Exercise

1. Change the following verbs from simple present to simple past.

	Simple Present	Simple Past
i.	hear	
ii.	speak	
iii.	buy	
iv.	license	
v.	distinguish	
vi.	propagate	

2. Identify the types of verbs (action, linking, auxiliary, etc.) in the following sentences.
- a. Kwame pushed the boy.
 - b. The boys are students.
 - c. John has constructed a bridge.
 - d. John has a car.
 - e. Kwame does his work promptly.

Unit 2 – Word Classes Cont. (Adjectives and Adverbs)
(Refer to pages 21 – 29 of lecture notes attached)

Learning Outcomes:

- i. Define adjectives and adverbs - looking at both traditional and modern definitions
- ii. Analyse the morphological and syntactic features of adjectives and adverbs.
- iii. Identify the types of adjectives and adverbs. (NTS. 2c, d, e).
- iv. Examine the order of adjectives in English.
- v. Indicate the position of adverbs in a sentence.

What Learners Should do

Learners should:

- i. Explain adjectives and adverbs - looking at both traditional and modern definitions.
- ii. Examine the morphological and syntactic features of adjectives and adverbs.
- iii. Study the types of adjectives and adverbs. (NTS. 2c, d, e).
- iv. Arrange adjectives in the correct order.
- v. Position adverbs in the correct order in a sentence.

Practice questions.

1. Arrange the adjectives in the following sentences in the correct order.
 - a. tiny, triangular, pretty, wooden table.
 - b. old, black, huge, silk, French cloth.
 - c. round, lovely, round box.
 - d. old, tall, unusual, metal arrow.
 - e. pink, rubber, old, untidy shoes.
2. Although adverbs usually end –ly, there are some which do not. List three of such adverbs.
3. In each of the following sentences, indicate the type of adverb that has been underlined.

- a. John drove the car recklessly.
- b. Ama is always the first to get here.
- c. The inauguration of the new Board will be held today.
- d. I handled the issue haphazardly.
- e. He ate the food greedily.

UNIT 2

WORD CLASSES

2.1 Introduction

Words have been grouped into classes traditionally labelled as “parts of speech”. Initially, there were only “nouns” and “verbs” and all the other words which were neither nouns nor verbs belonged to the class called “conjunctions”.

"When linguists began to look closely at English grammatical structure in the 1940s and 1950s, they encountered so many problems of identification and definition that the term “part of speech” soon fell out of favour with “word class” being introduced instead. Word classes are equivalent to parts of speech, but defined according to strict linguistic criteria." (David Crystal, *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language*, 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 2003)

"There is no single correct way of analysing words into word classes. Grammarians disagree about the boundaries between the word classes and it is not always clear whether to lump sub-categories together or to split them. For example, in some grammars, pronouns are classified as nouns, whereas in other frameworks, they are treated as a separate word class." (Bas Aarts, Sylvia Chalker, Edmund Weiner, *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*, 2nd ed. Oxford University Press, 2014). Today, there are eight word classes which are recognised in English:

Nouns

Verbs

Adjectives

Adverbs

Pronouns

Prepositions

Conjunctions

Interjections

(David Crystal, 2003)

The word classes are divided into two: major/open and minor/close. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are members of the “major/open class” in the sense that it is indefinitely extendable. They have many thousands of members and new nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are often created often through scientific and technological advancement.

The remaining four: pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections are referred to as “minor/closed word classes because they can hardly be extended by the creation of additional members.

The focus of modern grammatical study about word classes is more on the structural features that signal the way in which groups of words behave instead of definitions based on meaning as was used in the past. Because of the irregularities in a language, word classes are thus not as homogeneous as the theory implies today. For example, what part of speech is the word “round” in the following sentences?

John bought a round bed. (Adjective)

The boy went round the bend. (Preposition)

The athlete will round the final bend soon. (Verb)

I walked round to the shop. (Adverb)

It's John's round, I have had my turn. (Noun)

These examples show that it is difficult to look at a word and associate it to a specific class. In these examples, round has been classified based on their relationship with the words they relate with (function).

Major word classes

2.2 NOUNS

This Section discusses nouns under the following:

Morphological Criterion

Syntactic/Grammatical Criterion

Types of Nouns

Summary of Classification of Nouns

In traditional grammar, nouns are words that refer to people, places, things, or ideas. Modern grammar, on the other hand, looks at the morphological and syntactic criteria to describe the word classes.

2.2.1 Morphological Criterion

This criterion looks at the form of the word to associate a class to it. Some nouns can take other shapes which others cannot. For example, some nouns take the suffixes -es, -s, -ies to form plural whereas others do not. It is not always possible to identify nouns. However, some word endings can show that the word is probably a noun. These word endings (suffixes) include

-age	-	postage, heritage
-ance/ence	-	difference, insurance
-er/or	-	teacher, actor
-hood	-	childhood, boyhood
-ism	-	nationalism, socialism

-ist	-	artist, pianist
-itude	-	solitude, fortitude
-ity/ty	-	electricity, cruelty
-ment	-	government, parliament
-ness	-	kindness, business
-ship	-	friendship, relationship
-tion/sion	-	satisfaction, extension

2.2.2 Nouns can Indicate Number

We identify nouns since they indicate number singular (one) or plural (more than one). Most plural nouns have ‘s’, ‘es’, ‘ies’ endings when what is being described is more than one. But words like physics, sheep, oxen, etc. present a problem when we consider plurality. There are many plural noun rules, and because we use nouns so frequently when writing, it is important to know all of them. The correct spelling of plurals usually depends on what letter the singular noun ends in.

2.2.3 Plural Noun Rules and Examples

In order to make regular nouns plural:

a. Add -s to the end of the singular form. For example,

Singular	cat	house
Plural	cats	houses

b. If the singular noun ends in -s, -ss, -sh, -ch, -x, or -z, add -es to the end of the singular noun to make it plural. For example,

Singular	truss	bus	marsh	lunch	tax	blitz
Plural	trusses	buses	marshes	lunches	taxes	blitzes

c. In some cases, singular nouns ending in -s or -z, require that you double the -s or -z prior to adding the -es to get the plural.

Singular	fez	gas
Plural	fezzes	gasses

d. If the noun ends with -f or -fe, the f is often changed to -ve before adding the -s to form the plural version.

Singular	wife	wolf
Plural	wives	Wolves

Exceptions:

Singular	roof	belief	chef	chief
Plural	roofs	beliefs	chefs	Chiefs

e. If a singular noun ends in -y and the letter before the -y is a consonant, change the ending to -ies to make the noun plural.

Singular	city	puppy	baby	ministry
----------	------	-------	------	----------

Plural	cities	puppies	babies	ministries
--------	--------	---------	--------	------------

f. If the singular noun ends in -y and the letter before the -y is a vowel, simply add an -s to make it plural.

Singular	ray	tray	boy	day
Plural	rays	trays	boys	days

g. If the singular noun ends in -o, add -es to make it plural.

singular	potato	tomato	mango
Plural	potatoes	tomatoes	mangoes

Exceptions:

Singular	studio	piano	halo
Plural	studios	pianos	halos

With the unique word ‘volcano’, you can apply the standard pluralisation for words that end in -o or not. Both of the following are correct:

volcanoes/volcanos

h. If the singular noun ends in -us, the plural ending is frequently -i.

Singular	cactus	focus	fungus
Plural	cacti	foci	fungi

i. If the singular noun ends in -is, the plural ending is -es.

Singular	analysis	ellipsis
Plural	analyses	ellipses

j. If the singular noun ends in -on, the plural ending is -a.

Singular	phenomenon	criterion
Plural	phenomena	criteria

k. Some nouns do not change at all when they are pluralized.

Singular	sheep	series	deer
Plural	sheep	series	deer

You need to see these nouns in context to identify whether they are singular or plural. Consider the following sentence:

Kwame caught one fish, but Ato caught three fish.

2.2.4 Plural Noun Rules for Irregular Nouns

Irregular nouns follow no specific rules, so it is best to memorize them or look up the proper plural formation in the dictionary.

Singular	Plural
child	children
goose	geese
man	men
woman	women
tooth	teeth
foot	feet
mouse	mice

2.3 Syntactic Functions

A syntactic function is the grammatical relationship of one constituent to another. A particular item occurs or does not occur after or before a particular item. The noun functions as the:

Head of a noun phrase. E.g.

The boy

The strong table

The big mansion

Subject of a clause

A subject is a word, phrase, or clause which performs the action of or acts upon the verb. Its state is also shown by the verb E.g.

