

TITLE PAGE

SEMANTIC REDUNDANCY IN STUDENTS' SPEECHES:

A CASE STUDY OF MATHEMATICS DEPARTMENT,

USMANU DANFODIYO UNIVERSITY SOKOTO.

PAPER

BY

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CERTIFICATION

This project by Dube Joan Peter has met part of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Arts (Hons.) Degree in English Language, of the Department of Modern European Languages and Linguistics, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to a true friend gone too soon: Jemimah Edward Bauta. We started this journey together, but you are not here to see the end. As I am writing this dedication on this day that you complete one year at the feet of the Lord, my heart is filled with grief and my eyes are soaked in tears. Though I am grateful for the mornings, the days, and the nights so long that we spent together, I only wish that we had more time to spend together. i miss you so much dear friend. Till we meet to part no more in the bosom of the lord. Adieu

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My special thanks go to my heavenly father. Lord, I thank you for unmerited grace and favor.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This project is an attempt to study some of the semantic redundancies found in students' speech. This is with a view to identify some long observed peculiarities in the use of redundancy in the students' use of English.

In the context of language studies, semantics occupies the end continuum. Semantics is at the top level because it deals with communication and interpretation. The major problem is with the definition of the subject simply as the study of meaning. Meaning is the target/goal in language. In whatever we do, we try to get meaning. The challenge is trying to find the meaning of meaning itself

Ogden and Richard (1923) said the major problem in semantics is trying to control "what is meaning".

This project work is concerned with the repetitions made by students while speaking.

However, any issue raised here would be considerably discussed and illustrated with adequate examples. Thus the findings of this work will on the other hand add to the existing literature(s) on semantic redundancy as a localized contribution to knowledge.

1.1 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of this project is to identify and analyze the features of redundancy in the speech of students of the Department of Mathematics of the Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto.

The specific objectives of this project are to:

- i. Determine the linguistic motivation for redundancy.
- ii. Establish a clear demarcation between samples of data taken and their Standard English version.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The importance of clarity and correctness in communication cannot be over emphasized. Therefore, this work on semantic redundancy is desirable because it provides some insights into the prevalence of redundancy in the verbal interaction of the students selected as the subject of the project. More so, the findings of this work will not only contribute to the existing literature on semantic redundancy, but would help anyone who goes through this work to avoid tautology in their speech.

The researcher hopes this work will aid subsequent researchers in the related field/ topics and will be a body of knowledge in the field of scholarship as it will be a source for further research.

1.3 SCOPE AND LIMITATION

The research work is confined to an investigation of semantic redundancy among the students of Mathematic Department, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto.

Semantics is not the only field of linguistics in which the issue of redundancy can be observed; other levels of linguistic analysis also demonstrate redundancy. There are phonological, morphological and syntactic redundancies. However, for the purpose of finance, time, opportunity, and limited materials, this research is limited to only semantic redundancy.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The instrument used in collecting data is observation with notes. The observation made will be unknown to the students

For a research of this kind, observation is a reliable method of data collection. It provides good and authentic information, as the observed are unaware of the observer's note, and so, they cannot manipulate their utterance.

1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

"Semantics is the study of meaning in language" (Hurford & Heasley, 1983).

"Linguistic semantics is the study of how language organize and express meaning"
(Kreidler, 1998).

"Extra ratio of predictability is called Redundancy"(Campbell, 1982).

"Semantics is the study of the meaning of words and phrases" (Oxford Advance
Learners Dictionary, 2010).

"Redundancy is the state of not being necessary or useful" (Oxford Advanced
Learner's Dictionary, 2010).

1.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the background of the study, aims and objectives, significance of the study, scope and limitation, definitions of terms as well as the research method have been presented to serve as adequate background to the study.

The second chapter will gives a review of the literature related to this work.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Semantics is a sub-discipline of linguistics which focuses on the study of meaning. Semantics tries to understand what meaning is as an element of language as well as how it is interpreted, obscured and negotiated by speakers and listeners of the language. It looks at the relationship in language and looks at how those meanings are created.

