
Module for B.Ed Early Childhood Education Programme

EBS135SW: ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES I

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TABLE OF CONTENT

CONTENT	PAGE
Unit 1: Rank Scale	1
Unit 2: Active and Passive Voice	13
Unit 3: Capitalisation and Punctuation	18
Unit 4: Writing	24
Unit 5: Reading and Comprehension	27
References:	30

UNIT 1: RANK SCALE

Learning Outcomes

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

- differentiate among the elements of grammar.
- use the elements of grammar in appropriate written and spoken texts.

1.0 Grammatical Rank

Grammatical rank is also known as grammatical unit. The grammatical units in English language are sentence, clause, phrase, word and morpheme. The hierarchical arrangement of these grammatical units according to size is what is called rank scale. In diagram 1, the units are ordered from the highest unit to the smallest. This ordering is called consist-of relationship. This can be explained as: the sentence, which is the highest grammatical unit, consists of all the grammatical units below it.

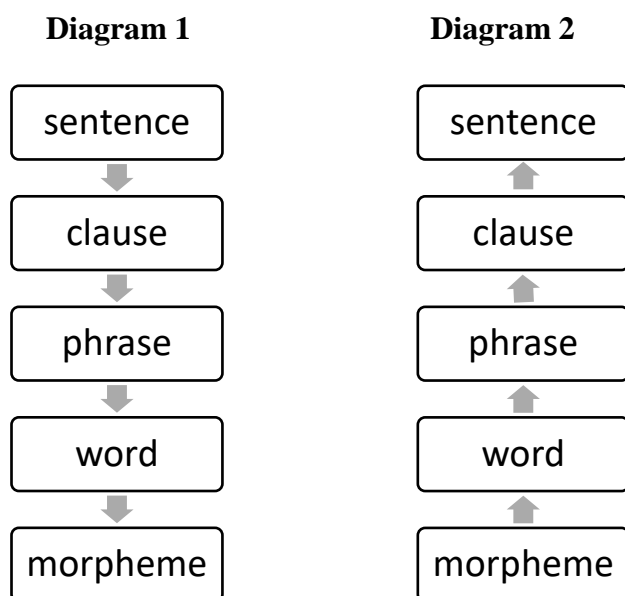


Diagram 1: Consist-of Relationship **Diagram 2:** Constituent-of Relationship

In diagram 2, the grammatical units are ranked from the lowest unit to the highest unit and this is technically called constituent-of relationship. In this case the morpheme, word, phrase (group), and clause are all constituent of the sentence.

1.2 Sentence as a Grammatical Unit

A sentence has a subject and a main verb as its mandatory constituents. The verb, however, may be followed by other words that function as object, complement and adjunct. A sentence ends in an end-punctuation mark such as full stop, question mark and exclamation mark.

A sentence may consist of one independent clause and such a sentence is called a simple sentence. If it has two independent clauses that are joined by a coordinate conjunction, it is a compound sentence. If the main clause is linked to a dependent clause by a subordinate conjunction, it is a complex sentence. However, clauses that are joined by both coordinate

and subordinate conjunctions in the same sentence are compound complex sentences. Examples are

- i. I watch football matches every weekend. (simple sentence)
- ii. The commentators selected the best player and he was amply rewarded. (compound sentence)
- iii. Students get excited when their efforts are recognised. (complex sentence)
- iv. We eat the food and they drink fruit juices whenever we are together. (compound complex sentence)

1.3 Clause as Grammatical Unit

A clause is the second grammatical unit below the sentence. Just like sentence, a finite verb clause has a subject and a verb as obligatory elements. A simple clause has the same structure as a simple sentence. Clauses are constituents of sentences.

- i. The lady speaks English with a French accent. (one clause)
- ii. The chef will cook now since we want to eat lunch. (two-clause sentence)

1.3.1 Types of Subordinate Clauses

i. Noun clause

A noun clause is found in the positions that most nouns can occupy. For example, a noun can be a subject, object, complement, appositive etc. A noun clause can do most of these functions too.

a. Noun clause as subject

In statements, the subject is written before the main verb.

1. That I passed the examination is false.
2. Why Mercy did that cannot be explained.

b. Noun clause as object

It completes the meaning of the transitive verb.

3. I know whom I can trust.
4. Marian does what she wants all the time.

c. As complement, the noun clause follows a linking verb. Examples of linking verbs include a form of be (am, is, was, were)

5. That is why I came to this college.
6. This is why I believe you.

ii Relative clause

Relative clause has a relative pronoun as its subject. Examples of relative pronouns are who, whom, whose, which, and that. The relative clauses are always post-modifiers and they give more information about the noun they talk about. For examples

- a. The television set which I bought recently is faulty.