The boy killed the goat.

Teachers are important people in every society.

Subject Complement

Nouns function as subject complements. A subject complement is a word, phrase, or clause that follows a copular verb and describes the subject. Copular verbs are also called linking and state-of-being verbs and include verbs like a form of be, become, and seem. E.g.

John is a nurse.

My brothers are teachers.

Direct object

Nouns function as direct objects. A direct object is a word, phrase, or clause that follows a transitive verb and answers the question "who?" or "what?" It also receives the action of the verb. E.g.

Kwame killed the goat.

The students damaged the school bus during the demonstration.

Object Complement

An object complement is a word, phrase, or clause that directly follows and describes the direct object. E.g.

The class appointed Owusu prefect.

My brother-in-law named his daughter Stephanie.

Indirect Object

Nouns also function as indirect objects. An indirect object is a word, phrase, or clause that follows a di-transitive verb and answers the question "to or for whom?" or "to or for what" is the action of the verb performed. E.g.

Kwame bought Rose a handbag on her birthday.

The college presented the Principal a car on his 60th birthday.

Appositive

Nouns also function as appositives. An appositive is a word, phrase, or clause that modifies or explains another noun or noun phrase. E.g.

Mr. Mensah, the headmaster, has retired.

Derek, the boxer, has won the fight.

Modifier

Although adjectives are traditionally defined as words that describe or modify nouns, nouns too can function as a modifier of another noun.

E.g.

I like Italian pizza.

The brick wall is beautiful.

2.4 **Types of Nouns**

a. Concrete nouns are people, places, or things that physical form and we can experience by taste, touch, or sight. Concrete nouns can be divided into common nouns and proper nouns.

i. **Common Nouns**

A common noun is a noun that is not the name of any particular person, place, or thing. For example: player, mountain, table, school etc. Common nouns combine effectively with determiners and can be made plural. These determiners are written before the noun they describe or quantify.

Concrete nouns can be divided into countable and uncountable nouns

a. Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are common nouns that can have plural forms i.e. they can combine with numbers or counting quantifiers, and can take an indefinite article such as “a” and “an”. For example: table, dog, man etc. as in the following sentences:

I have three tables in my living room.

Some dogs bark throughout the night.

A woman kidnapped the man.

b. Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns differ from count nouns in that they cannot take plural suffixes or combine with numbers.

I like rice.

I want to

The sentences below are ungrammatical because the uncountable nouns underlined are preceded by quantifiers.

*Three water is in the container.

*A rice can be boiled.

ii. Proper Nouns

A proper noun refers to a specific person, place, or thing. The proper noun begins with a capital letter irrespective of where it occurs in a phrase or clause. For example

I met Peter on my way here.

Is Volta River in Ghana?

Mountain Afadja is in the Volta Region.

Proper nouns do not have general determiner and be made plural unless the determiner is part of its nature. For example,

Mr. Ansah is a good friend.

Ansah is with them. (*Some Ansah is with them.)

All Ansah should get up. (*All Ansahs should get up.)

Exception:

The definite article is added when it forms part of the name:

The Hague is in The Netherlands. (Exception)

The Thames is a river in Britain.

iii. Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns refer to abstract objects, ideas, and concepts. Examples include happiness, air, sorrow etc. In English, many abstract nouns are formed by adding noun-forming suffixes to adjectives or verbs. For example: happiness, kindness, freedom etc.

iv. Collective nouns

Collective nouns refer to groups consisting of more than one individual or entity, even when they are inflected for singular. For example: flock, crowd, committee, team, and staff.

v. Compound nouns

A compound noun is formed when two or more words are combined to make a completely new word. This means that the meaning of the new word must be significantly different than either of its parts individually. For example: keyboard, softball, keyboard, table tennis, mother-in-law etc.

2.5 SUMMARY OF CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

Classification	Example	Comments

Count noun	party – parties	-have plural -need determiner
Non-count noun	Bitterness	determiner
Singular noun	sun, moon	need a determiner
Plural noun	scissors, people	no singular
Collective noun	public, staff	either singular or plural
Proper noun	Mary, Accra	begins with a capital
Abstract noun	happiness, anger	no plural, no determiner

2.3 VERBS

In Unit 2.3, verbs will be discussed under the following:

- 2.3.1 Definition of verbs
- 2.3.2 Morphological approach
- 2.3.3 Types of verbs
- 2.3.4 Forms of regular verbs
- 2.3.5 Irregular verbs
- 2.3.6 Time, tense and aspect

2.3.1 Definitions of Verbs

(i) A verb is a word used with a subject to say what someone or something does or what happens to them (notional). It emphasizes that it is the doing aspect of the word.

(ii) Traditional grammar looks at a verb as a doing word. It isolates doing as the central aspect of verbs.

iii. Semantics: A word that expresses an action, process, state, condition or mode of existence.

Disadvantage: it is not only verbs that can express state, process etc. Some nouns do that.

Advantage: It seeks to cover various semantic fields covered by verbs.

2.3.2 Morphological Approach:

Verbs can be recognised by looking at the kinds of shape (affixes) they take in representing reality.

i. A verb may take:

a. – s, es or -ies to express third person singular. That person is outside the immediate point of discourse. [Verb + s] e.g.: goes, walks, dances, etc.

b. i. [verb+ d] – past tense E.g.: dance – danced, love - loved

ii. [Verb + ed). E.g.: walk – walked, laugh - laughed

iii. Internal vowel change: find – found, steal – stole, beat – beat, come - came

Though they look different in realization, they belong to the same phenomenon.

c. [verb + -ing] (continuous/progressive)

go – going

do – doing

put – putting (2nd ‘t’ shows that ‘u’ is a short vowel)

sing – singing

When the – ing form is used, we are thinking of the aspect form. The action has not been completed.

d. [verb + ed/en] (perfect)

walk – walked

talk – talked

beat – beaten

steal – stolen

}
}

e. Infinitive form:

Base form	Drink	Chase	Walk
To-Infinitive	to drink	to chase	to walk
3 rd person singular s-form	drinks	chases	walks
-ed form	drunk	chased	walked
Ing form	drinking	chasing	walking
-en/ed form	drunken	chased	walked

2.3.4 Types of Verbs

i. Action verbs – tell what the subject does.

John broke the jar.

The verb can be transitive or intransitive. A transitive verb takes a direct object while an intransitive verb does not take a direct object.

John broke the jar. (Transitive)

I laughed. (Intransitive)

ii. Linking verbs

Linking verbs join the subject and the predicate. Linking verbs do not show action. Instead, they connect the subject of a sentence with an adjective, noun or descriptive phrase (complement). It links the subject to a subject complement. Linking verbs do not have an object. The most common linking verb is the verb “to be” (in all of its forms, e.g., am, is, are, was, were, will be, was being, has been).

Ama is a nurse.

They are students.

iii. Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs (also known as helping verbs) are used with a main verb to help express the tense, mood or voice of the main verb. The main helping verbs are "a form of be," "a form of have," and "a form of do." They appear in the following forms:

a. To Be: am, is, are, was, were, being, been, will be

b. To Have: has, have, had, having, will have

c. To Do: does, do, did, will do

These forms of “be”, “have” and “do” can also be used as main verbs of sentences. For example

1a. The student is reading a story book this month. (Auxiliary verb)

1b. The student is in form three. (Main verb)

2a. A lady student has done a school bag. (Auxiliary verb)

2b. A lady student has a book. (Main verb)

3a. She did do the assignment. (Auxiliary verb for emphasis)

3b. She does her assignment. (Main verb)

iv. Modals auxiliary verbs

The helping verbs which express the mode of main verbs are called modals. Modal verbs allow us to talk about actions as possible, doubtful, or necessary. The main Modals are may, might, can, could, will, shall, would, should, must, need, ought to, used to.

Features of Modals

The main features of Modals are given below.

i. They do not come alone. They come with a main verb. For example,

Most men can carry heavy loads. The modal 'can' has 'carry' as its main verb.

ii. They indicate an action like ability, power, permission, request, possibility and willingness. For example

Most women can carry heavy loads. 'Can' shows ability to do something (carry heavy loads).

iii. The number, gender and persons do not affect them. For example,

Two people will win the race.

She will win the race.

The form of the verb phrase, will win, does not change with number, person and gender in the sentences above.

iv. They are used with 1st form of verb. But "to infinitive" is used with the modals like "ought" and "used". For example

We ought to do it well.

