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EIN051SW: ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES

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UNIT 1: WORD CLASSES

Learning outcomes

By the end of this section, participants will be able to:

- differentiate between the two major word classes
- explain the functions of each member of the two main word classes

1.0 Word Classes

The various words in English language fall into categories as **major word classes (open class system)** and **minor word classes (closed class system)**. They are classified according to their forms and functions.

1.1 Major Word Classes or Open Class System

The membership of this class is open-ended. These words are also called open class because their numbers are large and new members are being added all the time as a result of advancement in science and technology etc. The major word class has nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs as its members. The list of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs is limitless, inexhaustible and impossible to quantify. Each member of the group can be converted into the other classes in the open system. A noun can be converted into a verb, an adjective into an adverb and vice versa mostly because of the way they are used. For example,

1. One person can do this work.
2. One has to be careful these days.
3. We dance in church.
4. The dance is vigorous.

One in sentence 1 is an adjective (open word class) whereas in sentence 2, it is used as a pronoun (closed word class).

1.1.1 Identifying the Class of a Word

This is done in three ways

- (i) meaning/definition
- (ii) the word form (structure)
- (iii) function/grammatical environment of the word

1.1.2 By definition/meaning

A word that names people, places, things concrete and abstract are nouns. For example, Nti, Anane, Besease, Kona, cane, air, length etc.

1.1.3 By the form of the word (Morphological criterion)

This is indicated by how the word looks like (base + affix). For example

- 5. attendant, actor – the suffix –ant and –or identify these words as nouns
- 6. create, perform etc. these base forms are verbs
- 7. dangerous, merciful-the suffix –ous and –ful make these words adjectives
- 8. southward, seriously- the suffix –ward and –ly make these words adverbs.

At a glance, one can conclude that the form of the word tells the class they belong to. In using this criterion, one must be cautious as words with the same forms may belong to other word classes.

For example,

Friendly and lovely are adjectives but have –“ly” ending them. The word ‘early’ may be adjective or adverb depending on its use.

1.1.4 By the function the word performs (Syntactic criterion)

The word form, including definitions, is insufficient in determining the word class. A third method is to find out what function the word performs in a structure. For example

- 9. They stand there for several hours.
- 10. The stand is for comedians.

The word “stand” in sentence 9 is a verb because it indicates an action. In sentence 10, however, it is a noun because it functions as the subject of the verb “is”.

It should be clear from the discussion that there is no one-to-one relation between words and their classes even for some of the members of the minor word class.

11. Gyedu leaves at seven but Atiako will come before he leaves. (conjunction)

12. Everyone but Ama will remain in the classroom. (preposition)

13. Amofa drives a fast car (adjective)

14. Anowa drives very fast on the motorway (adverb)

You will observe that each underlined word can belong to more than one word class depending on how they are used. So, it is quite wrong to say, for example, "but is a conjunction". Instead, we have to say that "but" is a conjunction in sentence 11 however, it is a preposition in sentence 12.

1.2 Noun as a Major Word

Definition: A noun names a person, place, thing, idea or activity.

Some features of nouns

Some suffixes of nouns include:

- (a) -ion e.g. extension, mention
- (b) -er e.g. teacher, villager
- (c) -ee e.g. returnee, divorcee
- (d) -ment e.g. assessment, payment
- (e) -ce e.g. significance, absence
- (f) -cy e.g. pregnancy, prophecy

Nouns have the following functions:

As subject

1. Ama works in this school
2. Is the boy your child?

The words underlined are subjects of the various sentences because they perform the action or are spoken about by the verb.

As object

3. We drink water every day.
4. The woman answered the call.

The objects receive the actions of the verb in sentences 3 and 4.

As complement

5. I am a teacher.
6. We are students.
7. They named their child Margaret.
8. We were from the castle.

Complements say something about the subjects as in sentence 5 and 6. In sentence 7, Margaret is complementing the object 'child'. However, in sentence 8, castle is the complement/object of the preposition 'from'.

Nouns have number

9. This book belongs to me.
10. The bags are mine.
11. The police educate people on accepted behavior in public.
12. The mice are destructive.

The nouns in sentences 9, 10 and 11 are plural

1.3 Verb as a Major Word

Verbs are words that show action or state of being.

1. He works harder. (action)
2. She is clever. (state)

Features of verbs

Verbs take '-s' for present tense when the third person is singular

3. The driver behaves well.
4. The dog wags its tail.

However, if the person is plural it does not take ‘-s’ in present tense

5. These drivers behave well.
6. The dogs wag their tails.

The verbs have –d (t) for past tense although some verbs do not have any tense marker.

7. She walked home.
8. I spent all the money on me.
9. She cut her finger yesterday.

Verbs take –ing for aspect

10. I am doing well in literature-in-English.
11. They are supervising the project.
12. She had been working harder.

1.4 Adjectives as a Major Word

These are words that describe nouns.

Features of adjectives

The features of adjectives include:

- (a) -able e.g. washable, breakable
- (b) -ed e.g. excited, worried
- (c) -ible e.g. responsible, terrible
- (d) -ing e.g. prevailing, interesting
- (e) -ory e.g. obligatory, preparatory

Adjectives have attributive and predicative functions. For example

1. I have a **smart** phone.
2. The bird is **beautiful**.

In sentence one, the adjective ‘smart’ describes the noun before it. In sentence 2, however, the adjective is in predicate function since it follows a linking verb.