- b. The student whom we trusted has betrayed our interest.
- c. The animal that is in the cage has been abandoned.

iii. **Adverbial clause**

Adverbial clauses begin with subordinate conjunctions such as the ones below

Because	When	(al)though	until	as
Since	While	unless	whereas	lest
After	Where	if	till	as soon as

- a) I came home as soon as it started raining.
- b) She did that when her father complained.
- c) We were chatting while the lecture was going on.

Adverbial clauses give extra information about manner, time, concession, reason etc. therefore they are adjuncts by their function. Adverbial clauses can be transposed.

1.4 Clausal Elements

A sentence is called a simple sentence when it has only one clause in which we may find a subject (S), verb (V), object (O), complement (C) and adjunct (A). These are the basic elements that come together to form the clause or the sentence.

i. Subject as an element

The subject is usually the performer of the action in the clause or who the state of the verb refers to. Most of the time, the subject is a noun, noun phrase, a nominal phrase or pronoun.

- a. Michael did a good job.
- b. Though she is here, we cannot start the project.

ii. Verb as an element

The verb is the part that indicates the action or state of being in the clause or sentence. It tells us about the time the action takes place or shows the state of the subject at a particular time. It also tells whether the action or state is progressive or completed. The verbs determine whether a complement, an object, or an adjunct should follow them. The verb in a clause or sentence is always finite. For example:

- c. Abena kept the book.
- d. Afi will leave for Accra tomorrow.

iii. Object as an element

The object of a verb is the person or thing that receives or is affected by the action of a verb. The object is a noun, a noun phrase, a nominal phrase or a pronoun. The

noun phrase normally follows a transitive verb which may be a mono-transitive or di-transitive verb. Examples:

- i. The dog bit the man.
- ii. Efua cooks tasty meals.
- iii. Michael speaks the truth.

In the sentences above, 'the man' and 'the truth' receive the action of 'bit', 'cooks' and speaks respectively. Sometimes the verb takes two objects as in the sentence below.

- i. John gave ²Esi ¹a beautiful bracelet.
- ii. They send ²their children ¹some presents.
- iii. She brings ²us ¹some books.

The above example has two objects; 'Esi' and 'a beautiful bracelet'. One of them is a direct object, whereas the other is the indirect object. The indirect object receives the action indirectly and it is usually placed between the verb and the direct object. The direct object is the first receiver of the action. In this example, 'Esi' is the indirect object and 'a beautiful bracelet' is the direct object.

iv. Complement

A complement either adds to the meaning of the subject or that of the object. So we have subject complement and object complement. A complement is made up of an adjective, a noun or a nominal. Normally, subject complements follow linking verbs. Examples of complements include:

- i. I am a teacher. (subject complement)
- ii. She seems happy. (subject complement)
- iii. The class made Ralph their leader. (object complement)

In all the above, the underlined parts are the complements. Linking verbs include a form of be and other words such as seem, become, taste etc. Object complements usually follow complex transitive verbs.

v. Adjunct (Adverbial)

The adjunct does the same job that the adverb does. It modifies the verb in the clause. The adjunct shows place, time, cause, purpose and manner. The adjunct can be a prepositional phrase, an adverb, etc. In the examples below the underlined parts are all adjuncts (adverbials).

- i. He put the box on the table.
- ii. I met her at home.
- iii. Yesterday, the girl shouted when she saw the thief.
- iv. On Friday, we will be there with you.

1.5 Basic Sentence Patterns

A basic sentence pattern is determined by the type of verb chosen and how it is complemented. The following sentence patterns are going to be considered:

1. The man |disappeared. SV
2. Ekua| sang| melodiously. SVA

In sentences 1 and 2, the verbs are intransitively used. They are with or without other words to give extra information.

3. Kofi |is |handsome. SVC
4. He | seemed | angry | last night. SVCA

In sentences 3 and 4, the verbs are linking verbs which require complements which are obligatory in completing the sense of the verbs. They are subject complements.

5. Diane | wrote | a book. (The verb requires an object.) SVO
6. Mother | sold | the cloth | yesterday. SVOA
7. John | gave | Mary | a present. (the verb takes both direct and indirect object.) SVOO
8. We | bought |my father | a new TV set |last week. SVOOA
9. The class| voted| Phoebe | prefect. (the verb takes object complement.) SVOC
10. We | elected | Yeboa | president | a few days ago. SVOCA

In sentences 5 to 10, the verbs are transitively used so they require a direct object or direct and indirect objects.

The Imperative Sentence

The imperative sentence is used to give commands or orders (requests). Usually, imperative sentences do not have grammatical subject overtly stated. They do have an understood subject which is 'you'. That explains why the (S) is in bracket in the sentences below.

- a) Push the car. (S)VO
- b) Be a man. (S)VC
- c) Go away. (S)VA

The verb may be followed by object, complement and/or adjunct.