We used to learn in a glowing light.

v. They do not have any other forms. We cannot have neither past tense, nor third person present tense forms. These below are ungrammatical.

*Adjoa woulds

*Adjoa shalls

vi. Verb Phrase

a. We can have one verb in a clause and this is usually a lexical or main verb. This verb has content meaning. For example:

John played the ball.

She smiles all the time.

b. Sometimes/occasionally, the verb phrase may be one word but it is not a lexical item but a grammatical item. For example

I am a teacher.

She is a zealous student.

c. The verb may not take any sentence elements and yet its meaning will be expressed when the sentence is elliptic. An elliptical sentence means that some elements are intentionally left out but we still have grammatical sentences. E.g.

Speaker A: Do you like mangoes?

Speaker B: Yes I do. (Instead of: Yes, I do like mangoes)

Speaker C: Can you leave tomorrow?

Speaker D: Yes, we can. (Instead of yes we can leave tomorrow)

d. The verb phrase may also consist of one or more auxiliaries + a main verb. This is a headed construction. For example

He will run through the town. (one auxiliary verb)

I would have got the message on time. (two auxiliary verbs)

She should have been made the manager all these years. (three auxiliary verbs)

e. Verbs of State

Verbs that show state are not usually used in the continuous form except in idiomatic expressions.

i. Verbs relating to senses e.g. feel, hear, see, smell, taste etc.

I see people walking on the lawn.

I am seeing the lady off. (idiomatic)

*I am seeing people walking on the lawn. (Ungrammatical)

ii. Emotions – adore, fear, hate, like, love

I like the show.

*I am liking the show

iii. Mental activity e.g. Agree, believe, expect, forget, mean

I believe in the existence of God.

*We are believing in the existence of God.

iv. Possession: belong, own, possess

The car belongs to me.

*The car is belonging to me.

2.3.5 Forms of Regular Verbs:

The base form – pull (present simple same as base form)

3rd person singular – pulls (present simple tens +‘s’)

Past simple – pulled (base + ed)

Past participle – pulled (base + ed)

Present participle – pulling (base + ing)

Base form = bare infinitive (This is what is listed in the dictionary)

Base	3rd person	Past	participle	-ing
Pull	pulls	pulled	pulled	pulling
Walk	walks	walked	walked	walking
Dance	dances	danced	danced	dancing
Want	creates	created	created	creating

2.3.6 Irregular Verbs

a. Group A

Base – put

Present simple – puts

Past simple – put

Present participle – putting

Past participle – put

Base	3rd person	Present participle	Past	Past participle
put	puts	putting	put	put
cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut
cast	casts	casting	cast	cast
shed	sheds	shedding	shed	shed

b. Group B

Base – buy

Present simple – buys

Past simple – bought

Present participle – buying

Past participle – bought

base	3rd person	present participle	past	past participle
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buy	buys	buying	bought	bought
teach	teaches	teaching	taught	taught
think	thinks	thinking	thought	thought
make	makes	making	made	made

b2: burn burnt burned
dream dreamt dreamed
learn learnt learned

base	3rd person	present participle	past	past participle
burn	burns	burning	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
dream	dreams	dreaming	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed
dwell	dwells	dwelling	dwelt/dwelled	dwelt/dwelled
light	lights	lighting	lit/lighted	lit/lighted

c. Group C

Base – go

Present simple – goes

Past simple – went

Present participle – going

Past participle – gone

base	3rd person	present participle	past	past participle
go	goes	going	went	gone
eat	eats	eating	ate	eaten
grow	grows	growing	grew	grown
break	breaks	breaking	broke	broken

2.4 Time Tense and Aspect

Time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present and future. Tense on the other hand is a temporary linguistic quality expressing the time at, during, or over which a state or action denoted by a verb occurs and is language specific. Aspect indicates whether the action is completed (perfect) or on-going (progressive). The distinction between tense and aspect is not clearly cut or universally agreed upon.

2.4.1 Tense

Tense shows whether an action or a state took place in the past or takes place in the present. What we call ‘tense’ in English combines the grammatical notions of tense and aspect. Tense indicates the time that the action of the verb took place (now, earlier, later or present, past or future). Historically, English has ending for only two tenses, present and past (He plays/He played).

Grammarians still do not agree on the number of tenses that English has. Biber, et al. (1999), argue that English has only two tenses – present and past. Their argument is that tense is marked and since only the present and past tenses are marked, in English, then there can only be two tenses.

i. Simple Present Tense:

a) The simple present tense has the same form as the infinitive form of the verb but adds an ‘s’ to the third person singular. For example,

bare infinitive: work

to infinitive: to work

simple present:

1st person: I work,

2nd person: you work

3rd person: he/she works.

b). Uses of the Simple Present Tense:

i. It is used to talk about our thoughts and feelings at the present moment, or about our immediate reactions to something:

They both taste the same

My stomach aches.

ii. It is used to express universal or general truths:

The sun rises in the east; Birds fly.

The river flows from the north to the south.

iii. It is used to talk about a settled state of affairs which includes the present moment but where a particular time reference is not important:

Mum works in Accra.

John lives in New York.

iv. It is used to express regular or habitual actions:

John smokes.

I get up early in the morning.

v. It is used in reviews: the simple present is used when discussing what happens in a book, film or play:

In the play she plays the part of Juliet.

vi. It is used used in commentaries: on radio and television; commentators often use the simple present tense:

Kuffour takes the ball upfield and passes to Bekoe. He turns, shoots – and a fine save from Moffat.

vii. It is used in reporting what someone told you at some point in the recent past:

They tell me Amedzofe is a beautiful town.

viii. When commenting on what you are saying or doing:

I enclose a cheque for fifty thousand Ghana cedis.

c. Simple Past Tense:

1 Verbs are traditionally divided into two classes, according to the ways they form their past tense and past participles. Some verbs are regular. This means they form the past tense and past participle by adding –d or -ed to the present form. E.g.

Present	talk	want	type
Past	talked	wanted	typed
Participle	talked	wanted	typed

2. Irregular verbs do not form the past by adding –d or –ed. They form the past in many ways by changing the:

i. Vowel and adding –n or –en as in begin, began, begun

Present	take	begin	shake
Past	took	began	shook
Participle	taken	begun	shaken

ii. Vowel and adding –d or –t as in lose, lost, lost

Present	lose
Past	lost
Participle	lost

iii. However, no change occurs in words such as in set, put, cast etc.

Present	put	set	cast
Past	put	set	cast
Participle	put	set	Cast

iv. Over time, we have come to accept regular verbs as the “normal” ones, so we now usually add –“d” or –“ed” to new verbs, as in:

-televise - televised;

-computerise- computerised.

Unlike the simple present tense, the same form of the past tense is used for all persons:

I walked

You walked

He/she walked

d. Uses of the Simple Past Tense:

The simple past tense is normally used for the relation of past events. It is used to show that an event occurred or something was the case at a particular time in the past. An action in the past may be seen as having taken place at a particular point of time or over a period.

It is used to:

indicate that a situation existed over a period of time in the past:

He lived in Accra for a long time.

talk about an activity that took place regularly or repeatedly in the past, but which no longer occurs:

Each month people walked to the bank to collect their money.

2.3.5 Continuous and Perfect Tenses vrs Progressive and Perfective Aspect

As stated earlier whichever term used depicts the same thing, therefore the worry should not be on the terminology but the use. This is because both the continuous tense and the progressive aspect denote the same action, (an action that still has not ended), just as the perfect tense and the perfective aspect do, (an action that has ended).

a. The Present Continuous/Progressive: (to be + present participle)

It is used to

describe an action that is happening at the moment you are speaking:

I am eating kenkey and fish.

talk about a habitual action that takes place regularly:

Peter is drinking too much.

indicate changes, trends, development and progress:

The demand for oil is increasing very fast.

b. The Present Perfect/Continuous:

It is used to talk about

something that happened in the past but the specific time is not mentioned:

The government has raised 900 million dollars from the sale of Ghana Telecom.

a situation that started at some time in the past, continued, and is still happening now

Throughout my life as a teacher, I have waited for the day society will respect teachers.

**The present perfect continuous can also be used:

Throughout my life as a teacher, I have been waiting for the day society will respect teachers.