Redundancy refers to the information which is over and above that which is essential.

2.1 SEMANTICS DEFINED

Semantics is the study of meaning. It is a wide subject between the general studies of language. An understanding of semantics is essential to the study of language acquisition (how language users acquire a sense of meaning, as speakers and writers, listeners and readers) and of language change (how meaning alter over time). It is important for understanding language in social contexts as these are likely to affect meaning, and for understanding varieties of meaning and effects of style. It is thus one of the fundamental concepts in linguistics. The study of how

meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated, simplified, negotiated, contradicted and paraphrased.

If not most, at least, many introductions to semantics begin by asking the following questions: What is semantics? What does semantics actually study? This is a sensible way to start a research on semantics. So, I will begin by looking at some of the answers that different authors provide:

Lyons, (1977) says "Semantics is the study of meaning".

Saeed, (1997) says "Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language.

Lobner, (2002) says "Semantics is the part of linguistics that is concerned with meaning".

Frawley, (1992) says "Linguistic semantics is the study of literal, decontextualized grammatical meaning.

Kreidler, (1998) says "Linguistic semantics is the study of how language organizes and expresses meaning.

Probably, all authors will agree with Kreidler's definition. This however, will leave us with a second question: what do we understand by "meaning"? What is the "meaning" that is organized and expressed by language? In very good terms

speaking consists of communicating information: somebody (the speaker) has something in his/her mind (an idea, a feeling, an intention) and decides to communicate it linguistically. Vocal noises are then emitted that are heard by a second person (the hearer) who "translates" these noises back into ideas with the result being that the hearer somehow "knows" what the first person had in mind. That "something" that was at first in the speaker's mind and now is also in the hearer's mind is what we call meaning. Semantics focuses on the relationship between signifiers, like words, phrases, signs and symbols and what they stand for; their denotation. Linguistic semantics is the study of meaning that is used for understanding human expression through language. Other forms of semantics include the semantics of programming language, formal logics, and semiotics. In international scientific vocabulary semantics is also called semasiology (Crystal, 2009).

Semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as inherent at the level of words, phrases, sentences, and larger units of discourse. The study of semantics is closely linked to the subject of representation, reference and denotation. The basic study of semantics is oriented to the examination of meaning of signs, and the study of relations between different linguistic units and compounds; homonymy, synonymy, antonymy, hypernymy, hyponymy, meronymy, metonymy, holonymy, paronymy (Wood, 2011).

2.2 THEORIES IN SEMANTICS

2.2.1 MODEL THEORETIC SEMANTICS

This theory originates from Montague's work. A lightly formalized theory of natural language semantics in which expressions are assigned denotations such as individuals, truth values or functions from one of these to another. The truth of a sentence and more interestingly, its logical relation to a model.

2.2.2 FORMAL OR TRUTH CONDITIONAL SEMANTICS

This theory was pioneered by the philosopher Davidson (2005), another formalized theory, which aims to associated each natural language sentence to a meta-language description of the condition under which it is true. For example, "snow is white" is true if and only if snow is white. The challenge is to arrive at the truth condition for any sentence from the fixed meaning assigned to the individual words and fixed rules for how to combine them. In practice, truth-conditional semantics is similar to model-theoretic semantics; conceptually, however, they differ. In that, truth-conditional semantics seeks to connect language with statements about the real world (in the form of meta-language statements), rather than with abstract models.

2.2.3 LEXICAL AND CONCEPTUAL SEMANTICS

This theory is an effort to explain properties of argument structure. The assumption behind this theory is that the syntactic properties of phrases reflect the meaning of the words that head them. With this theory, linguists can better deal with the fact that there is subtle difference in the syntactic structure that the word appears in. The way this is gone about is by looking at the internal structure of words. These small parts that make up the internal structure of words are termed semantic primitives (Jaroslar, 2003).