Adjectives have comparative and superlative forms

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
many/much	more	most
serious	more serious	most serious
Courage	more courageous	most courageous
fast	faster	fastest
Easy	easier	easiest

1.5 Adverbs as a Major Word

Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. Some adverbs have –ly ending and mostly these adverbs are derived from adjectives ending. However, some adverbs do not have they –ly but have comparative and superlative forms just like adjectives.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
fast	faster	fastest
early	earlier	earliest
hard	harder	hardest
soon	sooner	soonest

high	higher	highest
slow	slower	slowest

Functions of adverbs

1. She regularly works harder. (adverb modifying verb)
2. They often looked at it well. (adverb modifying verb)
3. He is always nice. (adverb modifying adjective)
4. She did a very good work. (adverb modifying adjective)
5. The man runs unusually quickly when he is late for dinner. (adverb modifying adverb)
6. The lady cooked somewhat hastily. (adverb modifying adverb)

1.5 Minor Word Classes or Closed System

The minor word class is also called closed class system because the membership is fixed. The words constituting the units are limited and can be counted. No new ones can be created and added to the list. None can also be taken away. It is unthinkable that any new pronoun and preposition, for instance, can be created. Minor words classes include: determiners, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Some grammarians add auxiliary verbs to this class of words. The only difference between the minor word class and the major word class is the number of their membership.

1.5.1 Preposition

Prepositions show a relationship between two nouns. They help show place, time or source of something.

b. I saw the man when he was walking along the path.

d. She spoke to them through me, her interpreter.

We also have some prepositions whose constituents are more than one item. We have examples such as in addition, for example, according to instead of, according to, owing to, along with apart from etc.

He came along with him.

Owing to the fact that she had no money, she managed to travel abroad.

Let us consider some other prepositions that have three items. We have for fear of, in spite of, at the back of, for the sake of etc. For example

1. I met my mother at the back of the commercial bank.
2. We will travel to Ukraine in spite of the dangers involved.

1.5.2 Pronouns

Pronouns are words that are used to replace nouns in order to avoid repetition. However, not all pronouns seen as pronouns replace nouns. For example:

1. It is raining.

In sentence one, 'It' is not replacing any noun in this sentence. It is making it possible to construct a grammatical sentence.

1.5.2.1 Personal pronoun

- i. Personal pronouns are definite pronouns in that they are used to replace specific (definite) nouns. They can function as subjects or objects in sentences.

Subject	Object
I	Me
You	You
He	Him
She	Her
It	It
We	Us

You	You
They	Them

a) Kojo is my brother. He brings **us** some food all the time.

b) You and I do the work for **him** sometimes.

He, you and I in these sentences function as subjects of the verbs. In same sentences, ‘us’ is the object of the verb whereas ‘him’ is the object of the preposition ‘for’.

1.5.2.2 Possessive

Possessive pronouns show that something belongs to a particular person, animal etc. Possessive pronouns include words such as those in the table below

Column A	Column B	Column C
Personal pronoun	Determiners	Possessive
I	My	Mine
You	Your	Yours
He	His	His
She	Her	Hers
It	Its	
We	Our	Ours
You	Your	Yours
They	Their	Theirs

The words under column B can be used as determiners and cannot be used without nouns following them. They are always in adjective position as in the following sentences.

a) This is **my** house. It is near **your** father’s shop.

b) **Her** name is on **his** list.

The words in bold prints in sentences “e” to “g” are possessive pronouns that are determinative adjectives. They are followed by nouns and they show that the items (nouns) belong to someone.

Column A	Column B	Column C
Personal pronoun	Determiners	Possessive
I	My	Mine
You	Your	Yours
He	His	His
She	Her	Hers
It	Its	
We	Our	Ours
You	Your	Yours
They	Their	Theirs

The words in column “C” though they are possessive, they function differently.

- a) The books are yours.
- b) These dresses are mine but his is that bag.

In sentence (h), the possessive pronoun is a complement in that it follows a linking verb, **are**. ‘Theirs’ is a subject of the verb in sentence (i). In sentence (j) ‘mine’ is a complement and ‘his’ is a subject. In these sentences the pronouns are used to show that some items belong to somebody.

1.5.2.3 Interrogatives

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions or for investigations. They include words such as when, what, how, where, whose, why, whom, whatever. In the sentences below are some examples of interrogative pronouns in bold prints.

- i. **Which** is worse, failing or trying?
- ii. **Where** did it go on?

1.5.2.4 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are used to point to something specific within a sentence. The demonstrative pronouns are either singular or plural. They are used to point to something far or near in time or space. The members are this, that, these and those

- For items near in time or space, use ‘this’ for singular and ‘these’ for plural.

This is my aunt’s car but that is for my uncle.

For items far in time or space, use ‘that’ for singular and ‘those’ for plural.

- That, those

These are my necklaces and yet I want those over there too.

- ii. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns do not make reference to specific people or things.

Some	Every	no	Any
Somebody	Everybody	nobody	anybody
Someone	Everyone	No one	anyone
Something	Everything	Nothing	anything

These words are used as singular pronouns. For example:

- **Somebody** comes to this room.
- **No one** is perfect after all.

iii. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are used to indicate that two or more people carry out an action with both receiving the benefits or consequences of the action at the same time. Normally, ‘each other’ is used when two people are involved whereas ‘one another’ is used when the people involved are more than two as in the following sentences:

- We love **each other**.
- They want **one another**.