It is also used to emphasise the duration of a recent event:

John has been crying.

d. The Past Continuous/Progressive:

It is used to

talk about repeated action which occurred in the past:

The boy was crying.

contrast a situation with an event which happened just after the situation existed:

I was driving on the highway when I saw the antelope.

e. The Past Perfect Continuous/Progressive:

This tense is used to

talk about an event that happened at a particular time in the past:

The food had become contaminated by the dust.

emphasise the recentness and duration of a continuous activity which took place before a particular place in the past:

The nurse had been working alone at the hospital.

indicate that something was expected, wished for or intended before a particular time in the past:

I had been expecting the parcel. John had hoped to pass the driving test.

f. Perfective Aspect

A form of the auxiliary 'have' + ed form (past participle) of the main verb

The action is complete at the time of speaking

I've finished reading the book.

Jojo has borrowed the book.

The action was complete at the time you are referring to:

I had forgotten my promise to my cousin.

John had seen the film three times already, but she didn't mind.

2.3.6 The Future

In English, the "future" can be realised through the following:

- i. Will/shall is used with the base form of the verb to indicate that something is planned to happen:

John will do the work.

The landlord will solve the problem.

- ii 'Be going to' + infinitive:

I am going to eat the food.

The school is going to organise a durbar.

- iii. The present progressive:

The president is travelling to France.

2.4 ADJECTIVES

Adjectives will be discussed under the following:

2.4.1 Notional Definition of adjectives

2.4.2 Morphological criterion

2.4.3 Syntactic/Grammatical Functions

2.4.4 Gradable/Non-gradable adjectives

2.4.5 Types of Adjectives

2.4.6 Order of adjectives

2.4.1 Notional Definition of Adjectives:

Adjectives are nearly always used in connection with a noun or pronoun to give information about a person, thing or group. For example,

Don't cross the red line.

Black people look stronger.

The strong room is out of bounds.

That was an ugly scene.

The underlined words give information about the nouns they modify.

2.4.2 **Morphological Criterion**

We usually cannot tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation, because the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its word class. Adjectives take many forms. Some common adjectives are, however, formed when we add a suffix to a noun or verb. For example:

- able - comfortable

- al - seasonal

- ful - playful

- ic - scientific

- ish - bluish

- less - useless

- ous - dangerous

- y - dirty

We should be mindful that these suffixes do not always suggest adjectives. Many other adjectives are not formed from nouns or verbs. They have no identifying form but are original in themselves. For example, *good*, *fat*, *young*. Many adjectives provide the base from which adverbs are derived by means of an -ly suffix.

adjective	adverb
great	greatly
beautiful	beautifully
fearful	fearfully

2.4.3 Syntactic/Grammatical Functions of Adjectives

a. Attributive function

Adjectives occur in the attributive position (i.e. they are written before a noun). The focus is on the noun it is modifying. For example

This is an ugly picture.

Don't cross the red line.

Black women are most beautiful.

b. Predicative function

Adjectives have predicative function' A predicate adjective is an adjective that follows a linking verb. It can either be a subject or object complement. For example

The man is handsome.

The food tastes good.

It was interesting.

- c. Can be pre-modified by the intensifier “very”.

The boys are very happy.

She was very jovial.

2.4.4 Gradable/Non-gradable Adjectives

Gradable adjectives describe qualities that can be measured in degrees such as size, age, beauty etc. They are called gradable because they can be compared and used in comparative and superlative forms. A comparative adjective is used to compare two things. A superlative adjective, on the other hand, is used when you compare three or more things.

The three degrees of an adjective are positive, comparative and superlative. Their use depends on how many things you are talking about.

A positive adjective is a normal adjective that is used to describe, not compare. For example: “This book is *big*” and “I am *handsome*.”

A comparative adjective is an adjective that’s used to compare two things (and is often followed by the word *than*). For example: “This book is *bigger than the other one*” or “John is *more handsome than Kwame*.”

A superlative adjective is an adjective that is used to compare three or more things, or to state that something is the **extreme** (*most*). For example: “This is the *biggest* book I have ever seen” or “John is the *most handsome* boy in the class.”

2.4.5 Formation of comparative and Superlative Adjectives.

Forming comparatives and superlatives depends on the number of syllables in the original (positive) adjective.

i. One Syllable

Add *-er* for the comparative and *-est* for the superlative. If the adjective has a consonant + single vowel + consonant spelling, the final consonant must be doubled before adding the ending.

positive	comparative	superlative
short	shorter	shortest
tall	taller	tallest
big	bigger	biggest
fat	fatter	fattest

ii. Two syllables

Adjectives with two syllables can form the comparative either by adding *-er* or by placing *more* before the adjective. The superlative is also formed by either adding *-est* or by putting *most* before the adjective. For adjectives ending in *y*, change the “*y*” to an “*i*” before adding the ending.

positive	comparative	superlative
happy	happier	happiest
simple	simpler	simplest
tangled	more tangled	most tangled

dirty	dirtier	dirtiest
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iii. Three or more syllables

Adjectives with three or more syllables form the comparative by putting *more* in front of the adjective, and the superlative by putting *most* in front.

positive	comparative	superlative
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
expensive	more expensive	most expensive

iv. Irregular comparatives and superlatives

These very common adjectives have completely irregular comparative and superlative forms.

positive	comparative	superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least

v. Adjectives can also be graded by the use of intensifiers – that is adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of the adjective. For example:

extremely beautiful

very beautiful

vi. Non-gradable adjectives

Some adjectives describe qualities that are completely present or absent. They do not occur in comparative and superlative forms. We should emphasise that some adjectives are both gradable and non-gradable. For example,

 furious, terrified, overjoyed (these represent extremes)

 or alive, correct (these represent absolutes)

2.4.5 Types of Adjectives

Grammarians and linguists have classified adjectives into various types. Our discussion is based on the classification made by Thomson and Martinet (1999).

1. Descriptive adjectives (Common adjectives)

Descriptive adjectives give the characteristics of a noun. They can talk about:

The quality of what is being described: – identify qualities which someone/something has: shape, height, size, etc. for example – sad story; pretty girl; small child

They are gradable: the person or thing can have more or less of the quality.

The class that something belongs to: identify someone or something as a member of a class. E.g.: daily shower; abdominal pains

The colour of something – identify the colour of a thing. For example: green, white, black, etc.

2. Quantitative adjectives

Quantitative adjectives describe the quantity of something. In other words, they answer the question “how much?” or “how many?” For example:

(Numbers like) *two, twenty, many, half* and *a lot*. Few, little

Twenty books have been distributed so far.

Few people are generous these days.

3. Demonstrative

A demonstrative adjective describes “which” noun or pronoun one is referring to. These adjectives include the words:

This — used to refer to a singular noun close to you.

That — used to refer to a singular noun far from you.

These — used to refer to a plural noun close to you.

Those — used to refer to a plural noun far from you.

Note: Demonstrative adjectives always come before the word they’re modifying.)

4. Possessive

Possessive adjectives show *possession*. They describe to whom a thing belongs. Some of the most common possessive adjectives include:

My — belonging to me

His — belonging to him

Her — belonging to her

Their — belonging to them

Your — belonging to you

Our — belonging to us

All these adjectives, except the word *his*, can only be used before a noun. You can't just say "That's my," you have to say "That's *my* pen."

5. Interrogative

Interrogative adjectives *interrogate*, meaning that they ask a question. These adjectives are always followed by a noun or a pronoun, and are used to form questions. The interrogative adjectives are:

Which — asks to make a choice between options.

What — asks to make a choice (in general).

Whose — asks who something belongs to.

Words, like "who" or "how," are not adjectives since they don't modify nouns. For example, you can say "whose shirt is this?" but you cannot say "who shirt is this?"

6. Distributive

Distributive adjectives describe specific members out of a group. These adjectives are used to single out one or more individual items or people.

Some of the most common distributive adjectives include:

Each — every single one of a group (used to speak about group members individually).

Every — every single one of a group (used to make generalizations).

Either — one between a choice of two.

Neither — not one or the other between a choice of two.

Any — one or some things out of any number of choices. This is also used when the choice is irrelevant, like: "it doesn't matter, I'll take *any* of them."

These adjectives are always followed by the noun or pronoun they are modifying. Eg.

Each student has college blazer.

Every parent has to be responsible.

2.4.6 Order of Adjectives

Generally, the order of adjectives in English is (Mnemonic: OSASCOMP):

- i. Opinion or quality – such as beautiful or priceless
- ii Size – such as gargantuan or petite
- iii. Age – such as young or aged
- iv. Shape – such as square or oblong
- v. Colour – such as red, pink or ash
- vi. Origin – such as Greek or Dutch
- vii. Material – such as wooden or plastic
- viii. Purpose – the qualifier is an adjective that denotes the item’s type or purpose, some examples are “evening bag”, “cooking pot” etc.

