CHAPTER FOUR
GOOD WRITING AND EXCELLENT COMMUNICATION

Writing as a Representation of Self

The English language consists of four different language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. If this is the sequence of their acquisition, as language scholars have made us to understand, then, writing is therefore the fourth language skill. It is the last language skill to be learnt by the second language user of English. A thorough knowledge of English would have been got from listening and reading before the language user can effectively put down his knowledge in written form.

Writing is an important factor in communication, especially written communication. This is because it is the process through which letters and other symbols are printed on a surface, especially with a pen or pencil. Different thoughts, ideas and information are transmitted from one person to another through this medium of communication (writing). Since individuals differ in both looks and perceptions, they express themselves in writing uniquely. Also, their experience and exposure affect, to a large extent, the way they express themselves through writing.

Thus, writing is a representation of the self. It reveals the mind-set and thought processes of an individual. If two individuals are given a topic to write on, both would employ unique styles based on their experience in the use of the English language. Whereas one may employ simple straightforward sentences with simple words, the other may decide to use compound and complex constructions with compound words. Also, an individual that has developed his vocabulary to a large extent would find it really easy to express himself in writing. However, an individual with less vocabulary power would find it difficult expressing himself in writing. Instead of using effective and appropriate words and expressions, he would use phrases and longer expressions to say what he means. This would hamper communication between him and others.
It is, therefore, important for every user of English to master the necessary skills required in communicating through writing. Besides vocabulary, other requirements for effective communication through writing are grammatical accuracy, adequate punctuation marks, good and correct use of spellings, utilization of figures of speech and parables, coherence and clarity. When all these are in place in an individual's writing, then he/she would have no difficulty passing across his actual message to his listeners or readers. He/she would have also succeeded in making an image for himself as his style would be unique and easily identifiable by all.

**The Role of Spelling in Communication**

Spelling deals with the combination of letters which form words. Communication, which is the transmission of messages from one person to another, requires words for its effectiveness. There are many words in English which have difficult spellings because there is usually no direct relationship between sound and letter. This is not so in our local languages. Therefore, anyone that hopes to communicate effectively must master such problematic spellings.

**Strategies for Mastering Spelling**

The fact that English has some problematic spellings has led some scholars to design some strategies which can help the learner of English to overcome this challenge. However, there are basic hints that an individual needs that can aid him in mastering English spellings. Some practical steps needed to acquire good spelling habits are:

a) A reader/listener should carefully observe the difficult word.

b) He should try to pronounce it.

c) He should try to spell the word from memory.

d) He should cross-check the spelling in a good dictionary.
Some words that are mostly misspelt in English are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accelerate</th>
<th>Fulfil</th>
<th>Quiet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Across</td>
<td>Grandeur</td>
<td>Receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Receipt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggregate</td>
<td>Hindrance</td>
<td>Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempt</td>
<td>Harass</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attainment</td>
<td>Illegible</td>
<td>Remuneration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeable</td>
<td>Imminent</td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appalling</td>
<td>Irregular</td>
<td>Satellite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assassinate</td>
<td>Isosceles</td>
<td>Sincerely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ameliorate</td>
<td>Liaison</td>
<td>Skilful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argument</td>
<td>Lieutenant</td>
<td>Souvenir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argue</td>
<td>Lonesome</td>
<td>Soliloquy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advice (N)</td>
<td>Maintain</td>
<td>Sovereign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advise (v)</td>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>Technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>Manoeuvre</td>
<td>Terrible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benign</td>
<td>Manoeuvring</td>
<td>Tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Word</td>
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<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catarrh</td>
<td>Marvellous</td>
<td>Twelfth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cigarette</td>
<td>Mimic</td>
<td>Unnecessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cemetery</td>
<td>Monastery</td>
<td>Vengeance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscience</td>
<td>Mischievous</td>
<td>Vacuum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceive</td>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>Villain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>Ninth</td>
<td>Writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committee</td>
<td>Occurrence</td>
<td>Weird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceit</td>
<td>Occur</td>
<td>Wield</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condemn</td>
<td>Occurred</td>
<td>Yacht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deteriorate</td>
<td>Occasion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma</td>
<td>Omission</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diarrhoea</td>
<td>Precede</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deceit</td>
<td>Proceed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deterrent</td>
<td>Playwright</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disservice</td>
<td>Pronounce</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exaggerate</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrass</td>
<td>Predecessor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrassment</td>
<td>Privilege</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exuberant</td>
<td>Pneumonia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favourite</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluorescent</td>
<td>Queue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forty</td>
<td>Quite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Traffic trafficking, trafficker
Bivouac-bivouacked, bivouacking

5. **Using the “ei” and “ie” combinations**
In some words, after the letter “c”, “ei” is used, as seen in these words: ceiling, deceive, deceit, receive, receipt. In some other words, “ie” is used as in believe, achieve, siege, chief. However, there are some exceptions to these rules as seen in words like: species, protein, seize, counterfeit, weird.

6. **Words ending in “-y” and “-ie”**
Usually, in words ending in “y” preceded by consonants, the “y” is changed to “i” before any suffix. This is with exception to the suffix “-ing”. Examples are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cry</th>
<th>Cries</th>
<th>Cried</th>
<th>Crying</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfy</td>
<td>Satisfies</td>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Satisfying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try</td>
<td>Tries</td>
<td>Tried</td>
<td>Trying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry</td>
<td>Dries</td>
<td>Dried</td>
<td>Drying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glorify</td>
<td>Glorifies</td>
<td>Glorified</td>
<td>Glorifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intensify</td>
<td>Intensifies</td>
<td>Intensified</td>
<td>Intensifying</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In verbs that ends in “-ie”, the “ie” combination is changed to “y” before attaching the “-ing” suffix
- Die drying
- Lie lying
- Tie tying
- Vie- vying

An exception to this rule is seen in the word drye-dryeing.

1. **When to Double Letters**
The final consonant of a word is doubled before attaching “-ing””, “-ed”, and other suffixes beginning with vowels in certain situations:
   a) When the word contain a short vowel, e.g.
The short vowels in English are /ɔ/, /æ/, /e/ /u/, /e/. The long ones are /i:/, /a:/, /u:/, /e:/.