1.6 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words used to join words, phrases or clauses. There are three main types namely, coordinate conjunctions, correlative conjunctions and subordinate conjunctions.

1.6.1 Co-ordinate conjunctions

The co-ordinate conjunctions are used to join words, phrases and clauses that are treated equally. The words, phrases and clauses they join belong to the same word class and are of equal importance. Examples of co-ordinate conjunctions have been provided below.

and	But	Or	nor
Yet	So	For	

Learn how to use them and identify the words, phrases and clauses they are used to join. For example,

Kofi and Kwame are good friends.

Kofi can be joined to Kwame by the use of **and** because they are all nouns.

1.6.2 Subordinate conjunctions

The conjunctions below are used to make part of a clause subordinate to the main clause. This means that there is more than one clause in the sentence. Look at the subordinate conjunctions listed below.

because	When	(al)though	until	as
since	While	unless	whereas	lest
after	Where	If	till	as soon as

Let's look at a few examples of how they are used.

- i. I will teach **where** I am posted.
- ii. I will come to you **as soon as** I get home.

The examples will show that one part of the sentences make independent meaning but the other parts led by the subordinating conjunctions will not make independent meaning since their meanings depend on the main clause.

1.6.3 Relative pronouns as subordinate conjunctions

These clauses below have relative pronouns as subordinators. Examples of relative pronouns are who, whom, that, which, whose.

- i. This is the student whom I gave the phone.
- ii. The dog whose tail is short is lying down now.
- iii. My father has bought a car for me, which surprised everyone.

Correlative conjunctions

These conjunctions are mostly in pairs so they work together in joining two elements in a sentence. The most common ones are either...or, neither...nor, whether ...or, both...and, not only...but also. Let's see how they are used in sentences in the following examples

1. either...or

- i. Either you eat all the food or leave my house at once.
- ii. You can either register for the paper this year or do that next year.

Observe that when you use these pair of words as subjects the verb agrees with the last noun as in sentences (iv) and (v). You may observe that they are used to make choices.

2. neither...nor

This pair of conjunctions is used in the negative sense.

- i. I will neither eat nor sleep here.
- ii. Neither you nor your friend was selected for the trip.

Again watch how you will select the form of the verb to agree with the last noun when the number is singular or plural.

3. whether...or

- i. Whether I leave or stay, I will be paid a good salary.
- ii. Whether the car is rickety or not, I own one.

4. both...and

This pair is used to join equal items. For example

- i. The man was both greedy and proud.
- ii. Both John and Joana have dimples.

5. not only...but also

This is used to show that two items belong to the same pair. For example

- i. Not only did I go home but also took my friend along.
- ii. You will not only wash the laundry but also cook the food.

Determiners

Determiners are used before a noun to introduce it or to provide more information on the noun such as how many there are. If there are any adjectives before the noun to describe it then the determiner will also come before them.

When introducing singular nouns, a determiner is always required. However, if you are introducing plural nouns then the use of a determiner beforehand is optional.

Articles:

Articles are largely considered to be the most commonly used determiners. In the English language, there are three specific articles that can be used. These are 'a', 'an', and 'the'. They are used to identify the noun which the speaker is referring to.

If the noun begins with a vowel then 'a' is used, and if it begins with a consonant, then 'an' is used. For example:

A seat is reserved for you.

An amazing plan has been presented to the team.

Demonstrative as determiners

Demonstrative pronouns are another kind of determiner, consisting of 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those'. that are used when the noun in question is there and can be pointed to. For example:

We wanted this design.

These patterns are very ready for the printing.

Quantifiers

Quantifying determiners specifically tell you how much, or what proportion of the noun is being referred to. Examples of them are all, many, few, some:

He ate all the candies.

Many people like fruits.

Possessive as determiners

Possessive pronouns can be used to identify ownership. These possessive determiners include 'my', 'your', 'her', 'his', 'our', and 'their'. For example:

You are my best choice for the team.

This is his decision.

Auxiliary verbs

We can put verbs into two main categories, main verbs and auxiliary verbs. An auxiliary verb is primarily used to help the main verb to indicate tense, mood or voice. We have three main forms

of primary auxiliary verbs. These are be, have and do and their variants. There is another category of auxiliary verbs called modal auxiliary.

Primary auxiliary verbs

These are called primary auxiliary because they have binary functions as main verbs and also as auxiliary. The verb 'be' has these variants: am, is, are, was, were, be, being and been.

1. The seat is comfortable.
2. These were the items I bought from the shopping mall.

The verbs in sentences 1 and 2 are not auxiliary verbs because there are no other verbs that they are helping to express tense, mood or voice. However, in the sentences 1b and 2b below they are auxiliary since 'is' and 'were' are helping the non-finite verbs sitting, making and present to make grammatical sense.

- 1b. The young man is sitting comfortable in the couch.
- 2b. They were presenting the items at the time I called you.

To Have

The verb 'have' has three variants: has, have and had.

5. He has my bio-data.
6. We had good relationship at school.

In sentences 5 and 6, the verbs are not used as auxiliary but they are auxiliary in sentence 4b to 6b.

- 4b. They have gone home.
- 5b. He has received an award.
- 6b. We had left the room at the time of the incident.

To Do

The verb 'do' has these as variants: do, does and did.

7. I do my work with passion.
8. They did my job for me.
9. He does well in class.

You will again observe that the variants of 'do' are the main verbs of sentences 7 to 9. However, the same cannot be said about the use of 'do' in sentences 7b to 9b since they help the other verbs to create tense, mood and voice.