2.2.3.1 LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Hadumod (2006) proposes that the meaning of a word is fully reflected by its context. Here, the meaning of a word is constituted by its contextual relations. Therefore, a distinction between degrees of participation as well as models of participation is made. In order to accomplish this distinction any part of a sentence that bears a meaning and combines with the meanings of other constituents is labeled as semantic constituent. Semantics that cannot be broken down into more elementary constituents are labeled minimal semantic constituents.

2.2.4 COMPUTATIONAL SEMANTICS

Computational semantics is focused on the processing of linguistic meaning. In order to do this, concrete algorithms and architectures are described. Within this

frame work, the algorithms and architectures are also analyzed in terms of decidability, time/space complexity, data structure, that requires communication protocols (Bussmann, 2005).

2.3 WORD MEANING

Wood (2011) contends that words can be semantically related to one another through some aspects of word relations as presented below:

2.3.1 SYNONYMY

Words are synonymous/Synonyms when they can be used to mean the same thing (at least in some context - words are rarely fully identical in all contexts). Examples of synonyms are begin/start, big/large, youth/adolescent.

2.3.2 ANTONYMY

Words are opposite that have properties that are mutually exclusively (such as fast/slow). Fromkin and Rodman note that some antonyms are complementary pairs (fast/slow); while others are gradable (they need specification, like hot/cold). In gradable pairs, one of them is marked and the other is not (such as "how tall is it?" being answered with "three hundred feet"). Other antonyms are relational opposite (employer/employee). There will of course be time when otherwise antonymic words will mean the same thing such as good/bad in reference to the quality of a scare.

2.3.3 POLYSEMY

A word is polysemous when it has two or more related meanings. In this case, the word "bright" means "shining" and also "diligence", and the word "mouse" means "an animal" and also "the part of a computer".

2.3.4 HOMONYMS

This includes words that have similar pronunciations and different spellings, and also words that are spelled the same way, but have completely different meanings. These add to the ambiguity of the language and often require additional semantic context to determine the proper meaning of a given word. ("He grabbed a bat" would be a good example, because we do not know if the "he" we are talking about is a baseball player or a veterinarian).

2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SENTENCES

Sentences can also be semantically related to one another in a few different ways. This was attested to by Levin and Pinker (1991) when they discussed the following:

2.4.1 PARAPHASES

One relationship that sentences can have with each other is being paraphrase of each other. This is a good example of how we all understand semantics on some

level because people can easily tell when a sentence is paraphrased. When a sentence is a paraphrase of another sentence, even though the form is different you will understand the same meaning from them. Paraphrases have the same truth condition; if one is true, the other must also be true. Examples are:

1a. "The girls are liked by the boys".

b. "The boys like the girls".

2a. "Jide gave the book to Adamu".

b. "Jide gave Adamu the book".

2.4.2 ENTAILMENT

Entailment is a little trickier than paraphrases in that the two sentences don't exactly mean the same thing, instead when one sentence entails another, for the second sentence to be true, the first one must be true. There are two different types of entailment

- i. **Mutual Entailment:** This is when each sentence entails the other. That is, each sentence must be true for the other to be true. Examples are:

1a. "Taye is married to Nkechi".

b. "Nkechi is Taye's wife".

- 2a. "Jatau is a man".
 - b. "Jatau is human".
- ii. Asymmetrical Entailment: This is when only one sentence must be true for the other to be true. But the sentence may be true without the other sentence necessarily having to be true. Examples are:
- 1. "Rahila is Ekene's wife" entails "Ekene is married" (But "Ekene is married" does not entail Rahila being his wife).
 - 2. "Ene has two brothers" entails "Ene is not an only child" (But "Ene is not an only child" does not entail Ene having two brothers).

2.4.3 CONTRADICTION

Sentences can also be said to be semantically related when they contradict each other. Sentences contradict each other when for one to be true; the other must not be true. Examples are:

- 1a. "Ola is only child".
 - b. "Ola's brother is called Olu".
-
- 2a. "Adamu is alive".
 - b. "Adamu died last week".

2.4.4 AMBIGUITY

One of the aspects of how meaning works in language is ambiguity.