Example: A beautiful, large, new, round, pink, Ghanaian, leather, door mat.

(Source: <https://www.perfect-english-grammar.com/order-of-adjectives.html>)

2.5 ADVERBS

In Section 2.5, adverbs will be discussed under the following:

- 2.5.1 Notional definition of adverbs
- 2.5.2 Morphological criterion
- 2.5.3 Syntactic/Grammatical Functions

2.5.4 Types of Adverbs

2.5.1 Notional Definition of Adverbs

Adverbs give information about when, how, and where or in what circumstance an event takes place. An *adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another *adverb*. For example: “She swims quickly”. The event is supplied by the verb and the adjunct gives further information.

2.5.2 Morphological: Adverbs often end in -ly. When the -ly is attached to an adjective, an adverb is derived. E.g. adj + ly = adverb. For example,

adjective	adverb
happy	happily
beautiful	beautifully
angry	angrily

Note: most of the adverbs formed this way are adverbs of manner. Some -ly adverbs have slightly different spellings from the adjectives they are related to.

E.g.: nasty – nastily
gentle – gently
angry - angrily

Note: words like “friendly”, “manly” and “lovely” are not adverbs though they end in “-ly”. They are derived from nouns and are therefore adjectives. This undermines the morphological description of adverbs that they end in -ly. There are adverbs which do not end in -ly which may also be used as adjectives.

fast now soon

late there quite

i. News travels fast (adv.)

ii. She likes fast cars (adj.)

Some adverbs have two forms: one same as the adjective and the other + ly.

E.g. deep/deeply

 direct/directly

 tight/tightly

Non -ly adverbs normally tend to be adverbs of place and time. -ly adverbs describe how things happen (how).

2.5.3 Syntactic/Grammatically Functions

Adverbs go with verbs rather than with nouns. Adverbs modify verbs E.g. He walks slowly.

The chief danced majestically

Adverbs can be used to modify adjectives.

E.g. – very funny

really beautiful

Adverbs function as adjuncts in clauses/sentences. Adjunct adverbials are words, phrases and clauses that modify a clause by providing information about time, place, manner, etc.

E.g. - The chief danced majestically.

An adverb can modify another adverb

E.g. He walked very slowly.

Position of Adverbs

Generally, adverbs make sense directly after the verbs they modify, but they can also be moved around the sentence. It can go at the beginning of the sentence, before the verb, or between a helping verb and the main verb.

I take coffee every day.

Every day, I take coffee.

I had every day taken coffee.

I every day take coffee.

2.5.5 Types of Adverbs

- i. Adverbs of manner - show how or what way something happens. E.g. slowly, beautifully, bravely, majestically, carefully, etc.
- ii. Adverbs of time - describes when or how long a certain action happened. E.g. ago, before, soon, always, etc.
- iii. Adverbs of place - tells about where something happens. E.g. here, near, near, around, etc.
- iv. Adverbs of frequency – describe how often something happens. E.g. always, once, often, occasionally, never, etc.
- v. Adverbs of degree - show how much, or in what degree or to what extent of qualities, properties, states, conditions and relations. For example, almost, fully, quite, etc.
- vi. Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation – answers that something is true or some equivalent negative statement. For example: certainly, surely, apparently, etc. For example:

We are *definitely* leaving for school tomorrow. (Affirmation)

The family *truly* accepts the marriage proposal. (Affirmation)

The sisters *hardly* ever meet each other. (negation)

I *never* talk to him this way. (negation)

**EBS 135: ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES 1
TUTORIAL QUESTIONS BASED ON UNITS 1 & 2**

UNIT 1: RANK SCALE AND RANKSHIFT

Exercise 1

Identify the number of morphemes in the following words.

- a. agreements
- b. tarantula
- c. misconceptions
- d. gargantuan
- e. figure
- f. parliamentarians
- g. shootings

Exercise 2

Identify the type of phrase underlined in the following sentences.

- a. The new headmaster has been introduced to the staff.
- b. John has been voted worker of the year.
- c. John has been voted worker of the year
- d. The boy hid the book behind the shelf.
- e. The boy hid the book behind the shelf.
- f. Jane wore a beautiful silky dress.
- g. James shouted very loudly to attract her attention.

Exercise 3

Identify the type of sentence structure (simple, compound, etc.) of each of the following sentences.

- a. I tried to study Spanish but my brother studied French
- b. Kwame and Ama play football every afternoon.
- c. After they had finished writing the difficult quiz, the students were angry with the teacher.
- d. While Yaw reads novels, Afia reads comics, but Sam only reads magazines.
- e. Although John is old, he is not married.
- f. We missed the flight because we were late to the airport.
- g. John left the party in a hurry after he got a phone call but he came back a few.
- h. Kwame ate rice and beans stew this morning.

UNIT 2: WORD CLASSES

Exercise 1

Change the following words from singular to plural.

- i. brother-in-law
- ii. possession
- iii. medium
- iv. knife
- v. handkerchief
- vi. furniture
- vii. fox

Exercise 2

Identify the word class of each of the underlined words or phrases in the following passage.

Abraham Otibah, 36, a Ghanaian resident in Italy, has been arrested(i) by personnel(ii) of NACOB for swallowing 115 pellets of substances believed to be cocaine. The haul(iii) is one of the highest recorded(iv) by the NACOB in recent(v) times. Otibah's demeanor(vi) coupled with the sluggish(vii) manner in which he moved around aroused the suspicion(viii) of the NACOB personnel. Otibah was then put under observation(ix) during which he was induced(x) to expel 115 pellets leaving two in his stomach.

Exercise 3

Arrange the adjectives in the following sentences correctly.

- i. James has a Italian wonderful old clock.
- ii. The family took a ride on an old, attractive German, blue limousine.
- iii. I bought a pair of new nice dinner red shoes.
- iv. During my college days, I wore a red, white and black big hat to the stadium.
- v. Mrs. Essel is an old, Ghanaian, outstanding, academic scholar.
- vi. We met a young, tall, smart-looking, naval, Liberian Officer.

Exercise 4

Identify the adverb use in each of the following sentences and indicate the type of adverb, (manner, frequency, etc.).

- i. The tutorial questions were extremely difficult.
- ii. I find it difficult to sleep these days, I am always up by 3am.
- iii. John drove the car dangerously around the corner.
- iv. I searched everywhere but I could not find the book.
- v. The newly-installed chief danced majestically at the durbar.

Exercise 5

With appropriate examples, indicate the ways of expressing the future in English.

UNIT 3

INTRODUCTION TO WRITING

3.1 Punctuation Marks

Punctuation literally means “pointing” (Latin, *punctus*, a point). In grammar, it is the name given to the division of statements, or collections of words, into sentences, clauses, phrases, questions, quotations and exclamations.

In speech, one usually uses pauses of different length, by the speaker’s tone of voice, by inflection, by emphasis, by facial expression, and in the case of questions, by the order of words. In writing, however, punctuation marks are used intelligently to separate and join units of language into a cohesive text.

The incorrect use of punctuation marks can however, change the entire meaning of a sentence.

Our discussion will focus on the main punctuation marks.

3.2 Types of Punctuation Marks

3.2.1 Capitalization

Capitalization is the writing of a word with its first letter in uppercase and the remaining letters in lowercase. For the avoidance of doubt, English has rules that govern the use of capital letters.

English Capitalization Rules:

i. A capital letter is used as the initial letter of the first word of a sentence. *Students* should always respect rules.

ii. A capital letter is used as the initial letter of a name of a person or proper noun.

Chinua Achebe is one of the best authors of our time.

iii. A capital letter is used as the initial letter of the names of cities, countries, rivers, companies, religions, and political parties which are also considered as proper nouns.

Accra is the capital of *Ghana*.

Rome is an ancient city.

iv. Names of days, months, religious festivals and holidays are also capitalised. (But Not Seasons)

Friday is a holiday.

May is the most difficult month of the year.

Christmas is one of the major festivals celebrated by Christians.

v. A capital letter is always used as the initial letter of a noun that is a trade name.

Peugeot is an expensive car.

- vi. Specific periods, eras, and historical events that have proper names should be capitalized.

Most of the *World War I* veterans have been honoured.

In the *Middle Ages*, poor hygiene was partly responsible for the spread of.

- vii. Capitalize the First Word of a Quote (Sometimes)

Kwame asked, “*When* are schools re-opening?”