- 7b. I do help my sister at the market.
- 8b. He does not interact well with other students.
- 9b. We did come home as early as 3pm that day.

Modal auxiliary

Modal auxiliary verbs match with other verbs to express ideas such as necessity, possibility, intention and ability. These modal auxiliary verbs are will, would, can, could, may, must, might, shall, should, ought (to), dare.

10. I may visit you during the next week.
11. We will do the assignment this evening.
12. They might have gone home.

You will observe that the modal verbs cannot stand on their own as the only verb in the sentences. This creates one difference between the primary auxiliary and the modal auxiliary verbs.

Key ideas

- Words are put into categories by their structure, function and definition
- The difference between the major word class and the minor word class is the number of their membership

Reflection

- **Scenario**

The following passage contains major and minor word classes that are underlined.

Group them in a table of two columns

Today, we will close early but you will stay to continue the work. We took the decision for we have to report for another workshop in Kumase. The participant who doubles as secretary will stand in for us. ⁴When the work is completed a team will be sent to review it. Have a good day.

- **Discussion**

Self-Assessment

1. Indicate the word class of the underlined words and give two reasons for the answer you provided.
 - i. The girl in the red apron

- ii. After the classes, the library will open.
- iii. We live in this community.
- iv. All these boys in the school have been punished.

2. Join the following sentences with appropriate co-ordinating conjunction

- i. My mother was born in Cape Coast. I've always wanted to visit that town.
- ii. He always arrives late. He expects everyone else to arrive on time.
- iii. His mother did not finish college. His father did not finish college.
- iv. The sky turned gray. The wind died down.

3. Join the following sentences with appropriate subordinating conjunction.

- i. I want to read your report. I can evaluate it.
- ii. The man was in jail. The man confessed.
- iii. We love teaching. It is an extremely rewarding profession.
- iv. We are doing our homework now. We want to play again.
- v. We often think. We often talk about people's behaviour.

UNIT 2: SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Learning outcomes

By the end of this section, participants will be able to:

- describe a sentence by its structure
- give the difference among the four sentence types by their structure

2.1 Sentence

A sentence is a word or group of words which makes complete meaning. It is made up of one or more clauses. It has two main parts, subject and predicate. The subject is always a noun phrase or pronoun, nominal phrase or a nominal clause. The predicate has a verb and a word or a group of words that gives information about the subject. These groups of words that complete the sense of the verb include objects, adjuncts, and complements.

Let us take a look at the following sentences:

- i. Meet me there.
- ii. The gentleman looks very smart in that new suit.
- iii. The mason who has the ladder has a good sense of humour.
- iv. We need well-trained drivers on our roads.

Though sentence (i) has one word, it has a subject which is implied 'you'. Sentence (iii) has 'the mason who has the ladder' as subject and the underlined group of words as predicate. 'We' in sentence (iv) is the subject and the rest of the sentence is the predicate.

2.2 Types of Sentences

Sentences are grouped by their structure and their communicative functions. By structure, the number of clauses in sentences tells us the type of sentences they are. The four types of sentences are simple, compound, complex and compound complex sentences.

2.2.1 Simple sentence

A simple sentence consists of an independent clause and it has a subject and a main verb controlling it. The verb may be followed by an object, complement, or an adjunct. A simple

sentence ends in an end punctuation mark such as full stop, question mark and exclamation mark.

Examples of simple sentences include

1. The soldiers and their commanders are defending their country.
2. Processed cocoa in the silos are ready for export.
3. You will have to leave and come tomorrow.

A simple sentence could have a compound subject as in sentence one. For sentence two, there is a modifier to the main subject “cocoa”. The simple sentence could also have compound predicate that shares the same subject as in sentence three.

2.2.2 Compound sentence

A compound sentence has at least two independent clauses that are joined by coordinate conjunctions. Each clause can stand on its own to make meaning without changes to it. Coordinate conjunctions are but, and, or, for, nor, yet and so. These coordinate conjunctions make the clauses they join equal in grammatical status. Note that there is a comma before the coordinate conjunction.

1. The man has an expensive car, and his wife owns the largest factory in the country.
2. She gave her a lift, for she was in robbery enclave.
3. The teams have been working on these projects, but they are not earning a lot of money.

Sentence one has these two independent clauses joined by and:

- a. The man has an expensive car. (and)
- b. his wife owns the largest factory in the country.

Imperative sentences do not show their subjects since it is assumed that the listener is the one spoken to. Therefore, if there are two independent clauses, they are considered compound sentences.

- a. Get me some water or the food will burn.
- b. Shout louder so we can get help in time.

2.2.3 Complex sentence

A complex sentence has an independent clause and two or more dependent clauses. The independent clause and the dependent clauses are joined by subordinate conjunctions which include until, since, because, since, while etc. Remember, after the subordinate conjunctions, there are clauses. For example

1. Although the examinations have been postponed, I am still learning very hard.
2. Kwesi will go home now after he has closed from school as I finish the work at hand.
3. The novel which is by the bed is interesting.

The subordinate conjunction begins the dependent clause. In sentence one, we have the independent clause as “I am still learning very hard” whereas the dependent clause is “although the examination has been postponed”. Sentence three has “which is by the bed” as the dependent clause that makes the sentence a complex one. The independent clause is “The novel is interesting’.

A comma separates the dependent clause from the independent one when the dependent clause begins the complex sentence.