Thus, in an instance where the vowel in the word is a long one or a diphthong, there is usually no vowel to double. For instance,

- Hope - hoping
- Boil - boiling

b) Where the stress falls on a short vowel at the end of a two syllable word as in:

- beGIN - begin(ning)
- comMIT - commit(ted)
- fulFIL - fulfil(led), fulfil(ling)
- oCCUR - occur(red)
- preFER - prefer(red)

However, if the stress occurs elsewhere, then the consonant is not doubled. Consider the following examples:

- BEnefit - benefited
- GAllop - galloped
- HAppen - happening
- Offer - offering

Exceptions to this rule are seen in words like handicapped, kidnapped, worshipped.

c) When the word ends in “l” preceded by a short vowel, e.g.

- Cancel - cancelled/cancelling
- Travel - travelled/travelling
- CounSEL - counselled/counselling
- Propel - propelled/propelling
2. **The treatment of double “ll” in compound words.**
Some compound words are formed by joining simple words that end in double “lls” to them. When the compound words are formed, the double “ll” are made single. Examples are:
- All + ready = already
- All + together = altogether
- All + ways = always
- Full + fill = fulfil
- Skill + full = skilful
- Duty + full = dutiful
- Faith + full + faithful
- Well + come = welcome
- Well + fare = welfare

Note: There is a difference between 'all ready' and 'already' as well as 'all together' and 'altogether'. The difference lies in their meanings.

3. **Forming Adjectives from Nouns Ending in “-our”**
Some adjectives can be formed from nouns that end in “our”. When this is done, the “u” is usually dropped. Let us consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glamour</td>
<td>glamorous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humour</td>
<td>humorous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vigour</td>
<td>vigorous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An exception to this rule is seen in adjectives which are formed from nouns by adding the suffix “-able”, as in: honour - honourable

4. **Attaching the negation prefixes “dis” and “un”**
Sometimes words formed by attaching the prefixes dis- and mis- can be problematic. There is usually no problem if there is no “s” at the beginning of the original word. In the case of the dis- or mis-, they are just attached to the word as in:
- Dis - approve = disapprove
Dis - appoint = disappoint
Mis - place = misplace
Mis appropriate = misappropriate

However, a double “s” is required if the word to which the prefix appears begins with an “s” as seen in the following examples:
Dis - service = disservice
Dis - satisfy = dissatisfy
Mis - spell = misspell

Similarly, words without “n” in the original form do not pose any problem. You need to add 'un' before such words. Examples are:
Un + happy = unhappy
Un + faithful = unfaithful
Un + kind = unkind

But if the word begins with an 'n' there will be double n's. For example
Un + necessary = unnecessary
Un + named = unnamed
Un + nerring = unnerring

The Role of Capital Letters and Punctuation Marks in Communication

Human beings communicate through two major forms - speech and writing. Whereas speech employs variations in tone of the voice, pauses, gestures and facial expressions to add force and meaning to what is being said, writing employs punctuation marks to achieve the same purpose. Therefore, punctuation marks serve a great function in written communication. Punctuation marks can otherwise be termed grammar's traffic policeman.

The construction of good sentences depends to a large extent on the use of good language and the correct observation of punctuation marks. This is because punctuation marks serve the purpose of controlling the users of the English language to observe breaks or pauses while speaking or writing. Punctuation marks refer to the various signs which speakers or writers use to observe, pause, direct questions, as they like, in sentences, clauses and phrases.
A sentence that is not well punctuated can spell doom both to the writer and the audience or reader. We shall discuss the different punctuation marks in English which a skilled writer needs to communicate excellently well to his reader or audience. These are the full stop, the exclamation mark, the question mark, the comma, the colon, the semi-colon, the dash, the parenthesis, the apostrophe, the quotation marks, the hyphen, the brackets, the ellipsis, etc. The use of capital letters will be discussed first.

1. **The Use of Capital Letters**
   Capital letters are the letters of the alphabet that are written in the upper case as in A, B, C. The use of capital letters in expressions carries some special meaning, hence it is necessary to discuss its proper use.

   a) Capitalise the first letter of the first word of a sentence or entries in a column, e.g.
   
   i. The students worked very hard
   ii. Account
      - Briggard
      - Clasp
      - Drummer
      - Empathise

   b) Capitalise proper nouns (names of persons, places and organisations)
      e.g. Chinua Achebe
           Lagos State
           Ondo State University
           United Africa Company (UAC)
           First Bank of Nigeria Plc.
           All People's Party

   b) Capitalise the first letter of the first word in a direct speech, even if it does not begin the sentence, e.g
   
   i. The man said, “Take the book away.”
   ii. She asked her friend, “Are you going home?”
c) **Capitalize official titles**  
   e.g.  The Registrar  
        President Umaru Musa Yar' Adua  
        Professor Lawal  
        Pope John Paul V  

d) **Capitalise the first letter of the first word of every line of poetry.**  
   e.g. Nightfall comes like a dreaded disease.  
        Seeping through the pores of a healthy body.  

e) **Capitalise trade names which have not become so common as to be taken as types of articles rather than just makes and brands.**  
   e.g. Coca-Cola, Lux Beauty Soap, Imperial Leather.  

This is different from those names which have become very common: aspirin, cellophane  

f) **Capitalise a common noun that is used in a special context.**  
   e.g. the Great War (of 1918), the Civil War (of 1970), the Channel (English Channel).  

g) **Capitalise the first letters of some school subjects or courses.**  
   e.g.  
   Economics  
   Modern Benin History  
   Anthropology of Art  

h) **Capitalise some words in a sentence to show emphasis.**  
   e.g. The landlord asked the tenant to pack out of his house IMMEDIATELY.  

i) **Capitalise the first letter (s) of the words in the salutation and the first letter of the complimentary close or correspondence.**  
   e.g.  

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Dear Sir or Madam
My Dear Father

Yours faithfully
Yours sincerely

j) Capitalise the first letters of the names of religions, adherents, language, etc
   e.g Christianity
       Christian
       Islam
       Moslem/Muslim
       Hausa

When not to capitalise
a) Do not capitalise titles which do not refer to any specific individual
   e.g The congregation consisted of lecturers, doctors, lawyers, and bankers.

b) Do not capitalise points of the compass, except they refer to a region or a political or economic bloc
   e.g James is traveling west of the country.
       They are on vacation in the east
       He won a seat in the Northern Region.
       Eventually, the South won over the East Bloc after a protracted, cold war

   Without capital letter

c) Do not capitalise season of the year.
   The seasons are wet or raining season, dry season, harmattan period, spring, autumn, fall, winter, summer and farming seasons, e.g.
   Farmers love the raining season.
d) Do not capitalise the first letters of the names of diseases and foods, unless they contain a proper noun or a proper adjective.

  e.g. There is an outbreak of cholera epidemic.