A sentence is ambiguous when it has two or more possible meanings. But how does ambiguity arise in language? A sentence can be ambiguous for either or both of the following reasons:

- i. **Lexical Ambiguity:** A sentence is lexically ambiguous when it can have two or more possible meanings due to polysemous (words that have two or more different meanings) words. For example, "Prostitutes appeal to the Pope". This sentence is ambiguous because the word "appeal" is polysemous and can mean "ask for help" or "are attracted".
- ii. **Structural Ambiguity:** A word is structurally ambiguous if it can have two or more possible meanings due to the words it contains being able to be combined in different ways which can create different meanings. For example, "Engaged cow injures farmer with axe". In this sentence the ambiguity arises from the fact that the "with axe" can either refer to the farmer or to the act of injuring being carried out (by the cow) "with axe".

2.5 SEMANTICS AND SEMIOTICS

Pinker (1994) believes that the basic task in semantics is showing people how to communicate meaning with pieces of language. Though, this is only part of a larger enterprise of investigating how people understand meaning.

Linguistic meaning is a special subset of the more general human ability to use signs, as we can see from the examples below:

1. Those vultures mean there is a dead animal up ahead.
2. His high temperature may mean he has virus.
3. The red flag means it's dangerous to swim.
4. Those stripes on his uniform mean that he is a sergeant.

The verb "mean" is being put to several uses here, including inferences based on cause and effect, and on knowledge about the arbitrary symbols used in public signs. These uses represent the all-pervasive human habit of identifying and creating signs of making one thing slang for another. This process of creating and interpreting symbols sometimes called signification is far wider than language. Scholars like Ferdinand de Saussure (1974), have stressed that the study of linguistic meaning is part of this general study of the use of sign of system, and this general study is called semiotics. Semioticians investigate the

types of relationship that may hold between a sign and the object it represents, or in de Saussure's terminology between a signifier and its signified. One basic distinction by C.S Pierce is between an icon, index, and symbols. An icon is where there is a similarity between a sign and what it represents. For example, between a portrait and its real life object, or a diagram of an engine and the real engine. An index is where a sign is closely associated with its signified often in a casual relationship; thus smoke is an index of fire. Finally, a symbol is where there is only a conventional link between the sign and its signified as in the use of insignia to denote military ranks, or perhaps the way that mourning is symbolized by wearing of black clothes in some culture and white clothes in other cultures.

The historical development between language and other symbolic systems is an open question: what seems clear is that language represents man's most sophisticated use of sign.

2.6 SEMANTICS AND MEANING

Jerrold and Jerry (1963) say that semantics is concerned with exploring ideas of what "meaning" is. As such, it tries to understand "meaning" as an element of language and how it is constructed as well as interpreted, obscured and negotiated by speakers and listeners of the language. Intuitively, we have our own ideas about what a word means. Semantics aims to offer a definition

for meaning. However, it is a difficult concept to explain so; there are a number of different definitions such as:

2.6.1 CONNOTATION: A set of association at a word use can evoke. Is the meaning of a word defined by the images that its user uses to connect to it? For example, if someone uses the word "summer" you think of "sunshine, holiday, the beach". However, do these words cover the whole meaning of summer? It is not always sunny during the summer but that does not change the fact that it is summer or the understanding that it is summer. "Winter" might mean "snow, sledging, and mulled wine". But what about those living in the amazon? Their winter is still wet and hot and so, its original meaning is lost. And so, the association of a word does not always apply.

2.6.2 DENOTATION: It has also been suggested that the meaning of a word, is simply the entity in the world which that word refers to. Simply put, it is the set of entities to which a word refers. This makes perfect sense for proper nouns like "New York" and the "Eiffel Tower". But there are lots of words like "sing" that do not have a solid thing in the world that they are connected to. And so, meaning cannot be entirely denotation either.

2.6.3 EXTENSION AND INTENTION: Meaning in semantic is defined as being extension; the thing in the world that the word or phrase refers to. And intention; the concept/mental image that the word or phrase evokes.

There are just a couple of definitions that semantics has come up with to try to and define the concept of 'meaning' but as we can see, the aim of devising an absolute definition of meaning is complex, semantics aims to uncover why this is.