2.2.4 Compound complex sentence

A compound complex sentence has both coordinate and subordinate conjunctions joining the clauses in sentences. There are at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

For example

1. Because I could not wake up early, I came late but I could meet the target for the day on time.
 - Because I could not wake up early is a dependent clause.
 - I came late is an independent clause
 - I could meet the target for the day on time is an independent clause
 - ‘but’ joins the two independent clause
2. She cleans the rooms, but I wash the clothes since we have much more things to do before we go to bed.
 - She cleans the room is an independent clause
 - I wash the clothes is an independent clause
 - ‘but’ is a coordinate conjunction

- since we have much more things to do is a dependent clause because it begins with a subordinate conjunction ‘since’
 - before we go to bed is a dependent clause because it begins with a subordinate conjunction ‘before’.
3. I have been there for you, but I decided to wait until you proposed to me.
- I have been there for you,
 - but I decided to wait
 - until you proposed to me.

Key ideas

- A sentence makes a complete sense.
- It has subject and predicate.
- Four types of sentence structure are simple, compound complex compound-

Reflection

- **Scenario**

The following passage contains the four types of sentence structure. Identify the numbered sentences as simple, compound etc.

¹On Wednesday, we will close early but you will stay to continue the work.

²We took the decision for we have to report for another seminar in Elmina.

³Fred, the secretary and IT specialist, will stand in for us. ⁴When the work is completed a team will be sent to review it. ⁵Have a good day.

- **Discussion**

Self-assessment

Which of the following is a sentence? State the reason for the answer you provided.

- My red apron
- Before the classes, library
- The ladies live in that community.
- All the student in this class have been punished.

UNIT 3: CAPITALISATION AND PUNCTUATION

Learning outcomes

By the end of this section, participants will be able to:

- use capital letters appropriately
- punctuate a given passage and sentences

3.1 Punctuation marks are indispensable in the organization of written language since they help us to assign the correct meaning to words, phrases and sentences we read. Writing uses punctuation marks to make up for loss of intonation, facial expression and gestures. Punctuation marks therefore, may be regarded as a system of conventional signals to assist the reader to comprehend what he reads.

3.2 Full Stop or Period (.)

This is a very common punctuation used to mark the end of a sentence which is a statement or command. Examples:

1. The young lady looked shyly at the gentleman.
2. Remember to lock the door.

It may be used to end an abbreviation or a person's initials. (Sometimes the full stop may be omitted in abbreviations. Mr. K. B. Annan, or Mr. K B Annan; p.m. or pm).

3.3 Comma

The comma is the most versatile punctuation in the hand of a skilful writer.

3.3.1 Major Uses of the Comma

- In dates: A comma must be used between the day of the month and the year when the two numbers are next to each other. It is used to separate the year from the month.

E.g. March 31, 2011. 7th March, 1957

- Places: The comma separates successively larger geographical landmarks.

E.g. Takoradi, Western, Ghana; Central Region, Ghana, has many forts and castles.

3.3.2 Numerals

The comma is used to separate all numbers except those used for the purpose of identification (like street numbers, telephone numbers, codes etc) into groups of three starting from right. This facilitates easy reading and interpretation.

For example

- a) 4,845,489
- b) GH¢2,000; GH¢15,555

Inverted names: The comma is used to separate the surname from the other names when they are inverted. For example,

Normal – Grace Kafui Allotey

Inverted – Allotey, Grace Kafui

3.3.3 Titles and degrees: The comma is used to separate a title or degree which follows a name. e.g. Dr Nduom, Ph.D.

3.3.4 Other uses of the comma

The comma is used to separate the items in a list of words, phrases or clauses.

Example

1. Ama went to the market and bought some fruits, vegetables, foodstuffs and toiletries.
2. If you are punctual to class, listen attentively, do all your assignments and study hard, you will definitely pass your examination.

Commas are used between adjectives whether they come before the noun or after a linking verb.

Examples

1. It was a hot, dry and dusty road.
2. It is wet, cold and windy outside.

The comma is used to separate main clauses or two independent clauses.

Examples

1. It was cold out, but we decided to go for a walk anyway.
2. John spent the whole night reading through his notes, yet he has found no question that he can easily answer.

The comma is used to separate subordinate clauses from main clauses. Commas are normally used if the subordinate clause comes before the main clause.

1. If you have any problem, just call me.
2. If they decide not to write the exams, they will be expelled.

The comma is used after long adverbial clauses. Eg:

3. If the farmers had not been regularly disappointed by the rains, their standard of living would have been quite high.
4. With the cooperation of the junior, senior and management staff, the company has recorded a good turn over.

The comma is used to separate the non-defining relative clauses.

5. My next-door neighbour, who is a teacher, gives extra tuition to my daughter.
6. Prof Ahlijah, who has just returned from sabbatical, will give the lecture.

The comma is used with adverbials. When an adverbial such as however, therefore or unfortunately modifies a whole sentence, it is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

The comma can be used before and after the adverbial when it is in the sentence.

Examples

1. She was, however, late for the appointment and this caused her to miss the interview.
2. Unfortunately, the speaker arrived late yesterday.

The comma is also used to separate introductory words or phrases from the rest of the sentence.

Example

3. Once again, I was ignored by the panel of judges.

Comma is used with vocatives. They are used to separate name(s) of a person/persons or group being addressed from the rest of the sentence. Examples

4. And now ladies and gentlemen, please raise your glasses in a toast to the happy couple.
5. Madam Chairman, panel of judges, co-debaters, etc.
6. Abena, you won't believe who I met this morning.