1.6 Phrase as a Grammatical Unit

A phrase is the third grammatical unit below the sentence. It can be seen as a group of related words without a subject. It is the head word that determines the type of phrase.

- a. The noun phrase has a noun as its head. It may have determiner(s) and or adjective(s) as pre-head constituents.
 - NP= noun e.g. tape
 - NP=determiner + noun e.g. the song
 - NP= adjective + noun e.g. comfortable seat
 - NP= determiner+ adjective + noun e.g. a pleasant person
- b. The verb phrase has a verb as its head. It may have one of these as its structure:
 - VP=verb
 - VP=auxiliary + verb

- VP=auxiliary + auxiliary + auxiliary + verb
- c. The phrase is an adjective phrase if it has an adjective as its head. The adjective phrase may be more than one adjective. It may have one of these as its structure:
- Adj. P=adjective e.g. nice
 - Adj. P=adverb+ adjective e.g. very nice
- d. The phrase is an adverb phrase if it has an adverb as its head. It may have one of these as its structure:
- Adv. P= adverb e.g. soon
 - Adv. P= adverb + adverb where the first adverb is an intensifier e.g. very slowly
- e. The phrase is a prepositional phrase it has a preposition as its head. It may have one of these as its structure
- PP=preposition e.g. along
 - PP=preposition + noun e.g. in Cape Coast
 - PP=preposition + determiner +noun e.g. in the house
 - PP=preposition + determiner +adjective + noun e.g. in the green shirt

1.7 The Word as a Grammatical Unit

A word may be simple when it is composed of only one structure which is morphologically indivisible. For example, the word 'use' has one structure. A composite word is composed of two or more substructures where one is a word. For example, the word 'useful' has 'use' as a word and '-ful' as a morpheme. A compound word is composed of two words which are divisible. For example, birthday (one word) =birth + day. Self-employed = self is hyphenated to employed, table cloth (a compound word with two separate words).

1.7.1 Types of Word Formation in English

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

- i. Pre-fixation – an affix is placed before the base of the word.
 - dis + belief = disbelief
 - im + proper = improper
- ii. Suffixation – an affix is placed after the base of the word.
 - good + ness = goodness
 - govern + ment = government
- iii. Conversion – the class of the word changes without any change of form.
 - Henry is the man of the house. (noun)
 - The lady mans that company. (verb)
 - The total sum is fifty thousand Ghana cedis. (adjective)
 - They total the figures. (verb)
 - They gave us the total. (noun)

- iv. Compounding – when two base forms are put together to become one word.
arm + chair = armchair
black + board = blackboard
door + mat = door mat
dining + table = dining table
mother + in + law = mother-in-law

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

- v. Acronyms – words formed by putting together the initial letters of the words which make up the name.
UNESCO – United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
GNAT – Ghana National Association of Teachers
UTAG - University Teachers Association of Ghana
- vi. Blends – two words merge into each other to form one word. It refers to the joining of the beginning of one word and the end of another to form a new word with a new meaning.
brunch from breakfast and lunch
smog from smoke and fog
motel from moto and hotel
- vii. Reduplication – a type of compound in which both elements are the same or slightly different.
wishy-washy
goody-goody
hanky-panky
bye-bye
- viii. Clipping – an informal shortening of a word, often to a single syllable. Words shortened by common use include:
television - telly
influenza - flu
mathematics - maths

1.8 Morpheme as a Grammatical Unit

A morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit which has function and creates meaning. A word may be a morpheme but a morpheme may not be a word. Affixes are morphemes. The types of morphemes include root, base, prefix, suffix, full, empty, free, bound, inflectional and derivational morphemes.

i. Root

The root is the basic form of the morpheme. In other words, it is the form which remains after removing all affixes. The root cannot be decomposed into further elements. In the word ‘disability’, for example, the root is ‘able’. In the word, comfortable, comfort is the root but ‘-able’ is a suffix.

ii. Base

The base consists of a root and a derivational affix to which another derivational affix can be added. The word ‘acceptable’ is a base to which a prefix like ‘un-’ can be attached to give the new word ‘unacceptable’. ‘Accept’ is the root, ‘un-’ and ‘-able’ are affixes/morphemes.

iii. Bound morpheme

A bound morpheme cannot stand alone as a word. It can only be written as part of another word. In ‘rebuild’, for example, the derivational morpheme re- is a bound morpheme and the root is ‘build’.

iv. Free morphemes

Free morpheme is that which can be written as an independent word. In ‘rebuild’, for example, ‘build’ is a free/independent morpheme which is preceded by the bound/dependent morpheme re-.