- viii. Do not capitalize the first item in a list that follows a colon. In most cases, a capital is not used after a colon.
John bought the following items from the store: *rice, sugar, milk, and bread.*

3.3 Full Stop (.)

The full stop or period (American) is one of the most important punctuation marks and the most emphatic because its main function is to mark the end of a sentence and so separate one sentence from another. This sentence-terminal use, alone, defines the strictest sense of a full stop.

The students arrived late to school.

3.3.1 Uses of the Full Stop

- i. The full stop is used at the end of a declarative statement.

The weather looks excellent today.

ii. The Full Stop and Abbreviations

The full stop is sometimes used to denote abbreviations. There are no hard and fast rules about the use or omission of a full stop in a given abbreviation, so the best recommendation is to avoid ambiguity and be consistent. There are usually no full stops in abbreviations involving the first and last letters of a word (contractions).

For example, Dr, Sr, Mrs,

(In American English, the full stop is allowed after titles: Mr. Mensah; Dr. Mensah)

Academic qualifications such as BA or DD and the designation MP are usually written without full stops.

Abbreviations involving the first few letters of a word are likely to have full stops, for example, Sept. for September; Prof. for Professor; Capt. For Captain.

iii. We use the full stop in numbers.

A full stop used in a number is also called a decimal point.

The price of petrol has been increased by 1.5%.

iv. Email and website addresses

The full stop is used in email addresses: sekonti5@yahoo.com

(The inclusion or omission of a full stop, and also its placing, is very important in email and website addresses. Failure to get this right can prevent the successful sending of an email or the accessing of a website,)

3.4 Comma (,)

The comma is a punctuation mark that appears in several variants in different languages. It has the same shape as an apostrophe or single closing quotation mark in many typefaces, but it differs from them in being placed on the baseline of the text.

A comma is an extremely common punctuation mark, but its use causes a great deal of concern and confusion in many people.

3.4.1 Some uses of the Comma

- i. The comma as a separating device in lists.

One of the common functions of the comma concerns lists. The individual items in a list of three or more items are separated by commas. It is modern accepted practice to omit the last comma before “and” in the enumeration’

We bought mangoes, tomatoes, oranges and bananas at the shop.

- ii. The comma as a separating device in the list of adjectives.

In cases where there is a list of adjectives before the noun, the use of the commas between the adjectives is now considered optional by some grammarians. Thus, the two examples below are both considered correct.

- a. A beautiful, large, new, round, pink, Ghanaian door mat.
- b. A beautiful large new round pink Ghanaian door mat.

iii. Commas and relative clauses

Commas are used to separate non-defining relative clauses in a sentence.

My brother, who is a dentist, has retired.

However, they are not used in defining relative clauses:

My brother who is a dentist has retired.

iv. Commas and subordinate clauses.

Commas are usually not used to separate main and subordinate clauses, however, if a dependent clause comes before the independent clause, commas are used to separate them.

Although it rained heavily, we still went to church.

We arrived at the station after the train had left.

v. Use a comma to set off appositives. .

A noun or noun phrase is said to be in apposition when it is placed next to another noun or noun phrase and provides further information about it, especially by saying something that identifies or describes them. When such a noun or noun phrase is placed after the main noun or noun phrase in the sentence, a comma is used to separate them.

Mr. Mensah, *the headmaster*, has retired.

Amakye Dede, *the astute highlife musician*, has been honoured.

- vi. Use a comma to separate two independent clauses when they are connected by a conjunction.

The trip was expensive, but it was worth it.

- vii. Use a comma to indicate direct address.

When you want to indicate that a person used particular words, you use a quote structure. The quote structure is introduced by a comma.

Kwame said, "My father was a missionary."

"You see," he said, "my father was a missionary,"

- viii. Use the comma with question tags.

A comma is used to separate a question tag from the statement.

You don't like mangoes, do you?

The criminals have destroyed the farm, haven't they?

- ix. Use a comma after introductory adverbs.

When a word or phrase forms an introduction to a sentence, you should follow it with a comma.

Finally, I have decided to inform the house that I'm leaving the scene.

On the other hand, it might be better to wait for an official letter from the office.

- x. Use a comma when writing the date.

When writing a date, a comma is used to separate the day from the month, and the date from the year.

Saturday, June 27, 2020 is my birthday.

3.5 Question Mark (?)

The question mark is a punctuation mark that indicates an interrogative clause or phrase in many languages. The question mark also known as “the query” is used to mark the end of a sentence which asks a question. The question mark is not used for indirect questions.

What is your name?

3.6 Apostrophe (')

An apostrophe is used with the letter “s” to indicate that something belongs to someone or something. In other words, it used to indicate possession.

- i. A singular noun usually indicates possession by adding “s” (apostrophe ‘s’) to the singular form of the noun.

Kwame’s new car is magnificent.

- ii. A plural noun usually indicates possession by adding “s” to the plural form to the plural form ending in ‘s’.

All the *workers’* cars have been seized.

We add ‘s to irregular plural nouns that do not end in ‘s’.

Men’s shoes are always expensive.

- iii. Add ‘s to the last noun in a group to show joint possession of an object. Example: *Kwame and Ama’s* birthday.

- iv. The apostrophe is used to indicate omitted letters in contracted forms of words.

I *don’t* like oranges.

- v. Formation of plurals of letters, numbers, and symbols.

The apostrophe is inserted in the creation of the plurals of letters, numbers, and symbols.

Two B’s = two letters that happen to both B.

James got only B’s during the examinations.

Six 5’s will give you thirty.

3.7 Semicolon (;)

It is regarded as a formal form of punctuation which is mainly used between clauses that are not joined by any form of conjunctions. In the English language, a semicolon can be used between two closely related independent clauses, provided they are not already joined by a coordinating conjunction, those ideas are then given equal position or rank.

We had a wonderful holiday; unfortunately they did not.

- i. The semicolon as a separation device in lists:

The semicolon is used to separate the items in a long list or series of things so that the said list seems less complex and easier to understand.

The newly-trained broadcast journalist has applied to several radio and television stations. He has applied to GTV; Radio Gold; Peace FM; UTV in Accra; Hello FM in Kumasi; Skyy FM in Takoradi.

- ii. The semicolon is used when connecting two sentences or independent clauses. Unlike the comma, you do not use coordinating conjunctions, e.g., and, or, but, etc. A capital is not used at the beginning of the second independent clause after the semicolon.

We have extra seats for the concert; you must buy your ticket early..

- iii. Use a semicolon as a separation device of certain adverbs.

The semicolon is sometimes used before such adverbs as however, nevertheless, hence, moreover, furthermore. In such situations, a preceding pause is required but that pause should be longer and

stronger than a comma.

Come along with any four items; however, shoes and shirts are excluded.

3.8 Colon (:)

The colon is a punctuation mark that is used to separate two parts of a sentence when the first leads to the second.

- i. It is used to explain, interpret, clarify or amplify what has gone before it.

Fuel prices these days are unpredictable: they are increased almost every week.

- ii. The colon is used to introduce a list.

The list given to me by father-in-law includes: umbrella, a piece of cloth, native sandals, tobacco and a box of matches.

- iii. A colon is used to introduce a quotation or a piece of direct speech.

One of my favourite quotations is: 'There is no art to find the mind's construction on the face.'

- iv. The colon is sometimes used in numerals and a ratio.

8:45 a.m.; 27:06:58; 8:5

- v. The colon is used in the titles of books, for example where there is a subtitle or explanatory title.

The Dark Years: the Economy in the 1930s.

3.9 Quotation Marks (“ ” or ‘ ’)

Quotation marks also known as inverted commas are used to enclose material that is part of a direct speech.

Uses of quotation marks

- i. Quotation marks are used at the beginning and end of pieces of direct speech. Only the words actually spoken are placed within the quotation marks.

“If I had enough money,” John said, “I would buy new car.”

- ii. If there is a statement such as **he said** following the piece of direct speech, a comma is placed before the second quotation mark,

“If I had enough money,” John said, “I would buy new car.”

- iii. If a piece of direct speech is a question or exclamation, a question mark or exclamation mark is used instead of a comma.

“Do you have enough money on you?” Kwame asked.

“Don’t be silly!” his father screamed.

- iv. If a statement such as *John said* is placed within a sentence in a direct speech, a comma is placed after *John said* and the second part of the piece of the direct speech does not begin with a capital letter.

“I know very well,” Ama said bitterly, “that you don’t like me.”

- v. The full stop at the end of a piece of direct speech that is a sentence is placed before the closing inverted commas or quotation mark.