The comma is used with question tags. It is used to separate question tags from the statement of the sentence. It is used before question tags and after 'yes' or 'no' in short responses. Examples

7. It's quite good, isn't it? Yes, it is.
8. Are you the mother of these children? Yes, I am

3.4 Apostrophe (-)

The apostrophe is used to show possession. It is used to show that something belongs to someone.

Examples

1. Children's games
2. James' car
3. Your daughters are your sister's nieces.
4. This is nobody's fault.

The apostrophe is used to form plurals of numbers, letters, and symbols. Examples

1. Three A's, two eighty's, No if's
2. Akosua had three A's in the mid-semester examination.
3. This song belongs to the late 1960's.
4. You should always cross your t's.

The apostrophe is used in contracted forms. An apostrophe is used to shorten words to show that one or more letters have missed out. Contractions are usually shortened forms of auxiliary verbs.

Examples

Be	Have
I'm /He's/ They're	I've / We've/ They've

1. She's reading a book.
2. We'd better go home.
3. I'd rather not talk about it.
4. I'm nervous about meeting his parents.
5. They're leaving for UK tonight.

The negative 'not' can also be contracted. Examples

1. They aren't ready yet.
2. I haven't seen May for years.
3. It isn't proper to shuffle.
4. We can't sing that song.
5. They won't come along.

3.5 SEMI COLON (;)

The semi-colon is used where one would otherwise use such conjunction as and or but. In other words, it joins two main clauses where there's no conjunction. The clauses may be main clauses/independent clauses and can stand as separate sentences. The semi-colon is a long pause that balances two equally important, related or parallel ideas. Examples

1. She went by train; she would rather have flown.
2. I'm not that interested in jazz; I prefer classical music.
3. He knew everything about me; I had never even heard of him.

The semi-colon is used to mark off separate statements which are internally punctuated with commas. Examples

We are sending you the following goods by the afternoon coach tomorrow: suiting materials, 5 bales; woollen pullover, 4 dozens; and nylon stockings, 100 pairs.

3.6 COLON (:)

The colon is used to direct attention to what follows it. The colon indicates that a list, an explanation, illustration or an idea that is following it. Examples

1. I need to buy the following items: lettuce, tomatoes. Cucumber and carrots.
2. I thank God: my prayer for a job has been answered.
3. I used three colours: blue, red and green.
4. I decided against going away this weekend: the weather forecast was dreadful.

The colon introduces a quotation.

J. F. Kennedy's famous words are: "Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country."

In script writing (dialogue) a colon follows the speaker. Examples

Mrs Brown: Are you going to the mall?

Mrs Lejoka: No, I have so much to do this morning.

To separate hours from minutes: 10:40 am, 6:20 pm

- To separate chapter from verse: Matthew 17:10

3.7 Brackets

These are used to separate a comment, extra information, an afterthought from the rest of a sentence. Example

1. “The evils that men do”, (so Shakespeare said) “live after them”.
 2. Mary said she’d never had a wink for months (but I am sure she was joking).
- To indicate additional information

Example

This balloon (the smallest of them) can fit into this teacup.

It is often possible to use commas or dashes in place of the brackets.

Examples

1. This balloon, the smallest of them, can fit into this teapot.
2. This balloon – the smallest of them – can fit in a teacup.

3.8 Dash (–)

A dash line is slightly longer than the hyphen. A dash serves a similar purpose as a comma, colon, or a semi-colon.

- It separates part of a sentence and forces us to pause.
Eg. We had to make our exit – time was running out.
- The dash is used in order to give additional information. (The dash can be used in the same way as commas or brackets, as in
Eg. Next week, we are going to Chiraano – the Sun City.
- It separates a comment or afterthought from the rest of the sentence.
Eg. I checked and there was no one there (or so I thought).
- For direction
Eg. Will he – or should he – take money from his in-laws?
- Used to enclose appositive forms which are regarded non-essential.

Eg. Students of the five universities – the state funded ones – have embarked on a massive demonstration.

3.9 Hyphen (-)

The hyphen joins words or parts of words. It is used at the end of lines where words are split to warn the reader that the word continues on the next line. If the word you need to split is clearly made up of two or smaller word or element you should put the hyphen after the first of these parts. Otherwise, you put the hyphen at the end of a syllable. Example

1. Wheel - barrow, inter-national, listen-ing, compli-mentary. Do not hyphenate a word when it is too short.
- It is used after prefixes that are in front of a word beginning with a capital letter.

Example:

2. A wave of anti-British feeling.
3. That behaviour is anti-American.

The hyphen is used to join two or more words that together form an adjective, where this adjective is used before the noun it describes.

4. An up-to-date account
5. A six-year-old boy
6. Out-this-world experience
7. A last-minute meeting

The hyphen is omitted when the adjectives so formed come after the noun or pronoun it describes.

For example

- The account was up to date.
- He's six years old.
- The experience was out of this world.

The hyphen is used to form compound words from two other words:

Kind-hearted, word-formation, sea-green, far-fetched, etc.

The hyphen is used to form compound words from two other words which are separated by a preposition:

Mother-in-law, out-of-date, father-in-law, teacher-turned-trader, bride-to-be, officer-in-charge

3.10 Question Mark (?)

- The question mark marks the end of a question. Examples
 1. Why did you do that?
 2. You know he doesn't live here any longer?
 3. Did you see Amelia last night?
 4. Where do you live?