Free	Bound	As in
pay	-ment	payment
hand	-ful	handful
regular	ir-	irregular
refurbish	re-/-ment	refurbishment
Use	-less/-ness	uselessness

1.8.1 Inflectional Morpheme

Inflection is a grammatical process which produces variants of the same word. This change in the form of a word signals a change in grammatical function by usually adding a morpheme to the free morpheme. For example, the inflectional ending –s in the word ‘books’ signals a grammatical change which indicates that the noun is plural, whereas the ending –s in ‘sells’ indicates that the verb is the third person singular. Mainly, inflectional morphemes are class maintaining. This means that when the affix is attached to the root, the class of that root is maintained. The word ‘book’ remains a noun even in the plural form. Inflectional morphemes make the grammar of the language acceptable. For example:

*1a. The baby want to eat rice pudding. (This sentence is unacceptable and therefore ungrammatical because the verb lacks an inflectional affix)

1b. The baby wants to eat rice pudding. (This sentence is acceptable because the verb has an inflectional affix)

1.8.2 Derivational Morpheme

Derivation is the morphological process of forming a new word from a root by adding a bound morpheme. Mostly, these derivational morphemes change the class of the root. For example, in the word ‘selfish’ the bound derivational morpheme ‘-ish’ changes the word class from noun ‘self’ into adjective ‘selfish’. However, not every bound derivational morpheme causes a change in word class. Study the changes of the root in the table below.

Root	Base	Derived
number (noun)	out-number (verb)	outnumbered (verb)
new (adjective)	renew (verb)	renewable (adjective)
market (noun)	marketable (adjective)	unmarketable (adjective)
perish (verb)	perishable (adjective)	non-perishable (adjective)

1.8.3 Affixation

Within derivation, there is another morphological process called affixation. Affixation is the morphological process of deriving new words by adding affixes. Affixation comprises two modes: prefixation and suffixation. Prefixation is a process of forming a new word by attaching a bound morpheme to the front of a root morpheme. For example, ‘disagree’ is formed by adding the negative prefix ‘dis-’ to the root ‘agree’. Examples of prefixation include the following:

Prefix	As in
dis-	discontinue, disappoint, disconnection, disown
in-	ingenuity, inattentive, insensitive, inaccessible
non-	non-perishable, non-profit, non-negotiable
un-	unfair, unfair, undecided, unpack
mis-	misinform, miscalculate, mismanage, misfire
mini-	mini-skirt, mini-bag, mini-market, minicomputer
sub-	subconscious, sub-urban, submerge, substandard
ultra-	ultra-modern, ultrasound, ultraviolet, ultra vires
under-	under-estimate, underneath, undergo, underachieve
sur-	surcharge, surpass, surrogate, surmount
inter-	inter-class, intercept, interview, intertwine
co-	co-education, co-curricular, co-ordination, co-tenant
poly-	poly-technical, polysemy, polythene, polygamy

1.8.4 Suffixation

Suffixation is another process of forming a new word by attaching a bound morpheme to the end of a root morpheme. For example, the adjective ‘agreeable’ is formed by adding the suffix ‘-able’ to the root ‘agree’. Study the examples in the table below.

Suffix	As in
-dom	kingdom, officialdom, seldom, freedom
-ery	slavery, refinery, misery, bakery,
-ful	spoonful, faithful, handful, wasteful
-hood	falsehood, neighbourhood, parenthood, childhood
-let	starlet, booklet, piglet, singlet
-ness	kindness, selfishness, smoothness, brightness
-ist	cyclist, racist, artist, tourist
-ly	deadly, friendly, lovely, kindly

1.8.5 Lexical and Grammatical Morphemes

Lexical morphemes are roots that have meanings by themselves. They are content words that belong to the major word classes which include soon, nice, mate, dance, clever, toss, garnish, glaze etc.

Grammatical morphemes have functions. These morphemes make language grammatical and acceptable. Their functions include these examples:

- i. They make plural of nouns as in

Singular	Plural
boy	boys
lady	ladies

- ii. They make tense of verbs as in
a) He undergoes training from time to time.
b) They walked on the lawn.

- iii. They make comparison of adjectives

positive	Comparative	Superlative
smart	smarter	Smartest
busy	busier	Busiest

iv. They make comparison in adverbs as in

positive	Comparative	Superlative
soon	sooner	Soonest
early	earlier	earliest

1.8.6 Full Morpheme

Full like lexical morphemes have meaning. All the members of the major word class are full morphemes. The word 'boy' is a full morpheme so it has meaning- a young male child.

1.8.7 Empty Morpheme

Empty morphemes have grammatical functions. The words 'is' and 'the' have no meaning and therefore they have grammatical functions. Most of the members of the minor word class are empty morphemes.

Full morpheme	Empty morpheme
lazy	of
girl	which

Practicum

Identification of the grammatical units on the rank scale.