2.7 REDUNDANCY

"Redundancy is over determination" (Stantland). Over determination and increased predictability both suggest the repetition of information which is the essence of redundancy.

Redundancy exists when more of the same thing is available possibly in another place or in another form. Redundancy involves reinforcement at a level above the minimum. It is characterized by amplification, repetition, restatement, or the presence of comparable alternatives.

In linguistics, redundancy refers to information that is expressed more than once. Examples of redundancy include multiple agreement features in morphology, multiple features in distinguishing phonemes in phonology, or the use of multiple words to express a single idea in rhetoric.

Redundancy may occur at any level of grammar. Because of agreement (a requirement in many languages that the form of different words in a phrase or clause correspond with one another) the same semantic information may be marked several times.

In rhetoric, the term "redundancy" has a negative connotation and is perceived as improper because of its use of duplicative or unnecessary wording. And its definition is expanded to include self-contradictory wording similar to double negation.

Redundancy typically takes the form of tautology; phrases that repeat meaning with different though semantically similar words.

A subset of tautology is RAS syndrome in which one of the words represented by an acronym is then repeated outside the acronym:

1. "ATM Machine" - "Automated Teller Machine Machine".
2. "HIV Virus" - "Human Immunodeficiency Virus Virus".
3. "PIN Number" - "Personal Identification Number Number".
4. "RAID array" - "Redundant Array of Independent Disk Array"

RAS itself is a tongue-in-cheek example of the "RAS syndrome" in action, it expands to "Redundancy Acronym Syndrome Syndrome".

A more general classification of redundancy is pleonasm, which can be any unnecessary word (or even word parts). Subsuming both rhetorical tautology and RAS Syndrome, it also includes dialectal usage of technically

unnecessary parts. The term pleonasm is most often, however, synonymous to tautology.

Semantic redundancies might be caused by ignorance. That is to say that redundancy mostly occurs in speech unintentionally. The speaker does not know that the word used expresses the same meaning. The drawback of redundancy is that it reduces efficiency.

2.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the literature of this work has been reviewed. The researcher has discussed what semantics is, and what redundancy is.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter would discuss various methods of data collection in relation to the study research. It would further discuss the method of data analysis. To get samples of data, the researcher adopted observation with notes. This is to ensure that the data to be obtained is reliable as the subjects under observation are not aware. Information would also be obtained from various scholars in relation to the subject matter.

3.1 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

In this research work, the use of data collection instruments such as questionnaires and interviews are not considered necessary in view of the nature of the study. It only involves personal observation and consultation of written materials which are relevant to the study area.

Most of the written materials were sourced from libraries and the internet. The data collection for the study has been divided into two: Primary and Secondary data.

1. Primary data

The source of the primary data is personal observation. This method helps the researcher to get a reliable data because the persons being observed are not aware. Oftentimes, some people find it difficult to express their ideas when they are interviewed. While others tend to choose their words with extra care. And, this leads to fakeness.

2. Secondary data

The secondary data was gathered from books sourced from libraries and the internet. Books that were consulted would be acknowledged in the bibliography.

3.2 MEHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

As regards the method of data analysis suitable for this project, a non-statistical method of data analysis would be employed, since no questionnaire would be administered.

3.3 CONCLUSION

The researcher must have at this stage made the project work more vivid and understanding by revealing the research methodology adopted.

The next chapter would present and analyze the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 DATA PRESENTATION

The data obtained through observations of the students' speech in discourse are presented below:

1. "I can remember I was sitting at the last edge".
2. "History is more broader than origin".
3. "I wish the world was created for us both".
4. "They closed themselves in a closed room."
5. "When I am faced with head my head becomes a water fountain."
6. "My father gives the orphans free gifts regularly."
7. "One of my future plans is to become a lecture."
8. "That boy likes to spread unconfirmed rumor."
9. "They killed that snake to death!"
10. "That contestant has a terrible past history."
11. "I wish to make safe heaven when I die."