3.11 Exclamation Mark (!)

It is used to mark the end of interjections and sentences or remarks which express a high degree of strong emotion like anger, joy or amazement. It is used after exclamations and emphatic expressions. Examples:

1. I can't believe it!
2. Oh no! Look at this mess!
3. Get out of my office at once!

3.12 Quotation Marks/ (“...”) (‘...’)

Direct speech gives those actual words that a speaker used. It is common in novels and other writing where the actual words of a speaker are quoted. The words spoken are enclosed in double or single quotations. For example:

1. “Have you been to the new shopping mall yet?” enquire Shana.
 2. ‘I have already seen it,’ John replied.
 3. “You can do it Ama,” encouraged the teacher.
- Single quotation marks are sometimes used to draw attention to a word.
e.g. The word ‘book’ can be used as a noun or a verb.

Quotation marks are used to enclose the titles of short stories, poems and songs.

1. “Her Hair Politics” is a short story written by Ama Atta Aidoo.
 2. The poem “Love’s Anxiety” was written by Olivia A. K. Sosu.
 3. I love the Christmas carol “Jingle Bells”.
- Single quotations marks are used to mark quotations which are within other quotations.
Our teacher said, “John Milton wrote many great poems, including ‘Paradise Lost’”.

3.13 Capital Letters

A capital (or uppercase) letter is used to mark the beginning of a sentence. For example

1. When the teacher arrived the students had already left. She started writing at the age of sixteen.

2. The capital letter is used to begin proper nouns.
 - People's names: Ekuia Dickson, Dan Davies, Kwame Tawiah, Emmanuel Adom
 - Days of the week: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday
 - Months of the year: January, February, March
 - Public holidays and festivals, Christmas, Kundum
 - Nationalities: Ghanaian, French, English
 - Languages: English, French, Mfantse, Spanish
 - Geographical locations: Australia, Mountain Afadja
 - Company names: Harper Collins
 - Religions: Christianity, Islam, Buddhism
 - The titles of books, magazine, newspapers: The Girl Who Can, Daily Graphic etc.

Key ideas

- Punctuation marks are used written language since they help us to assign the correct meaning to words, phrases and sentences we read.
- We use punctuation marks to make up for loss of intonation, facial expression and gestures in oral discourse.
- Capital letters differentiate between proper and common nouns

Reflection

- **Scenario**

Punctuate the following passage correctly.

she could hear strains of a popular highlife band which she had once heard introduced on a radio station as world music. the presenter had mentioned the bands name, but not where it came from. As thought crediting the music with Africa would somehow take something away from it.

Self-assessment

Punctuate the following sentences correctly.

1. You are my mate aren't you
2. They found the task very difficult however they are determined to succeed
3. If students have not been regularly disrupting the academic calendar academic planning will be much easier.
4. Grace went to the shopping mall and bought the following items a pair of shoes a beautiful dress and a handbag
5. Paul who has been the president of the club for three years has decided to resign.

UNIT 4: INTRODUCTION TO WRITING

Learning outcomes:

By the end of the unit, participants will be able to:

- identify the structure of a paragraph;
- discuss the features of narrative and descriptive essays;
- write the appropriate narrative and descriptive essays;
- use transitional words appropriately.

Introduction:

We tell stories and we are also able to describe persons, places or things. The Unit is intended to explore the features of both narrative and descriptive essays. Writing of appropriate paragraphs enables the writer to develop the essay.

4.1 What is a Paragraph?

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.

4.2 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.

4.2.1. The 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 two reasons why newly-trained teachers refuse posting to the rural areas.*
- *ii) *Dogs usually bark at strangers. (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.

4.2.2. The 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.

4.2.3 Use of Transition Signals

Transition signals, also called cohesive devices or linking words, are words or phrases which show the relationship between ideas. 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.

There are many different types, the most common 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

4.2.4 The Conclusion:

The conclusion of the paragraph summarises the connections between the information discussed in the body of the paragraph and the paragraph's controlling idea. In writing a good conclusion for a paragraph, one needs to think about the main point that must be sure the main point to be communicated is included.

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).

In this unit we shall concentrate on Narrative and Descriptive writing.

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.

4.3.1.1 Parts of Narrative writing:

Narrative writing is made of specific parts. These parts are:

- i. Setting** – The setting is the time and place the story is told. The place can be a real location or an imagined place where the story takes place. The setting can change throughout the story.

- ii. Character** – The characters are the people involved in the story. The conflict in the story revolves around the characters. Characterization is the method the writer uses to development of the personality of the characters. Character traits are the individual qualities that make the character unique.

- iii. Plot** – This is the structure of inter-related actions consciously selected and arranged by the writer. This is the main point of the story. Where is it all going and what is happening while we get there? This can often include any conflict, but is usually a bigger “main” portion of your story, and therefore the narrative.

- iv. Conflict** – This part of narrative writing is where the tension comes from. Conflict of any form, whether it is between characters, between elements in your setting, or even in your plot, is essential for not only a good book, but for narrative writing.

- v. Theme** – These are embedded into your story even if you’re not trying to. Narrative writing tells a story and with any stories, lessons are learned and these become the themes of your story.

4.3.1.2 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.

4.3.2.1 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.

Key ideas

- Paragraphs have structure – introduction, body and conclusion.
- Transitional signals or cohesive devices or linking words show the relationship between ideas.
- Narrative essays recount incidents that take place.
- Descriptive essays describe persons, places and things.