(1) Sentence

The group of words below is a sentence since it has subjects and predicates.

- The staff is meeting the groups when classes end today.

The staff and classes are the subjects. ---is meeting the groups and ---end today are the predicates.

(2) Clause

I am meeting the groups when he goes home. = this sentence has two clauses

- Clause one: I am meeting the groups.
- Clause two: when he goes home.

(3) Phrase

Clause one has three phrases and clause 2 has 4:

Clause one has:

- Phrase one: I =pronoun (N)
- Phrase 2: am meeting = verb phrase (auxiliary + main verb)
- Phrase 3: the groups = noun phrase (article + noun)

Clause two: when he goes home. Clause 2 has four phrases as

- Phrase one: when =conjunction
- Phrase 2: he = pronoun (noun)
- Phrase 3: goes =verb phrase (main verb)
- Phrase 4: home =adverb

Note: In all, the sentence below has 7 phrases.

I | am meeting | the groups | when | he | goes | home |.

(4) Word

The sentence below has nine words in all.

I | am | meeting | the | groups | when | he | goes | home |

(5) Morphemes

The sentence below has twelve morphemes.

- I | am | meet + ing | the | group + s | when | he | go + es | home |.

Key Ideas

- Ranks scale is the hierarchical arrangement of the grammatical units. The arrangement could be consist-of relationship or constituent-of relations. The highest grammatical unit consists of all the units below it.
- Discussion

Reflection

- **Scenario**

The student after looking at the sentence below said that it has all the units of a rank scale. Prove the student right or wrong.

The manager released the results after the board approve of the indicators.

- **Discussion**

Self-assessment

1. Identify the five ranks in the following group of words:
 - The actress is managed by the guild of performers.
2. How many clauses are there in the following sentences?
 - I will pass this examination provided I study hard.
3. Identify the phrases in this sentence
 - Many Ghanaian women have accepted their roles as breadwinners.
4. How many morphemes are there in this sentence?
 - The sheep bleat a lot.

UNIT 2: ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

2.0 Voice

Voice makes it possible to say or write views and ideas in two ways depending on what the focus of an utterance is on. Is the focus on the performer of the action (subject) or the receiver of the action (object)? Voice is the grammatical category which describes the relationship between the action or state that the verb expresses and the participants as subject, object among others that is identified by its arguments.

Barbar (2009) explains that voice refers to the form a verb takes to indicate whether the subject of the verb performs or receives the action. We have active and passive voice. Active voice is where the subject performs the action of the verb. The passive voice is where we focus on what happens to the subject.

There is basic foundation knowledge that we need to have in order to be able to use voice. The speaker and writer should have knowledge on;

- (i) the types of sentence structure: declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory. Mostly, voice is about declarative sentence that makes statements that are either positive or negative.
- (ii) the three basic elements of an active voice sentence: i.e. subjects, transitive verbs and objects without which transformation cannot be done.
- (iii) tense facilitates in transforming an active voice sentence to a passive one.
- (iv) personal pronouns and their forms. They are important in the transformation of the sentences from active to passive voice. Knowledge of the pronouns forms will enable us to write the by + agent element of the passive voice.

2.1. The Active Voice

The word 'active' in language simply means 'being involved'. In the context of grammar, it refers to the role of the subject in relation to the action being performed in a sentence. The active voice is the most commonly used structure in many languages and represents the "normal" case, in which the subject of the verb is the agent. In other words, the subject in an active voice directly performs the action that is presented in the verb. Thus, the focus is always on the subject in sentences that are presented in active voices.

Let's consider the following structures below.

- a. Harriet killed the goat.
- b. The teachers beat the students.
- c. The best student received the prize.

From the structures above, it can be realized that the subjects, (a) "Harriet", (b) "The teachers" and (c) "The best student", perform the actions "killed", "beat" and, "received" respectively in their respective sentence structures. Since the subjects are the direct performers of the actions in the verbs that the objects, 'goat', 'the students', and 'the prize' receive, we say that the structures are in the active voices.

2.2.1 Features of the Active Voice

Look at these sentences:

- i. **Kwame** *ate* the food.
- ii. **The stubborn boy** *broke* the chair.

In the above sentences, the subjects are boldened, verbs italicized and the objects underlined. These are the elements in a sentence whose arrangement results in an active voice.