  The men were treated to a Nigerian dish of egusi soup and semovita.

e) Do not capitalise the first letters of conjunctions, prepositions or the indefinite and definite articles of names and titles of books, poems, etc, unless they begin the names of such book titles, etc.

  e.g. I have read Chinua Achebe's *Arrow of God*

1. The Full stop or the Period ( . )

   The full stop marks the end of a sentence that does not end with a question mark (?) or an exclamation mark (!). It performs several functions. It is used to:

   a) Indicate the end of declarative or imperative sentences.

      e.g. (i) Hardwork is the key to success.

      (ii) See me at once.

   b) Mark abbreviated names and titles.

      e.g. C.N.N, Wed., A.S.U.U., Prof., U.N.O., B.A.

      It is important to note that the full-stop may not be used in some cases when the abbreviations have become well known and accepted. Most of such abbreviations end with the last letter of the full words. Examples of such abbreviations are Mr., Mrs., Dr., Etc.

c) Also when the abbreviations form an acronym, the full stop may be omitted, e.g. UNICEF, FIFA, ASUU, UNESCO.

2. The Exclamation Mark ( ! )

   It is used to mark the end of interjections and exclamations, showing emotions of joy, anger, contempt or pleasant surprises.
3. **The Question Mark (?)**
The question mark is used to end interrogative sentences (i.e. Questions).

    e.g. Should I go home?
    Where are the books?
    He drugged the boy?

It must be stated that the question mark is not used for indirect questions (i.e. questions in reported forms.) e.g.
The teacher asked why the students were disturbing.
The manager demanded to know why production had to stop.
The question mark is also used to indicate uncertainty as in:
Ade was born in 1980?

4. **The Comma (,)**
The comma is used to indicate a short pause in the following situations:

a) Giving additional information
e.g. Mr. Okon, our new lecturer, is from Abia State.

b) Setting off “Yes” and “No”
e.g. Yes, this was his first attempt at escaping.
No, it was not his first attempt.

c) Marking off subordinate clauses at the beginning of the sentence.
e.g. As there was power outage, the children retired to bed early.

d) Separating the year from the months or day
   e.g. The child was born on August 5, 2002.

e) Joining a long independent clause by co-ordinating conjunctions such as “or” “but” “and”.
e.g. The girls will pay, or they will not be allowed into the hall.
The mother asked the girls to tidy the house, but they disobeyed her.
f) Marking off vocative expressions (i.e. expressions used in addressing people)  
e.g. Let me advice you, do not count your chicks before they are hatched.

g) Separating words, phrases and clauses within a sentence.  
e.g. (i) Mrs Tade bought apple, rice, beans, and a pair of shoes at the market.  
(ii) Students are advised to be studious, work very hard and be self disciplined.  
(iii) Teachers conduct different kinds of research, teach their students, counsel different people and evaluate those they have taught.

h) Used after the salutation or concluding greeting in correspondence  
e.g. Dear Madam, Dear Mr. Bolu, Yours faithfully, etc.

5. The Colon (: )  
The colon is used to observe a longer pause than the comma and semi-colon. It is used in the following situations:

a) For introducing a list or a series,  
e.g. (i) the man bought the following items: a suit case, a pair of shoes and a perfume.  
(ii) The company sacked some of its personnel: Mr. Smith Stone, administrative manager; Mrs Mariam Hassan, operations manager; and Chief Okey Okonare, general manager.

b) For introducing direct or indirect speeches  
e.g. The pastor admonished members of the congregation thus: 'Turn from your evil ways'.

c) For introducing the time of the day,  
e.g. All students are required to be in school at 8:00 a.m.
d) For separating chapter and verse of the Holy scriptures, e.g. The pastor took his sermon from Genesis 10:5. (i.e. Genesis chapter 10, verse 4.)

e) For introducing additional information which modifies earlier idea, e.g. Success comes through hard work: this fact is not accepted by many individuals.

f) For showing emphasis of a word or a phrase, e.g. There is one thing he does not joke with: food.

6. The semi-colon (;)
This is used to indicate a longer pause than the comma. It is used:
a) To separate co-ordinate clauses of compound sentences, e.g. The student had lessons all day; they did not play at all.

b) To separate phrases and clauses which occur in a series and which already have internal commas, e.g. The old man, too tired to wait at the end of the seminar, boarded a taxi home; but he could not get the rest he badly needed, because his grandson became ill.

c) To separate conjunctive adverbs - also, however, furthermore, consequently, therefore, nevertheless, etc, from the other part of the sentence, where the conjunctive adverbs join independent clauses. e.g. Many families suffered a great deal of hardship during the global economic meltdown, however, they looked forward to better days ahead.

7. The Dash (---)
It is a strong, emphatic punctuation mark. It can be used in place of commas or parentheses. It is used to mark off explanatory or appositional expressions and show some hesitation. It is also used to introduce a series. e.g.
commas or parentheses. It is used to mark off explanatory or appositional expressions and show some hesitation. It is also used to introduce a series. e.g.

(i) The lawyer elected him their representative - a move many applauded.
(ii) He is an individual of many parts - sculptor, musician, orator and designer

8. The Parentheses ( )
This is called round brackets. Parentheses serve the same purpose as the comma and dashes. They are used to mark off words or structures that are just for additional bits of information and without which the sentence retains most of its sense. e.g Phonetics (the study of the production of speech sounds) is not liked much by many students.