Self-assessment

- **Scenario:** A candidate wrote the narrative essay above.
- **Discussion:** Discuss the essay and identify the various features of a narrative essay.

- 1) You have just witnessed a fight between two of your classmates. Write what you saw.
- 2) Describe the teacher you like best.

UNIT 5: READING AND COMPREHENSION

Learning outcomes

By the end of the unit, participants will be able to:

- show a level of understanding of the passage: topic sentence, supporting sentences etc.
- respond to questions appropriately
- present a lesson on reading aloud and comprehension

5.1. What is comprehension?

Comprehension is the understanding and interpretation of what is read. To be able to accurately understand a written text, you need to decode what the text, make connections between what is decoded and what you already know and then think deeply about what has been read.

5.2. Comprehension Strategies

For you to be able to do comprehension exercises well, you need certain strategies that will help you. The following are the comprehension strategies.

a. Activating and using background knowledge

This strategy requires readers to activate their background knowledge and to use that knowledge to help them understand what they are reading. Background knowledge is made up of a person's experiences with the world (including what he or she has read), along with his or her concepts for how written text works, including word identification, print concepts, word meaning, and how text is organized.

b. Generating and asking questions

This strategy involves readers asking themselves questions throughout the reading of a text. The ability of readers to ask themselves relevant questions as they read is especially valuable in helping them to integrate information, identify main ideas, and summarize information. Asking the right questions allows good readers to focus on the most important information in a text.

Generating good questions may also lead readers to focus on problems with comprehension and to take actions to deal with these problems.

c. Making inferences

This strategy requires readers to evaluate or draw conclusions from information in a text. Authors do not always provide complete descriptions of, or explicit information about a topic, setting, character, or event. However, they often provide clues that readers can use to "read between the lines"-by making inferences that combine information in the text with their background knowledge.

d. Prediction

This strategy involves the ability of readers to get meaning from a text by making informed predictions. Good readers use prediction as a way to connect their existing knowledge to new information from a text and to get meaning from what they read. Before reading, they may use what they know about an author to predict what a text will be about. The title of a text may trigger memories of texts with similar content, allowing them to predict the content of the new text.

During reading, good readers may make predictions about what is going to happen next, or what ideas or evidence the author will present to support an argument. They tend to evaluate these predictions continuously, and revise any prediction that is not confirmed by the reading.

e. Summarizing

This strategy involves the ability of readers to pull together, or synthesize information in a text so as to explain in their own words what the text is about. Summarizing is an important strategy because it can enable readers to recall text quickly. It also can make readers more aware of text organization, of what is important in a text and of how ideas are related.

Effective summarizing of narrative text can involve such things as connecting and synthesizing events in a story line or identifying the factors that motivate a character's actions and behaviour.

f. Visualizing

This involves the ability of readers to make mental images of a text as a way to understand processes or events they encounter during reading. This ability can be an indication that a reader understands a text. Some research suggests that readers who visualize as they read are better able to recall what they have read than are those who do not visualize.

g. Comprehension monitoring

This involves the ability of readers to know when they understand what they read; when they do not understand, and to use appropriate strategies to improve their understanding when it is blocked. Comprehension monitoring is a form of metacognition. Good readers are aware of and monitor their thought processes as they read. In contrast, poor readers "just do it." The strategies employed by good readers to improve understanding are called "repair" or "fix-up" strategies. Specific repair strategies include re-reading, reading ahead, clarifying words by looking them up in a dictionary or glossary, or asking someone for help. In general, good readers use a variety of strategies such as the ones just discussed to construct meaning as they read.

5.3 Read the passage below and use the strategies discussed to answer the questions,

Passage

A cyclist saw two men walking along a lonely dusty road. The men were carrying heavy bags, so he at once informed the police. Earlier that morning, the police had broadcast a message on radio and television asking the public to assist them with information leading to the arrest of two suspected thieves. The suspects had stopped a van and stolen a lot of money from it. The money was from the sale of drugs to chemical shops in that district.

When the police arrived at the scene they interrogated both men but neither could speak English nor Akan. They tried to resist arrest. They kept shouting at the policeman as they were being taken to the police station. When they got there both men refused to talk but simply pointed to their bags. The police opened the bags and to their utter surprise, saw

only onions. The two men were nationals of Togo and were onion sellers. The police knew they had arrested the wrong people. They apologised to the men and released them to go and sell their onions.

Later in the day, the police chanced upon the two suspected thieves who had stolen the money. They were sharing the money in an uncompleted building. They were immediately arrested and taken to the police station.

- a) Where did the cyclist see the two men?
- b) Where was the van from?
- c) Why did the writer use the term "suspected thieves"?
- d) What did the police do when they arrived at the scene?
- e) What did the men do when they were being taken to the police station?
- f) How did the police know they had arrested the wrong people?
- g) Where did the police arrest the thieves who stole the money?
- h) What were the thieves doing at the time of their arrest?
- i) Explain the following words as used in the passage:
 - i. assist
 - ii. interrogated
 - iii. arrested
 - iv. released
 - v. resist

Key Ideas

- Read the passage and ensure that the text is understood by looking at the vocabulary and expressions
- Identify sequence of events/ideas
- Look at the role played by the characters
- Write responses to the questions given below the text

Reflection

- Scenario
A majority of the students in your class scored zero after answering the questions on the passages
- Discussion
How are you going to assist them to overcome the challenges they have in comprehension?

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