- a. The subject in an active sentence is the performer or doer of the action that is presented in the verb. That is the subject acts on the verb in active voices.
- b. The object in an active voice, functions as the receiver of the action that is presented in the verb.
- c. Active verbs are stronger and usually more emphatic than the verbs in the passive voice.
- d. The emphasis in an active voice is always on the subject which acts as the focus of the structure. This is because active sentences present what people do but not what happens to them.
- e. Structurally (syntax), the subject always comes before the verb in active voices, i.e. SV.
- f. In expressing simple present tense, an active voice uses the base form or ‘-s or -es’ forms of the verb. Example;
 - i. The girl **sells** oranges.
 - ii. The students **attend** classes everyday.
- g. In expressing present and past progressive, use a form of the verb ‘be’ (*am/is/are/was/were*) + *-ing* form of the main verb for sentences in the active voice.
 - i. The players **are praying** before the match begins. (present)
 - ii. Many passengers **were injured** in the accident. (past)

2.3 Passive Voice

In passive voice we look at what happens to the subject rather than the subject that performs the action of the verb. It is important to have three basic elements in the active sentences to make passive voice possible. The three elements are:

- a subject that performs the action of the verb
- a verb that is transitively used
- an object that completes and receives the action the verb transfers to it.

2.3.1 Things to do in transforming an active voice to passive

1. Identify the:
 - a. type of sentence e.g. declarative, interrogative, or imperative
 - b. elements in the sentence as: subject, verb, and the object
 - c. form of pronoun.

Number	Person	Subject	Object	Possessive adjective	Possessive
Singular	1st	I	me	my	mine
	3rd	he	him	his	his
		she	her	her	hers
		it	it	its	xxx
Singular & plural	2nd	you	you	your	yours
Plural	1st	we	us	our	ours
	3rd	they	them	their	theirs

2. Interchange the position of the subject with the object
 - i. We passed the examination.
 - ii. Kwesi built an expensive house.
 - iv. Baba bakes bread.
 - v. The lady was keeping my phone.

After changing the positions of the subject and the object, re-organise the sentences afterwards. For example

- Baba bakes bread **changes to** Bread is baked.

3. Use by + agent, which is optional, to show who performs/performed the action when the transformation is done. The agent is the same as the subject. For example,
 - (i) Efua is calling the police **becomes** The police are being called **by Efua**.
Efua is the agent (subject/performer of the action) and it follows the preposition **by**.
4. Be mindful of subject-verb agreement in the transformation of sentences for grammatical reasons. Look at the underlined part of the sentence in point 3.
5. The passive sentence begins with an auxiliary verb which could be forms of be, have, or modal verbs.
 - The driver packed the boxes **becomes** The boxes **were** packed. ‘**Were**’ is an auxiliary verb which begins the passive verb phrase.
Some examples of active voice that have been transformed into passive voice include

Tense	Active Voice	Passive voice
Present	He parks the car.	The car is parked.
Present continuous	He is parking the car.	The car is being parked.
Past	He parked the car.	The car was parked.
Past continuous	He was parking the car.	The car was being parked.
Present perfect	He has parked the car.	The car has been parked.

Past perfect	He had parked the car.	The car had been parked.
Simple future	He will park the car.	The car will be parked.

Summary

1. If the tense in the active voice sentence is present tense, is (a form of be) is used as auxiliary to the main verb in the passive voice.

Active voice	Passive voice	with by + agent
(a) He parks the car.	The car is parked.	The car is parked by him (Kofi)
(b) They park the cars.	The cars are parked.	The cars are parked by them

The car (object) takes the place of subject (He) in the passive sentence. The subject of the active voice becomes the agent in the by agent phrase. He parks the car becomes The car is parked by him.

2. If the tense in the active voice sentence is present continuous tense, is or are (a form of be) is used as auxiliary to the main verb in the passive voice. Look at the examples below.

Active voice	Passive voice	Passive with by + agent
(c) He is watching the match.	The match is being watched.	The match is being watched by Kofi.
(d) They are parking the cars.	The cars are being parked.	The cars are being parked by them

When the subject is an indefinite pronoun, no agent is required. For example,

- a) Someone has stolen my books becomes My books have been stolen.

Always look at the form of the verbs in the active and passive sentences. Knowledge of tenses and some other elements of sentences are important in voice.

The passive voice structure looks like this: **subject + (be) + participle + (by agent)** but that of the active voice looks like this: **subject + verb + object**.

Key ideas

- The active voice is a direct, clear tone and it targets the performer of the action. The tone of the passive voice is subtler and it targets the action rather than the subject of the verb.
- Discussion

Reflection

- **Scenario**
The student after looking at the sentence below said that it has all the elements of a declarative sentence. Prove the student right or wrong.
 The manager released the results.
- **Discussion**

Self-assessment

Write the following sentences in passive voice

- i. Somebody cleans this room every day.
- ii. The cancelled the programme because of bad weather.
- iii. People don't speak English very often these days.
- iv. Somebody accused me of stealing money.
- v. The police warned us not to go out unaccompanied.