12. "That girl is full of false pretense."
13. "The school mini market has a variety of different items."
14. "This orange is an added bonus."
15. "To say everyone has failed, is an over exaggeration."
16. "Death is everyone's end result."
17. "I saw my female aunt yesterday."
18. "I would never bow down to him."
19. "She kept it at the extreme end of the wardrobe."
20. "He the head president of our association."
21. "Let's meet by 9am in the morning."
22. "She is my female cousin."
23. "The bird ascended up into the sky."
24. "Most of them slept during the night vigil yesterday."
25. "You have to raise up your hands to ask questions."
26. "One has to study in order to do more better."
27. "Make sure you don't repeat your mistakes again."

28. "He is the most strongest man in the group."

29. "That girl is more better than her friend."

30. "The Holy spirit descended down on the apostles."

31. "The man should reverse back a little."

32. "Can I be able to see you later?"

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS

The data above are represented in a tabular form and analyzed, where the redundancy in each sentence is noted, and the correct version is given.

S/NO	SAMPLES OF DATA	REDUNDANCY	APPROPRIATE VERSION
1.	"I can remember I was sitting at the last edge."	'last edge'	I can remember I was sitting at the edge.
2.	"History is more broader than origin."	'more broader'	History is broader than origin.
3.	"I wish the world was"	'us both'	I wish the world

	created for us both.”		was created for us.
4.	“They closed themselves in a closed room.”	‘closed in a closed room’	They closed themselves in a room.
5.	“When I am faced with heat, my head becomes a water fountain.”	‘water fountain’	When I am faced with heat, my head becomes a fountain.
6.	“My father gives the orphans free gifts regularly.”	‘free gifts’	My father gives the orphans gifts regularly.
7.	“One of my future plans is to become a lecturer.”	‘future plans’	One of my plans is to become a lecturer.
8.	“That boy likes to spread unconfirmed rumor.”	‘unconfirmed rumor’	That boy likes to spread rumor.
9.	“They killed that snake to death!”	‘killed to death’	They killed that snake!

10.	“That contestant has a terrible past history.”	‘past history’	That contestant has a terrible history.
11.	“I wish to make safe heaven when I die.”	‘safe heaven’	I wish to make heaven when I die.
12.	“That girl is full of false pretense.”	‘false pretense’	That girl is full of pretense.
13.	“The school mini market has a variety of different items.”	‘variety of different’	The school mini market has a variety of items.
14.	“This orange is an added bonus.”	‘added bonus’	This orange is a bonus.
15.	“To say everyone has failed, is an over exaggeration.”	‘over exaggeration’	To say everyone has failed, is an exaggeration.
16.	“Death is everyone’s end result.”	‘end result’	Death is everyone’s end.
17.	“I saw my female aunt	‘female aunt’	I saw my aunt

	yesterday.”		yesterday.
18.	“I would never bow down to him.”	‘bow down’	I would never bow to him.
19.	”She kept it at the extreme end of the wardrobe.”	‘extreme end’	She kept it at the end of the wardrobe.
20.	“He is the head president of our association.”	‘head president’	He is the president of our association.
21.	”Let’s meet by 9am in the morning.”	‘9am in the morning’	Let’s meet by 9am.
22.	“She is my female cousin.”	‘female cousin’	She is my cousin.
23.	“The bird ascended up into the sky.”	‘ascended up’	The bird ascended into the sky.
24.	“Most of them slept during the night vigil yesterday.”	‘night vigil’	Most of them slept during the vigil yesterday.
25.	“You have to raise up your	‘raise up’	You have to raise

	hands to ask questions.”		your hands to ask questions.
26.	”One has to study in order to do more better.”	‘more better’	One has to study in order to do better.
27.	“Make sure you don’t repeat your mistakes again.”	‘repeat again’	Make sure you don’t repeat your mistakes.
28.	“He is the most strongest man in the group.”	‘most strongest’	He is the strongest man in the group.
29.	“That girl is more better than her friend.	‘more better’	That girl is better than her friend.
30.	“The Holy spirit descended down on the apostles.”	‘descended down’	The Holy spirit descended on the apostles.
31.	“The man should reverse back a little.”	‘reverse back’	The man should reverse a little.
32.	“Can I be able to see you later?”	‘can I be able’	Can I see you later?