9. The Apostrophe (')
It is used in the following ways:
a) To indicate that some letters have been omitted e.g. I won't go to class.
b) To indicate the possessive case e.g. This is Ade's book.
c) To form the plural of figures and letters e.g Corruption was not rampant in Nigeria in the 80's

10. Quotation Marks (" ")
This is otherwise called inverted commas. They are used to show:
a) the exact words of a speaker e.g. Mary said. “I am fed up with the situation in this country”
b) specific words and structures which may have acquired special meaning, e.g.
You will find such delicacies as “roundabout” and “cargo meat” in the typical restaurant.
c) titles of poems, newspapers, articles, unpublished works and films. e.g. I have studied the poem “Nightfall in Soweto”
11. The Hyphen ( - )
The hyphen is used for joining compound words, as in self-employment, president-general, sister-in-law, byc-law, well-known. It is also used for attaching prefixes to words as in unAfrican, co-operative; and to divide a word at the end of a line, as in intelligent-ly.

12. The Square Brackets [ ]
These are used to enclose what we would want to include in a quotation:
e.g. He argued, 'life has become a lot easier' [based on the new minimum wage announced by the president].

13. The Ellipisis ( .... )
This is also called omission mark. It is used to indicate the omission of words. When the omission occurs at the end of the sentence, another dot is added, producing the following sequence ( .... ) e.g
(i) A noun is a name of a person ... and events.
(ii) An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective

Note that there are three dots in the first ellipsis while a fourth dot is added to represent full stop in the second ellipsis.

An individual can decipher the spelling of most words from observing a number of their regular occurrences, such occurrences have been taken as spelling rules which can guide anyone that encounters confusing words or spellings. These rules are discussed below.

1. Noun and Verb forms of words
Some words are pronounced alike but they have different spellings for nouns and verbs. Whereas the spelling with “C” is for the noun, the one with “S” is for the verb. Examples are:
Instances where the letter “e” is doubled in words.
The “e” letter is doubled into “ee” in some words beginning with “suc-”, “ex-”, and “proc-”. Examples are succeed, exceed, proceed. However, in some cases, the “e” letter is reflected in words such as: secede, supersede, recede, precede, concede, intercede.

Suffixes in words ending in “e” that is not pronounced and some words that end in an “e” that is silent (not pronounced) behave differently in the presence of different suffixes.

a) The “e” letter is maintained in the new word if the suffix begins with a consonant, e.g.:
   - Arran{gment} = arrangement
   - Hope {full} = hopeful
   - Sincere {ly} = sincerely
   - Pronounce {ment} = pronouncement
   - Fate {ful} = fateful

   However, there are some exceptions to this rule as seen in words such as duly, truly, argument, wholly.

b) When the suffix begins with a vowel, the “e” is dropped. Examples are:
   - Argue {ing} = arguing
   - Come {ing} = coming
   - Decide {ing} = deciding
   - Dance {ing} = dancing
   - Fate {al} = fatal
   - Increase {ing} = increasing
   - Determine {ation} = determination
There exist some words, however, where the "e" is retained as in

Sale + able = saleable
Rate + able = rateable.

c) Generally, nouns ending in "e" which are added to the suffix "ing" do not drop the "e". Examples are:

Hoe + ing = hoeing
Canoe + ing = canoeing

d) In words ending in "ce" or "ge" the "e" is kept e.g.

Service + able = serviceable
Notice + able = noticeable
Courage + ous = courageous
Manage + able = manageable

4. Words Ending in "-ic" or "-ac"

In some words which end in "-id" "-ic" and "-ac", "k" is added before the suffixes "-ing", "-ed" or "er". Examples are:

Mimic mimicked
Panic - panicking, panicked
Picnic picnicked, picnicker

e.g. Interesting!
   Absolute nonsense!
   How naughty he has become!
   What a beatiful day!
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF VOCABULARY TO COMMUNICATION

The vocabulary of a language refers to the words in that language. Words combine to form phrases, clauses and eventually sentences. Communication, whether spoken or written, employs different kinds of sentences, from simple, through compound to complex and compound-complex sentences. Thus, the importance of vocabulary development in communication cannot be over-emphasized. All users of the English language need to build their vocabulary so that they can effectively communicate with one another. Any individual that has a limited vocabulary power is very likely to have difficulties communicating any kind of information to his listeners or readers.

METHODS OF DEVELOPING VOCABULARY

There are different methods of developing vocabulary, some of which are discussed below.

1. **LEXICAL RELATIONS**
   This refers to the relationship that exists between or among words. It could be a relationship of sameness in meaning, opposite in meaning, etc. Thus, lexical relations could be in forms such as synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, meronyms, hyponyms and paronyms. A student that familiarizes himself with such words would develop his vocabulary to a great extent and this would reflect in his usage of the English Language.

a) **Synonyms**
   Synonyms are words that are similar in meaning. Examples of synonyms are:
   Start: commence
   Go: leave
It has been argued that there are no true synonyms, hence we have synonyms which are substitutable in certain sentences and those that are not. For instance, the words “found” and “discover” are substitutable in this context:

*Ada found the book in the class.*

*Ada discovered the book in the class.*

However, they are not substitutable in this context:

*Soboyejo discovered radium in 1898.*

*Ogbonna found it demeaning to wash dishes.*

b) **Antonyms**

Antonyms refer to words with opposite meanings. The state of being an antonym is called antonymy.

Examples of antonyms are:

- True and false
- Life and death
- Long and short
- Sharp and blunt
- Wide and narrow
- Implicit and explicit
- Entrance and exit
- Begin and end
- Heaven and hell
- Buy and sell
- Cruel and kind
- Before and after
- Front and back

c) **Homonyms**

Homonyms are words with the same spelling and pronunciation but different meanings. Examples of homonyms are left (opposite of right and past tense of leave), suit (a law case or a set of clothes) and hawk (a bird or a verb meaning to sell)
Meronyms
This refers to a semantic relation in which a word is a constituent, part
of or a member of something. It is otherwise termed a part of relation
and it is represented by a hierarchy of superordinate and subordinate
terms. This can be illustrated in a tree diagram.

\[\text{Animal}\]

\[\text{Dog} \quad \text{goat} \quad \text{lion} \quad \text{elephant}\]

Hyponyms
A hyponym is a relationship in which the meaning of one word is
included in the meaning of another. Hyponyms are, therefore, words
with a particular meaning that is included in the meaning of a more
general word.
a) Paronyms
These are words which are almost homonyms but which have slight differences in spelling and meanings. Examples of paronyms are conjective-conjecture, junction-juncture.