UNIT 3: CAPITALISATION AND PUNCTUATION

Learning outcomes

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

1. use capital letters appropriately
2. punctuate sentences and given longer texts

2.1 Punctuation marks are indispensable in both spoken and written texts since they help us to assign meaning to utterances, phrases and sentences. Writing uses graphic punctuation signs to make up for stress, loss of intonation, facial expression and gestures used in spoken language. Punctuation marks, therefore, may be regarded as a system of conventional signals to assist the listener and reader to comprehend what is read and heard.

2.2 Full stop or period (.)

This is used to mark the end of a sentence which makes a statement or gives a command (or request). For example:

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

It is used to end indirect questions e.g.

1. Our teacher asked if we were ready for trip to the nature park.
2. The gardener wanted to know whether I was ready to buy the garden tools.

(b) It may be used a person's initials or short forms e.g. Mr A. K. Bonney; Prof. Anane. Sometimes, the full stop may be omitted in abbreviations e.g. p.m. or pm, GNAT, IMF etc.

3.1.3 Comma

Comma is used

(a) to separate the items in a list of words, phrases or clauses e.g.

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.

(b) to separate main clauses or two independent clauses joined by coordinate conjunctions e.g.

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.

(c) The comma is used to separate subordinate clauses from main clauses. Normally it is 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.

(d) between adjectives e.g.

1. The hot, dry and dusty road is difficult to travel on.
2. It is wet, cold and windy outside.

(e) in introductory expressions e.g.

1. According to my class teacher, the lesson will end at six in the evening.
2. As a matter of fact, it is good live in your own house.
3. She was, however, late for the appointment and this caused her to miss the interview.

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

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

(g) When an adverbial such as however, therefore or unfortunately modifies a whole sentence and also used as interrupters e.g.

1. She was, however, late for the appointment and this caused her to miss the interview.
2. We must take these, nonetheless, and show them to our parents.

(h) 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

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

(i) 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 e.g.

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

(j) dates: it is used to separate the year from the month e.g. March 31, 2011. 7th March, 1957

(k) to separate all numbers to facilitate easy reading and interpretation. For example

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

(l) to separate a title or degree which follows a name. e.g. Dr Nduom, Ph.D.

3.1.4 Apostrophe (-)

The apostrophe is used

(a) to show possession. It is used to show that something belongs to someone. Examples

1. Your daughters are your sister's nieces.
2. This is nobody's fault.

(b) 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

(c) in contracted forms and also to shorten words to show that one or more letters have missed out e.g.

1. She's reading a book.
2. We'd better go home.
3. I'd rather not talk about it.
4. They aren't ready yet.

3.1.5 Semi colon (;)

The semi-colon is used where one would otherwise use such conjunction as and, or, and but. In other words, it joins two main clauses where there's no conjunction e.g.

1. She went by train; she would rather have flown.
2. He knew everything about me; I had never even heard of him.

3.1.6 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 used three colours: blue, red and green.

3.1.7 Brackets

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

1. Mary said she'd never had a wink for months (but I am sure she was joking).
2. 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 e.g.

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

3.1.8 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.
E.g. 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'

3.1.9 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. You put the hyphen at the end of a syllable. Example

1. A wave of anti-British feeling.
2. 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. It is also used in compound words.

3. An up-to-date account
 4. A six-year-old boy
 5. A last-minute meeting
- (ii) Mother-in-law, out-of-date, father-in-law, teacher-turned-trader, bride-to-be, officer-in-charge

3.1.10 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?

3.1.11 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!

3.1.12 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.
 - 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.

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, Kundi
- 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.

- **Discussion**

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.

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. Agnes 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: WRITING

Learning outcomes

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

1. write the appropriate features of formal and informal letters
2. discuss the parts of formal and informal letters
3. write formal and informal letters.

4.0 Introduction

Letter writing is an art. It is the commonest mode of communication. It is different from other forms of writing because it is intended for a specific reader and specific purpose. A letter is written when something has to be conveyed to someone far away. This form of writing requires imagination, creativity, careful planning and organisation. The language of the letter should be interactive and clear. In general, there are two types of letters: formal and informal letters.

4.1 Formal Letters

A formal letter is one which is written where the relationship between the writer and the receiver is shown to be impersonal. The tone of such a letter is usually very polite, written for official or formal purposes. The writer does not risk familiarity by compromising the convention. Even when the recipient is well known to the writer, the basic rules and conventions for writing such a letter must be observed. Formal letters include: letter of application for a job, protest letters, letters of request, letters of complaints, letter to editors, letters of recommendation etc.

4.1.1 Features of Formal Letters:

a. Address (senders/recipient)

The formal letter has two addresses; one for the sender and the other for the receiver. The addresses basically identify the participants in the letter. It outlines where the writer and the recipient can be located.

Traditionally, the writer or sender's address goes to the top right corner and the recipient's address underneath and on the left corner.