Ama said, “I seldom go church.”

- vi. Quotation marks are sometimes used to indicate the title of a book or newspaper.

“Have you read ‘Things Fall Apart’ by Chinua Achebe?” the teacher asked.

“My favourite Ghanaian newspaper is the ‘ Daily Guide’,” Kwame said.

- vii. Quotation marks are often used with technical terms, terms used in an unusual way, or other expressions that vary from standard usage.

Examples:

“Blind dating” used to be my favourite entertainment activity when I was a student.

When Peter entered the house, he realised he was in “enemy” territory.

3.10 Hyphen (-)

A hyphen is used to join two words together or to indicate that a word has been broken at the end of the line due to lack of space.

Some uses of the hyphen

- i. The hyphen is usually used in compound adjectives when they occur before the noun.

solar-heated buildings

fair-weather friends

- ii. The hyphen is used in compound adjectives consisting of two elements, the second of which ends in –ed.

fair-minded

heavy-hearted

- iii. The hyphen is always used in some fixed compounds of two or three words.

son-in-law

good-for-nothing

- iv. The hyphen is used when *self-*, *ex*, and *all* are prefixed to words.

self-centred

self-styled

all-powerful

ex-wife

- v. Numbers between 21 and 99 should be hyphenated when they are written in words.

twenty-one

thirty-two

ninety-nine

The hyphen is also used in fractions.

two-thirds

three-quarters

- vi. When numbers are used as the first part of a compound adjective, use a hyphen to connect them to the noun that follows them. This makes both words function like a unit to modify another noun. This applies whether the number is written in words or in digits.

four-legged table

(4-legged table)

twenty-minute drive

(20-minute drive)

- vii. The hyphen is used as a prefixed element in a proper noun.

pro-African

anti-American

The hyphen is also used before dates or abbreviations.

pre-1966

post-2020

anti-EU

anti-TUC

- viii. The hyphen is used to break words at the end of a line. Natural breaks (orthographic, syllabic and morphological) are observed.

pronounce-ment

not *prononc-ement*

3.11 Exclamation

Exclamation marks were originally called the "note of admiration." They are used to express excitement. They are also used to express surprise, astonishment, and sometimes a directive or any other such strong emotion. Any exclamatory sentence can be properly followed by an exclamation mark, to add additional emphasis.

What a beautiful day!

How marvellous!

You must be joking!

3.12 Dash (–)

Dashes, like commas, semicolons, colons, ellipses, and parentheses, indicate added emphasis, an interruption, or an abrupt change of thought.

i. The dash as a pause

When a dash is used to indicate a pause in a sentence, it is essential that after the pause the continuation is strongly linked with the part of the sentence preceding it.

It was not a lion – it was an elephant that was causing the havoc in the forest.

ii. The dash in Parenthesis

A pair of dashes may be used in place of a pair of brackets. This is referred to as the “parenthetical use” of the dash.

All night long they travelled – it was their third straight night without rest – and by morning they were completely exhausted.

iii. The dash as a link.

The dash can be used to indicate a connecting link. It may be between the general and the particular or before lists and summaries or it may link a quotation with its source.

“Africans need strong men to rule them,” – Donald Trump.

It can be used to link breaks in speech:

“Jane, I’ve ordered you chips and fish – I forgot you prefer only chicken, don’t you?”

What is the difference between a hyphen and a dash?

A hyphen joins two or more words together while a dash separates words into parenthetical statements. The two are sometimes confused because they look so similar, but their usage is different. Hyphens are not separated by spaces, while a dash has a space on either side.

Practice Exercise

1. Read the passage below and correct all punctuation errors.

Okonkwo's first wife soon finished her cooking and set before their guest's a big meal of pounded yams and bitterleaf soup. Okonkwo's son Nwoye, brought in a pot of sweet wine tapped from raffia palm..

You're a big man now Obierika said to Nwoye. Your friend Anene asked me to greet you.

Is he well? asked Nwoye.

We are all well, said Obierika.

Ezinma brought them a bowl of water with which to wash their hands. After that they began to eat and to drink the wine.

"When did you set out from home?" asked Okonkwo.

"We had meant to set out from my house before cockcrow" said Obierika. But Nweke did not appear until it was quite light. Never make an early morning appointment with a man who has just married a new wife. they all laughed.

2. Explain clearly how the meaning of the sentences below is altered by the changes in punctuation.

The captain said the goalkeeper was letting the club down.

The captain, said the goalkeeper, was letting the side down.

The captain said the goalkeeper was letting the side down?

The captain said: "The goalkeeper was letting the side down?"

"The captain?" said the goalkeeper, "Was letting the side down?"

UNIT 3 B

INTRODUCTION TO WRITING 2

3.12 What is a Paragraph?

A paragraph is a series of related sentences developing a central idea, called the topic. A paragraph is a sentence or a group of sentences that supports one central, unified idea. Paragraphs add one idea at a time to your broader argument.

A paragraph is a self-contained unit of a discourse in writing dealing with a particular point or idea. Paragraphs show a reader where the sub-divisions of an essay begin and end, and thus help the reader see the organization of the essay and grasp its main points. In fact, the cardinal rule of paragraph writing is to focus on one idea.

The Structure of a Paragraph

Most paragraphs in an essay have a three-part structure—introduction, body, and conclusion. You can see this structure in paragraphs whether they are narrating, describing, comparing, contrasting, or analysing information. Each part of the paragraph plays an important role in communicating your meaning to your reader.

a. Introduction:

The first section of a paragraph; should include the topic sentence which states the main idea of the paragraph. The topic sentence is the sentence which tells the reader

what the paragraph is about. Generally, the topic sentence appears at the beginning of the paragraph.

i. The topic sentence is a summary of the main idea in the paragraph. It is a general statement that is provable with explanations and examples.

For example:

i) *There are three reasons why young graduates refuse to engage in agricultural ventures.*

*ii) *Goats usually have four legs. (It is a statement which needs no further information)*

ii. The topic sentence should be your own idea, written in your own words not a quotation or paraphrase or someone else' idea.

b. Body/Generalization

i. The issue stated in the topic sentence should be divided into several more specific statements that are sub-topics of the main idea.

ii. Details such as examples, specific ideas, facts, arguments, analysis, and other information are used to discuss the topic sentence.

c. Conclusion:

The final section; summarizes the connections between the information discussed in the body of the paragraph and the paragraph's controlling idea.

4.1 Other Features of a Good Paragraph

i. What is coherence?

Coherence is the connection of the parts of a written text together. Coherence is therefore related to ensuring that the words and sentences used in a piece of writing stick together. Coherence makes it easier for the reader to follow the main ideas in the piece of writing.

A paragraph must have coherence. The sentences must flow smoothly and logically from one to the next as they support the purpose of the paragraph.

Paragraph coherence is achieved when sentences are ordered in a logical manner and when clear transitions link sentences. It means that the sentences should be organized in a logical manner and should follow a definite plan of development.

Good coherence is achieved through the use of the following:

a. **Transition signals**

You can create a coherent paragraph by using transitional words at the beginning of related sentences within the paragraph. Transitional words and phrases connect sentences and paragraphs to each other. Within a paragraph, transitions provide coherence. They give the sense that the paragraph contains one main idea.

Transitions are words, groups of words, or sentences that connect one sentence to another or one paragraph to another. They promote a logical flow from one idea to the next and overall unity and coherence.

Transition signals, also called cohesive devices or linking words, are words or phrases which show the relationship between ideas. There are many different types, the most common of which are explained below:

	Relationship	Transition
1.	Addition	also, and, too, in addition, further, furthermore
2.	Time and Place	then, before, earlier, above, finally, later, next, subsequently
3.	Re-statement	in other words, in simpler terms, to re-state
4.	Emphasis/Insistence	indeed, in fact
5.	Sequence	in the first place, secondly, finally,
6.	Contrast	however, in contrast, on the contrary, on the other hand
7.	Comparison	similarly, likewise, in the same way, in like manner
8.	Cause and effect	since, because, so, thus, consequently, therefore
9.	Summary	to conclude, in conclusion, in short

b. **Reference Words**

Reference words are words which are used to refer to something which is mentioned elsewhere in the text, usually in a preceding sentence. This is often referred to as anaphoric reference which occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned earlier in the discourse. The most common type is pronouns, such as 'it' or 'this' or 'these'.

*Kwame reported to **school** early in the morning but **he** was disappointed that **it** was closed.*

He** refers to **Kwame

***It** refers to **school**.*

The reference could also be cataphoric which occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned later in the discourse.