1. MORPHOLOGICAL RESOURCES
Morphology is the study of the structure of words as well as the study of the rules governing the formation of words in a language. This is different from syntax in the sense that whereas syntax is concerned with how words are arranged into different constructions to become a sentence, morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. One of the important concepts in morphology is the morpheme which is the smallest unit of speech or writing that has grammatical meaning. For instance, the “girl” has one morpheme but the word “girls” has two morphemes. Other examples are:
educate (one morpheme)
education (two morphemes)
educational (three morphemes)

A student that knows the above rule would improve his vocabulary because he would know how to use different morphemes in different contexts.

Morphological resources, therefore, refers to the different forms of words which are available to the writer in order to aid his formation or construction of different expressions. Generally, words are formed in different ways. Some are formed by the addition of prefixes or
suffixes to bases while some are from the roots.

Words formed by adding prefixes to the bases are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>New Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Im-</td>
<td>possible</td>
<td>impossible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-</td>
<td>take</td>
<td>intake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-</td>
<td>circle</td>
<td>semi circle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dis</td>
<td>honest</td>
<td>dishonest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Words formed by adding suffixes to the bases are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>New Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Govern</td>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty</td>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same</td>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>sameness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Game</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>games</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A root is the core (the basic part) of a word that reflects its own sense, to which other parts (e.g., prefixes and suffixes) can be attached to form other words. This means that a root is the part of a word from which its other forms are derived. A root is sometimes called a base. For example, come (root) gives rise to comes, coming, came (derived).

The root carries the primary meaning of a word. Learning the roots of words would help the user of English to easily describe words and ascribe sensible meaning to them even if the words are unfamiliar. This would strengthen the learner’s vocabulary because the more he uses this approach the more his language skills will improve, especially in reading, writing, and speaking. Examples of roots and some of their derived words are given below:

(i) play root
   - plays, playing, played, playful (derived)

(ii) develop root
    - development, developed, developmentally (derived)

(iii) beauty root
     - beautiful, beautifully, beatification (derived)
2. CONTEXTUAL RESOURCES

Usually, a word is not used alone but in relation to other words which facilitate the understanding of its meaning. These other words occur in the context in which a particular word has been used. Contextual resources, therefore, refer to words which surround certain words that give the reader a clue of their meanings. Contexts, therefore, aids vocabulary development in the sense that when a reader understands some words in a sentence, it would help him to decipher the meaning of a difficult word in that same sentence because of the way it has been used.

There are different kinds of contexts.

a. Contexts with Similar Words

This relates to determining the meaning of an unfamiliar word from a similar word or expression in the context in which it is used. For example, on a sultry day, don't drink hot liquids.

The word “sultry” can be taken to mean something that is hot, because one would not enjoy taking hot drinks on such days. Another example is: Some members of staff were not indemnified for their losses in the fire, because they carried no insurance.

From the context above, we can guess that the meaning of 'indemnified' is 'compensated'. The similar word that gives us the clue is “insurance”

b. Contexts with Contrasting Words

This relates to determining the meaning of a word by finding a clue from an opposite word or a contrasting idea. For example: Profit and loss are two situations that a business should always be prepared for.
The word “profit” has a contrasting word in the sentence which would help in determining its meaning. That word is 'loss' hence, profit may be taken to mean gain.

c. **Contexts with Intelligence Guess**
This means a context that yields the meaning of an unfamiliar word through clues other than a similar word or a contrasting word. For example:
Children love ripe pineapples because they have an *ambrosial* flavor.  
An intelligent guess made at the meaning of “ambrosial” would be 'extremely pleasing to smell or taste' or 'delicious'.

d. **Mixed Contexts**
It refers to contexts of all the types discussed above. For example:
He had promised to write for her, but he walked off without her, *oblivious* of his promise.
“Oblivious”, from the above context, means “forgetful”

3. **CLASSICAL RESOURCES**
The vocabulary of any language is made up of the words that exist in that language. The English language has a dynamic vocabulary because its constituent words have various origins. Among the origins is Anglo-saxon which forms the basic vocabulary of English, hence words from this origin are otherwise called native English words. There are other sources of English words which are derived or borrowed from classical languages such as Latin, Greek and French. Other words have been borrowed from different languages of the world like Arabic, Chinese, Dutch, Hawaiian, Hindi, Italian and Spanish. Thus, classical resources refer to the words in English which were borrowed from classical languages or languages of ancient civilization. An English user of such words would understand the words better if he knows how these words were originally used in their 'homes'
a. **Resources from Anglo-Saxons**
This forms the bulk of what is termed Native English or Old English. Some words derived from this origin are nouns indicating family ties and people (father, mother, son, etc.), common nouns (cat, donkey, water, food, etc); numbers (one, ten, thousand, etc); verbs (go, hire, do, touch, etc); adjectives (little, strong, sluggish, etc); adverb (aboard, soon, sometimes, etc); prepositions (above, within, below, etc); conjunctions (where, because, through, etc); prefixes (a-, with-, be-, etc) and suffixes (-some, -ship, -ling, etc.).

b. **Resources From Latin**
Latin (the Roman language) was the first of the borrowed languages to enter the English vocabulary. It entered mostly through the influence of the church. It has been said that fifty percent (50%) of the English vocabulary is made up of Latin words. Some words from Latin that came in through the influence of the church are elegy, fountain, locust, temple, monk, num, catechrist, janitor and candle. Some prefixes from Latin are a-, ab-, -ad, while some suffixes from Latin are de-, -ate, -ous, -ible, -able. Certain roots have Latin as their origin of such roots are fract, crop, flect, and tact.

c. **Resources From French**
Some English words with French origin are: jacket; pleasant, chauvinist, bourgeoisie, entrepreneur, martinet, valet, finesse, malaise, adieu, cliche, resume, impasse, mirage, liaison, regime, baton, boutique, vogue, flamboyant.

d. **Resources From Greek**
Words derived from Greek include: grammar, philosophy, prophet, anaemic, logic, school and rhetoric. Affixes with Greek origin are bio-, chromo-, dys-, hyper-, homo-, -scope, -tomy.

e. **Resources From Italian**
Ballerina, violin, calvary, etc. are some words with Italian origin

f. **Resources from Spanish**
English words with Spanish origin include stampede, mosquito, and ratio.
g. **Resources from Dutch**
   Examples are yacht, frezht and cruise.

h. **Resources from Arabic**
   Words with this origin include algebra, hazard, manathana and alkali.

i. **Resources from Hindi**
   Bungalow, shampoo and jungle are examples of words with this origin.

j. **Resources from Chinese.**
   These include tycoon, tea and soya.