Two acceptable formats now in use in the structuring of the addresses for letters are the block form and the indented form. Formal letters are addressed to the office such as the Editor of a newspaper, the Provost, a Manager etc., and not necessarily the occupant of the office.

- b. **Salutation:** Any of these could serve as the salutation in a formal letter: **Dear Sir, Sir, Dear Madam, Madam**. When one is not sure of the gender of the receiver of the letter, **Dear Sir, or Sir** is more appropriate. Note that the salutation should not be indented from the margin, and there should be a comma after it.

- c. **Title or Subject Heading:** Every formal letter should have a title or subject heading that gives the receiver an idea about the content of the letter. Ensure that the title of your letter is not ambiguous or wordy. A title is meant to be catchy and in phrase form. The heading is usually centred.

- d. **Body of the Letter:** The first thing to note about the body of any letter is that the ideas must be orderly presented, using paragraphs. Proper organisation of ideas is an important index in assessing good writings. Again, the language should be strictly formal in terms of choice of words and the tone of the letter. Ensure that your choice of words and expression are understandable, concise and professionally presented.

- e. **Complimentary Close:** The letter must have a complimentary close such as Your faithfully, Sincerely yours etc.,
 - signature,
 - full name and
 - designation if relevant.

4.2 Informal Letters

Informal letters are letters written to friends and relations.

4.2.2 Features of an Informal Letter

For an informal letter, we need the following:

- Sender's address (same as sender's address in formal letters)
- Date
- Salutation
 - Dear Augustus
 - Augustus
 - Hello/Hi Augustus

- Main body-Though the main body may have a number of paragraphs depending on the reason(s) for writing, generally, it will be made up of three paragraphs as follows:
 - Paragraph 1 sets the tone for writing the letter. You may have a few pleasantries
 - Paragraph 2 gives details of the main reason(s) for writing the letter
 - Paragraph 3 concludes

- Complimentary closing:
 - Yours ever,
 - Ever yours, etc.
 - The first or any popular name of the writer

Key ideas

- Letters have their formats which include address, date etc.
- The main body has paragraphs which includes introduction, details of the ideas and conclusion
- The language used depends on the purpose and recipients of the letters

Reflection

- **Scenario**

A candidate wrote the above formal and informal letters.

- **Discussion**

Discuss the letters and identify the various features and parts of the letters

Self-assessment

Write a composition of 250 words on the following topics.

- 1) Write a letter to the Director General of Ghana Education Service explaining two reasons why your school should be given toilet facilities.
- 2) Write to a classmate about an incident that recently happened in class in his/her absence.

UNIT 5: READING AND COMPREHENSION

Learning outcomes

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

1. show a level of understanding of the passage: topic sentence, supporting sentences etc.
2. respond to questions appropriately
3. 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.

Read the passage below answer the questions which follow.

During planting season, Okonkwo worked daily on his farms from cockcrow until the chickens went to roost. He was a very strong man and **rarely** felt fatigue. But the wife and children were not as strong and so they suffered. But they dared not complain openly. Okonkwo's first son, Nwoye was then twelve years old but was already causing his father great anxiety for his incipient laziness. At any rate that was how it looked to his father and how he **sought** to correct him by **constant** nagging and beating. And so Nwoye was developing into a sad-faced youth.

Okonkwo's **prosperity** was visible in his household. He had a large compound enclosed by a thick wall of red earth. His own hut stood immediately behind the only gate in the red walls. Each of his three wives had her own hut which formed a half moon behind his hut. The barn was built against one end of the red walls and long stacks of yam stood out prosperously in it. At the opposite end of the compound was a shed for the goats and each wife built a small attachment to her hut for the hens. Near the barn was a small house, the 'medicine house' or shrine where Okonkwo kept the wooden symbols of his personal god and of his ancestral spirits. He worshipped them with sacrifices of kola nut, food and pal-wine and **offered** prayers to them on behalf of himself, his three and eight children.

When Okonkwo brought Ikemefuna home he called his most senior wife and handed him over to her. And so Nwoye's mother took him to her hut. Ikemefuna was terribly afraid. He could not understand what was happening to him or what he had done.

(Culled from Things Fall Apart by Chinua Achebe)

- a. When did Okonkwo work on his farms?
- b. How often did Okonkwo's wives and children complain?
- c. Why was Nwoye causing his father great anxiety?
- d. Where was Okonkwo's hut situated?
- e. Where were the goats kept?
- f. What did Okonkwo keep in the 'medicine house'?
- g. Which of the wives did Ikemefuna stay with?
- h. Use a word or a phrase to explain the words listed below
 - (i) rarely (ii) sought (iii) constant (iv) prosperity
 - (v) offered

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 problems they have in comprehension?

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