*I visit **him** every month but my **uncle** doesn't feel satisfied.*

***He** refers to my **uncle**.*

c. **Repeated words/ideas**

One way to achieve coherence is to repeat words, or to repeat ideas using different words (synonyms).

d. **Substitution**

Substitution means using one or more words to replace one or more words used earlier in the text. Grammatically, it is similar to reference words, the main difference being that substitution is usually limited to the clause which follows the word(s) being substituted, whereas reference words can refer to something far back in the text. The most common words used for substitution are *one, so*, and auxiliary verbs such as *do, have* and *be*.

e. **Ellipsis**

Ellipsis means leaving out one or more words, because the meaning is clear from the context. Ellipsis is sometimes called *substitution by zero*, since essentially one or more words are substituted with no word taking their place.

ii. **Paragraph Unity:**

A paragraph with unity develops a single idea thoroughly and links it to the rest of the discourse. A paragraph has unity when all the sentences effectively relate back to the topic sentence at the beginning of the paragraph. When there is unity in the paragraph, the topic sentence, the supporting details, and the concluding sentence would focus on only one idea. It means that all the sentences refer to the main idea, or the topic sentence of the paragraph.

Unity helps the reader more to easily follow the progression of ideas in a discourse.

A writer may consider the following to attain unity in writing:

Develop a paragraph around a major idea.

Express this idea in the topic sentence.

Make the relationship between the main idea of the paragraph and the thesis of the paper clear.

Support the main idea of the paragraph with details.

Eliminate sentences that do not support the main idea.

Finally, let us consider what is meant by completeness in paragraph writing.

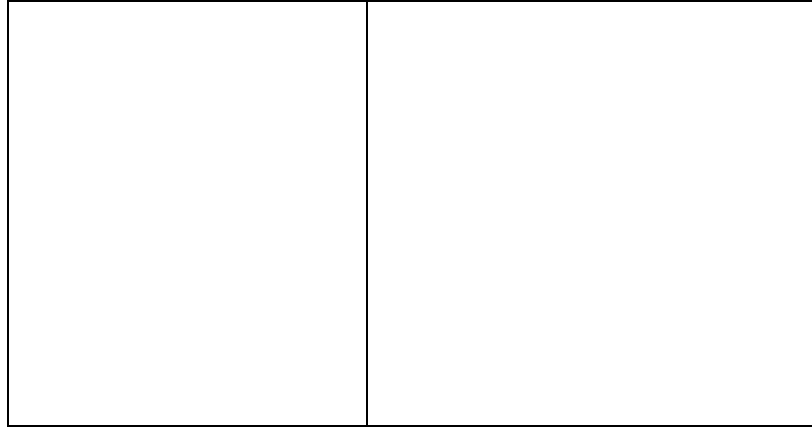
Completeness means that a paragraph is well-developed. If all sentences clearly and sufficiently support the main idea, then your paragraph is complete. If there are not enough sentences or enough information to support your topic sentence, then the paragraph is incomplete.

Practice Questions

1. What is the difference between “coherence” and “unity” in paragraph writing?

2. The paragraph is organised at three levels, list them.
3. Why will you describe a paragraph as incomplete?
4. Match the words in column two with the relationship they agree with.

Relationship	Transition
Addition	however
Time and Place	indeed
Re-statement	furthermore
Emphasis/Insistence	secondly
Sequence	in other words
Contrast	before



UNIT 4

WRITING AND THE WRITING MODES

4.1 Writing

Writing comes in a wide variety of types: newspaper articles, stories, personal letters, etc. each type of writing has its own set of specific guidelines that the writer must follow. These guidelines are dictated by the audience, eg: newspaper articles and short stories have short paragraphs and simple writing. Textbooks and academic writing usually have longer paragraphs and more complex writing.

4.2 The Writing Process

The process refers to what it takes to produce a piece of written work. The process includes: planning, drafting, simmering, revising and editing.

i. Planning

Before writing, you must plan – a well-planned writing becomes easier. Spend time to think about what you intend to write and how you intend to go about it.

Pick a topic, gather information about the topic – this includes the purpose of writing and your audience. Organise your ideas and create an outline.

ii. Drafting

It is the beginning of the of the writing. It is a way to discover more ideas about the topic because new ideas come up as you write the draft. Remember that a draft is never perfect and cannot be the final product.

The draft is a planning tool to expand your outline. The draft guides the writer to put his/her ideas on paper in a logically organised way. Mechanical errors will occur but these can be fixed during editing.

***Note: no one produces a perfect draft.**

iii. Simmering

Put the draft aside for a while. When you get close to the draft you might not see the mistakes in your writing. Think about what you wrote during the simmering period.

iv. Revising

This is a very important phase of the in the writing process. At this stage, there is the need to focus on the different aspects of your writing to find out how the well the ideas are expressed and organised.

v. Editing

This is the last phase before the final version is published. It involves correcting all the little mistakes that creep into the writing – spelling, punctuation, register, tense etc.

vi. Publishing

In this last step of the writing process, the final writing is shared with the group. Sharing can be accomplished in a variety of ways, and with the help of computers, it can even be printed or published online.

4.3 The Writing Modes

There are four writing capacities: writing to convey real or imagined experiences (narrative). writing to describe (descriptive), writing to explain (expository), and

writing to persuade (argumentative).

4.3.1 Narrative Writing

A narrative writing is a short story usually from a personal experience using a chronological sequence of events. Usually, narrative writing is categorized as fiction, which is based on imaginative events or stories that did not actually happen. A narrative writing usually tells of an event and ends with a revelation, insight, lesson or understanding.

Features of the narrative essay include the following

The narrative writing should have a beginning, middle (development) and ending.

The narrative might be funny or serious.

It normally includes the date/date, time, place, (setting)

Identify the characters involve involved in the narrative..

Expression usually depends on the mood of the writer/ characters.

There is the use of descriptive details, colourful words, etc.

Use of transitional expressions can help tie ideas together. They also help your narrative flow from one paragraph or idea to the other.

4.3.2 Descriptive Writing

This is writing used to depict physical items or objects that have concrete, touchable features. It can also be used to describe an event or place, an experience or emotion, or an idea. The goal of this kind of essay is to provide readers with enough detailed descriptions for them to be able to picture or imagine the chosen topic.

Unlike a narrative essay, which reveals meaning through a personal story, the purpose of a descriptive essay is to reveal the meaning of a subject through detailed, sensory observation. The descriptive essay employs the power of language and all the human senses to bring a subject to life for the reader.

Features of the descriptive essay include the following:

Use of sensory language – the language should appeal to the five senses: sight, hearing, smell, taste and touch.

Be precise in the choice of words so as to create the accurate picture in your reader's mind.

Use descriptive and figurative language, as well as concrete images to describe the subject.

Give full information – facts, examples, statistics, etc.

Provide

Provide sharp and colourful details.

4.3.3 Expository Writing

Exposition is a type of oral or *written* discourse that is used to explain, describe, give information or inform. The expository essay is therefore, a genre of essay that requires the student to investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound on the idea, and set forth an argument concerning that idea in a clear and concise manner. Expository writing is writing that seeks to explain, illuminate or 'expose' (which is where the word 'expository' comes from).

Expository writing or exposition informs or explains to the reader by presenting facts and ideas in direct and concise language. Expository writing attempts to explain what its subject is, how it works, or perhaps how it is related to something else. Because exposition is aimed chiefly at the audience's understanding rather than the imagination or emotions, it usually relies less on colourful or figurative language than does writing meant to be mainly either expressive or persuasive.

Common examples of expository writing include newspaper articles, how-to manuals, and assembly instructions.

Features of expository writing include:

It explains a process.

Indicate items and materials (if any needed for the activity).

It takes the reader through a series of steps carried out in a definite order.

Think through the steps involve in the activity.

State a step by step presentation of what should go on.

4.3.4 Argumentative Writing

An argumentative writing presents arguments about both sides of an issue. It could be that both sides are presented equally balanced, or it could be that one side is presented more forcefully than the other. It is also the ability to advance sound compelling argument. In argumentative writing, we present arguments to persuade a reader to agree to our view.

Features of argumentative writing

The introduction is the part that should hold the reader's attention.

Use tactful and courteous language.

Point out common ground.

Acknowledge differing viewpoints – they strengthen your position.

There should be clarity and logical flow of facts.

You need to support each claim with arguments, and each argument with facts.

Be precise and focus on your arguments.