**The C's of Communication**

Communication, which is a process, is the transfer of information from one point (sender) to another (receiver). For this process to be effectively achieved, there must be certain constructs in place. These constructs are called the seven"Cs" of communication because they all begin with the letter 'C'. They are the felicitious condition that must be met before communication can be said to have taken place.

1. **Concreteness**
   Concreteness in communication means that the message should be verifiable. In other words, the stimulus for the exchange of idea should have existed.

2. **Conciseness**
   This construct deals with the idea that the message should be brief, precise, logical and coherent in its organisation and presentation. Therefore, unnecessary details, cliches and vacuous expressions must be deleted from the communication process.
3. **Correctness**
This does not necessarily mean the same thing as truthfulness of a statement. Rather, it means that the situation and atmosphere must be correct. The place and antecedent must also be appropriate.

4. **Clarity**
Basically, this construct states that a message must be clear and must not be ambiguous. Confusing and long awkward sentences must be avoided in the communication process. In this regard, the relationship between the subject of a sentence and its verb must be clearly stated. Also, there must be a limited use of technical jargon and other specialised terms which are peculiar to your area of specialisation when you are communicating with people outside your field.

5. **Courtesy**
This is an important factor in communication. It reveals that the sender or encoder should endeavour to employ words and expressions that do not criticise (unfairly) the integrity of the receiver or decoder. The sender's complementary gesture must match his spoken words, otherwise communication would not be effective. Examples of expressions showing courtesy are “Thank you for your letter..., and kindly let me know your response...” or decoder. The sender's complementary gesture must match his spoken words, otherwise communication would not be effective. Examples of expressions showing courtesy are “Thank you for your letter..., and kindly let me know your response...”

6. **Completeness**
Communication should be complete in form. Usually, a message is organised into different units or components. Communication is not complete when a component idea is missing as one party or participant would not get the complete message. In a letter, for example, when the salutation or the complimentary close is missing, the reader would not get the full message.
7. **Consideration**
   This construct deals with sincerity which is the bedrock of a communication process. The well being and state of the decoder must be considered when the encoder is choosing his expressions and channel. For instance, the choice of vocabulary which an agriculturist would use in communicating with local farmers would be different from the one used by a university lecturer with his students. Also, the channel employed in both would be different.

**Practice Questions**

1. Spelling is an important factor in communication. Discuss this and explain the various strategies necessary in mastering spelling.

2. Punctuate the following expressions appropriately:
   a) The preacher insisted on .... before an adherent can enter heaven.
   b) Many innocent people died during the nigerian civil way
   c) Overwhelmed by guilt the rascal ran away from home.
   d) The project was energy sapping.
   e) The messenger said you will be re-deployed
   f) He was born in January
   g) I do not know if I will be there.
   h) All students are to report to the principal at 9.45a.m.
   i) On Friday 13th February 1976 General Murtala Mohammed was assassinated.

3. Synonyms and Antonyms are methods of developing vocabulary. Explain.

4. What is the difference between Meronyms, hyponyms, and paronyms?

5. Give ten examples of homonyms?
6. Discuss morphological resources and how they can develop one's vocabulary.

7. Contextual resources and classical resources are ways of developing one's vocabulary. Discuss.

8. Communication is incomplete without certain constructs. Discuss.

**Recommended Reading**


Human beings have a natural instinct for sociability. As a result we cannot divorce communication and interaction among people. Language and communication are inseparable tools for human interaction. Various activities of human life create the avenue for conversation or public speaking. Our concern in this chapter is the art of excellent communication in public. When we talk about public speaking, we mean formal speeches. Debates, dialogues, acknowledgment, lectures, preaching, or any other form of public presentation are examples of public speaking. There are speakers who can move an audience or command the audience's attention or convince the audience without leaving any room for doubt; and there are some others who can bore up their audiences. The most important thing in public speaking is that a speaker should be capable of interacting with his/her audience with a fine sense of ambience that will keep listeners captivated and alive. Politicians, clerics, entertainers, and even private individuals do have occasion for public speaking.

A good public speaker can make for himself a distinctive public image and respect. Today a number of people across the world have taken public speaking as career. They groom themselves in the art and make themselves distinctive. If we remember the old English maxim that 'talk is cheap' and the American maxim that 'talk is expensive,' we would see the importance of good speech to communication in terms of self-image and other benefits. When a speaker talks with a sense of purpose and precision he can create for himself a self-image people can recognize him with. There are many public speakers but only a few have been identified with. These few may have successfully created for themselves an identity that makes the public admire them. A good self-image for a public speaker can command a strong appeal.
Such appeal can draw a very large crowd for the speaker. It is important to note that to create such an image, one must imbibe certain qualities. If you have a good self-image of public speaking can make people to want to hear you talk. Some people go to conferences because of the speakers and not because of the theme the conference has for its participants.

Apart from a speaker preparing his idea and diction adequately, he must pay attention to how he pronounces the words of his speech. When a speaker mispronounces words, he does not only hurt his image, he hurts also his listeners. Imagine a speaker who is alien to the Yoruba language, for instance, speaking to a largely Yoruba audience and would have to pronounce some Yoruba names. If he does not pronounce such Yoruba names that he faces correctly, his speech will lose salt before his audience. The same thing applies to the English we speak. When English words are mispronounced the speech might lose its salt and meaning. A Nigerian who uses Nigerian English to pronounce firm as farm or learned as lanced will succeed in boring up his audience as well as subverting the meaning he intended. Do not think that it is proper to mispronounce English words for the simple fact that you are not a native speaker. If anybody mispronounces the word of your own language we can be sure that you will laugh at such a person, or barely understand him. The alien who speaks your language clearly will attract you better than the one who doesn’t. This is how an English audience may take a speaker. Thus, for a speaker to avoid pronunciation mistakes the following principles of spoken English must be learnt.

Mastering the Sounds of English

A public speaker must master the sounds of English and know how to use them. When he sees a word, he should be capable of figuring out the correct phoneme. This ability will help him pronounce words with minimal mistakes. A speaker may be incapable of applying the sounds of English adequately if he does not first of all master the sounds of English. Note that the sounds of English appear in the form of consonants and vowels. The vowels also have categories such as monophthongs, diphthongs and triphthongs. The monophthongs are classified into short and long vowels. Below are the sounds a speaker must know with accuracy.
Consonants of English

/p/ as in pink /ʃ/ as in shoe
/b/ as in box /ʒ/ as in occasion
/t/ as in torch /h/ as in horn
/d/ as in dark /tʃ/ as in chance
/k/ as in kicks /dʒ/ as in just
/g/ as in game /l/ as in level
/f/ as in far /r/ as in rank
/v/ as in vice /w/ as in work
// as in think /j/ as in yearn
// as in there /m/ as in milk
/s/ as in set /n/ as in net
/z/ as in zoom /ŋ/ as in wrong

Vowels of English

/ɪ/ as in kid /e/ as in send
/æ/ as in graft /ʌ/ as in jug
/a/ as in pot /u/ as in food
/ə/ as in timer /iː/ as in feel
/a:/ as in dark /ɔ:/ as in port
Learn and internalize these sounds. Be sure that you find out more words on your own that have these sounds. For the sake of exercise in this book, we are providing a few words for each sound to add to what you may find on your own.

**/p/**
- pen
- part
- peel
- pain
- petty
- panic
- push
- map
- cup
- harp
- report
- happy
- hope
- rope

**/b/**
- box
- beat
- bet
- better
- bash
- build
- bed
- bend
- brace
- brave
- bat
- bench
- rob
- grab
- barb
- buy
- table
- gambler
- tumble
- hub
- sable
- rabble
- bin
- being
- inborn
- disturb
- banner
- bill
- brag
- bemoan
- mob
- cob
- cub
- noble
- birth
- brought

**/t/**
- tool
- tape
- tell
- torn
- rate
- gate
- tame
- tall
- trap
- meet
- past
- stump
- date
- story
- turn
- stem
- type
- style
- taught
- torch
- touch
- term
- tree
- troupe
- draft
- after
- tile
- till
- toll
- tow
- true
- waste
- part
- tar
- tear
- tome
Effective English for Business and Professional Communication

/d/
date dark deal damn dell dad deep death
depth doom dry den dug drape made meddle
do draw dabble dean dream mend done drone
grade dull dope dude nude drag

/k/
cord kill kid Chloe clear keep Clara clap
keen cat kernel carp make clown mock cock
clock rack kettle kid kitten Mike bike brick
 brink brick beck record bacon come

/g/
gate game gay guy give beg greed grate great
grand grab grasp rug dug mug grunt grind groove
grape grope group graft gusto migrant grow goat gourd
goad rag thug

/f/!
firm from fry frost food fame force feel foam
fright fell freight fag free fact photo Phil fiat
phantom forest frame fibre feet

/v/
vet venom vie victor vice vault verse veto very
vary via vicar

/ð/!
three truth theme thaw thwart thought wrath moth
forth fourth thug think thin width length throes
throw throne sheath heath hearth earth deearth death
path theft health thick math theatre
Effective English for Business and Professional Communication  GOOD SPEECH AND EXCELLENT COMMUNICATION

/tʃ/  
church  chill  chop  chance  chirp  match  patch  reach  March  
chant  wretch  chart  cheat  chat  watch  brooch  touch  
check  charge  much  catch  arch  hatch  cheque

/dʒ/  
job  jail  germ  general  jell  James  jam  Jill  
jilt  jot  joy  gel  jinx  George  jug  jibe  
jest  just  gin  gym  jack  jet  jolt  jolly

/l/  
lord  lorry  low  love  laws  let  lawn  leave  live  
load  little  lie  loose  long  lack  liver  lamb  lag  
lump  lettuce  lap  lop  lung  leak  less  last  lock

/r/  
rock  ray  rat  raft  rift  reel  red  rise  real  rag  reach  
right  rebel  ruble  rail  reform  royal  reason  rake  ram  
rabbit  wrest  river  rest

/w/  
wore  work  wash  weak  week  worth  will  wealth  
wish  well  warn  worm  wasp  wick  wad  wake  
whale  was  witch  why  while  weave  wool  water  
wit  whisper  wise  wisp  with

/j/  
yell  year  yam  yearn  you  Yule  yacht  yank  
yean  yarn  yield  yet
The Vowels

Short Vowels are not pronounced with tensely voice. They are pronounced with laxity. Below are the sounds with sample of words that have them.

/i/  sit  hid  fit  nip  give  still
    ridge  bristle  women  milk  nil  Jill
    jilt  market  wanted  wasted  will  homage

/e/  met  meddle  red  pet  let  set  men  dead  bread  said
    sell  ate  vent  zest  rent  net  less  gem
    hell  den  fence  best  wrest  test
Long Vowels are pronounced tensely, that is, deeply and prolonged.

/i:/ beat eat meet read sleep steep eel
reel aesthetic amoeba anaemia refugee feed
oesophagus penal legal legion Chinese eve

/a:/ bar bath mar gaga pass plant scarf palm calm
garage facade charade sharp scarlet gnarl gala farther father
arm.
Diphthongs are two vowels combined to produce a single sound. The first vowel normally glides into the second. Below are sample words for each diphthong. Practice and master them.

/ε/  bail  bale  male  mail  pale  pail  rain  ray  gate  grave  David  name  lame  babe  rate  main  race  chase  shape  tape  insane  brave  take  patron

/əi/  buy  bike  cycle  dive  height  high  Mike  isle  type  psyche  shine  chime  rhyme  sly  wry  island  prime  pie  vie  dye  tyre  write  plight  vile

/ɔi/  boy  buoy  poignant  loyal  loiter  royal  Troy  toy  poison
Triphthongs are three vowel sounds. The first glides into the second and the second glides into the third. Find combined the English triphthongs with sample of words for each.

/aiə/  
buyer, mire, higher tire, expire, wire liar, Meyer

/auə/  
power, our hour, shower, tower, towel

/əuə/  
Goers, slower, mower, Genoa, Noah Noel, grower

/eiə/  
slayer, prayer, payer, gayer

/oiə/  
soya destroyer buoyant
The Cluster refers to a combination of consonants in a word. Usually the English syllabus has an onset of consonants and a coda of consonants. The onsets are clusters beginning a word and the coda are clusters ending a word. Whereas the onsets can have a maximum of three consonant clusters, the coda can have a maximum of four. Find below a few examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Onsets</th>
<th>Coda</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dew /djuː/</td>
<td>repent /rɪpent/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bleat /blɪːt/</td>
<td>melts /mɛltz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>split /splɪt/</td>
<td>contempt /kəntempt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spleen /spliːn/</td>
<td>prompts /prəmptz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mastering the Sounds of English: The Supra-Segmentals

In spoken English, supra-segmental sounds are very important. The supra-segmental does not refer to individual phonetic symbols but voice, tone, and rhythm. These usually come through pitch of the voice. When a word is given the correct pitch, listeners might not have difficulty in understanding what is said. Stress, syllable, intonation, and emphasis usually describe supra-segmental phonology.

Syllable and Stress

A syllable is a unit of speech that comprises a vowel sound or a vowel sound combined with a consonant sound. In spoken English, if a speaker recognizes the syllable or syllables of a word, he or she will pronounce words with ease. A syllable may be strong or weak. Strong syllables are usually stressed or may appear with a diphthong, or long vowels. Weak syllables normally come with a schwa or lax vowel. Bold type is used to differentiate between weak and strong syllables in the words below:
When pronouncing strong syllables, you will realize that some degree of effort is exerted on the syllable while the weak syllable is pronounced effortlessly. That degree of effort is what is known as stress. Loudness, length of vowel, and pitch are features of both stress and strong syllables. The column above juxtaposes weak and strong syllables.

**Intonation**

Intonation describes the pitch of the voice. Pitch can be high or low or range from light to heavy. A speaker's voice is commonly marked by a rise and fall in tone. Rise and fall of tone is the essential feature of pitch. Every individual speaker is said to have control of his or her own pitch. This implies that the choice of frequency of tone depends heavily on the speaker. A speaker's frequency of tone may be a level tone, or a falling tone, or a rising tone. Level tone is used mostly on one-syllable words. Sometimes we refer to it as a flat tone or a moving tone. Note that as far as English speakers are concerned, they can alternate their tone from one degree to another even in one-syllable words. Another form of tone is the falling tone. It is a tone that comes with a speaker saying something in a definite or final manner. The falling tone usually moves from higher pitch to a lower pitch. Declaration statements, commands, exclamations, and wh-question words always take a falling tone. The last form of tone we can identify here is rising tone. Rising tone usually ascends from a lower pitch frequency to a higher pitch frequency. We find this type mostly in questions, statements of indifference, and in listing of items.
Emphasis, Pronunciation, and Meaning

Note that the essence of communication is to pass a message. A message is understood if the receiver understands the meaning of words that come with the message. Meaning determines the feedback the receiver of a message can give. In spoken English, emphasis and pronunciation can determine meaning. When a speaker says “John?” or “John!”, or “John.” there is a difference in the meaning of this same word pronounced with three different tones. Assuming the object is not John and the speaker intends to know whether the object is John but pronounces it as “John”, he will be demonstrating a case of mistaken identity. Where he pronounces the name as John?, the meaning he will impute is enquiry. If he says “John!” then the speaker knows the person called John but may not be expecting to see him at that moment or John is perhaps doing the unexpected. The meaning of a word or an idea can sometimes be stressed by emphasis. Emphasis in spoken English can be achieved by repeating important ideas, or supplying abundant details about important ideas.

Words

Words are a combination of speech sounds made visible by written letters. Words have meaning to the speakers of a language. Speakers use words to convey meaning, feeling, and tone to a listener [or reader]. The meaning a word can make may be denotative or connotative. A speaker should be aware that connotative usage implies an underlying meaning, whereas, denotative usage carries only literal meaning. Whatever the usage you might want of the words you employ, be sure that your listeners get your message right.

Generally, words are classified into two categories: lexical words and grammar words. Lexical words have content and carry meanings. Nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs are lexical. Grammar words embody the rules of a language. They coordinate the lexical items in a phrase, clause, or sentence. That is, the order of most words in English sentences is determined by grammatical rules. If grammar words are not properly used with lexical words, the result may be poor collocation and usage, double negative, entailment, and redundancy.
Sentences
A sentence is a unit of language that has a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete idea. A sentence can be declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative.

Declarative sentences are for making statements, while interrogative sentences ask questions. A sentence that expresses strong emotion can be exclamatory, and that which expresses a request or command is said to be an imperative sentence. These modes of sentences are derived by mood. Mood as an aspect of tone can create variation of meaning for the same sentence. This is because speakers have different dispositions. In the sentences below, let us see how different tones can give the same sentence different meaning:

- Andy stays at Glover Street.
- Andy stays at Glover Street?
- Andy stays at Glover Street!
- Andy, stay at Glover Street.

In the first sentence, the tone indicates that the speaker is sure of the whereabouts of Andy. The second speaker's tone indicates his ignorance or doubt about Andy's whereabouts. The meaning that also comes with this second tone suggests that the speaker is making enquiry about Andy's whereabouts. The third tone means that the speaker has no previous knowledge of Andy's whereabouts but he comes to sudden awareness of Andy's whereabouts. In the last sentence, the meaning we get from the tone is that the speaker is instructing Andy on where to stay. Consider other examples below:

- That win was unexpected!
- That win was unexpected?

In these two voices, the tones also suggest different meanings. In the first voice the speaker's pessimism is obvious. He was sure that there was not going to be a win, thus it is a surprise that there was a win. The second tone
indicates that the speaker was sure of a win but he is surprised that the other speaker was not sure. His tone invariably asks the other speaker to defend his proposition.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. How do emphasis, pronunciation, and tone change meaning?
2. With the help of your pronunciation dictionary, provide twenty words where each of the following symbols occurs:
3. For each of the sentences below, provide two other tone variants and describe the meaning of each sentence variant:
   - Win the game.
   - He likes it?
   - What a beautiful girl!
   - Work with him.
   - Go for the job?
   - You can swim across?
   - Pat, watch for me.
4. The following sentences have connotative meanings. Suggest the meanings.
   i. The journey was pleasant.
   ii. The dawn of your life is near.
   iii. This is my dark moment.
   iv. I feel sick about the situation.
RECOMMENDED READING