4.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

SAMPLE 1

"I can remember I was sitting at the last edge there". This is repetition because 'edge' and 'last' have same meaning.

SAMPLE 2

"History is more broader than origin". 'More' and 'broader' are both comparatives.

SAMPLE 3

"I wish the world was created for us both". 'Us' and 'both' have same meaning. They both refer to two people.

SAMPLE 4

"They closed themselves in a closed room". After mentioning the first 'closed', the second 'closed' is a repetition in this context.

SAMPLE 5

"When I am faced with heat, my head becomes a water fountain". It is repetition to say 'water fountain' because fountain is a flow of water.

SAMPLE 6

"My father gives the orphans free gifts regularly". It is repetition to say 'free gift' because gifts are free of charge.

SAMPLE 7

"One of my future plans is to become a lecturer". It is repetition to say 'future plans' because plans are future preparations.

SAMPLE 8

"The boy likes to spread unconfirmed rumor". It is repetition to say 'unconfirmed rumor' because a rumor is unconfirmed information.

SAMPLE 9

"They killed that snake to death". It is repetition to say 'kill to death' because to kill means to put to death.

SAMPLE 10

"That contestant has a terrible past history". It is repetition to say 'past history' because history is past.

SAMPLE 11

"I wish to make safe heaven when I die". It is repetition to say 'safe heaven' because heaven is generally believed to be a safe place.

SAMPLE 12

"That girl is full of false pretense". It is repetition to say 'false pretense' because pretense is false.

SAMPLE 13

"The school mini market has a variety of different items". It is repetition to say 'variety' and 'different' because they have same meaning.

SAMPLE 14

"This orange is an added bonus". It is repetition to say 'added bonus' because bonus is something added.

SAMPLE 15

"To say everyone has failed is an over exaggeration". It is not necessary to add 'over' to 'exaggeration'.

SAMPLE 16

"Death is everyone's end result". It is repetition to say 'end result' because the 'result' of something comes at the 'end' of it.

SAMPLE 17

"I saw my female aunt yesterday". It is repetition to say 'female aunt' because an aunt is a female.

SAMPLE 18

"I would never bow down to him". It is not necessary to say 'bow down' because one cannot bow upwards.

SAMPLE 19

"She kept it at the extreme end of the wardrobe". It is repetition to say 'extreme end' because extreme means end.

SAMPLE 20

"He is the head president of our association". It is repetition to say 'head president' because a president is already the head.

SAMPLE 21

"Let's meet by 9am in the morning". It is not necessary to say '9am' and 'morning' because am hours are morning hours.

SAMPLE 22

"She is my female cousin". A cousin is either a male or a female, and the 'she' at the beginning means the 'cousin' is not a male. It is not necessary to say 'female cousin'.

SAMPLE 23

"The bird ascended up into the sky". It is repetition to say 'ascended up' because to ascend means to go up.

SAMPLE 24

"Most of them slept during the night vigil yesterday". It is not necessary to say 'night vigil' because vigil takes place at night.

SAMPLE 25

"You have to raise up your hands to ask questions". It is not necessary to say 'raise up' because to raise something means to take it up.

SAMPLE 26

"One has to study in order to do more better". 'More' and 'better' are comparative words, and so, should not appear together.

SAMPLE 27

"Make sure you don't repeat your mistakes again". It is repetition to say 'repeat again' because to repeat means to say or do something again.

SAMPLE 28

"He is the most strongest man in the group". 'Most' and 'strongest' are not supposed to appear together because they are superlatives.

SAMPLE 29

"That girl is more better than her friend". 'More' and 'broader' are not supposed to appear together because they are comparatives.

SAMPLE 30

"The Holy spirit descended down on the apostles". It is repetition to say 'descend down' because to descend means to go down.

SAMPLE 31

"The man should reverse back a little". It is repetition to say 'reverse back' because to reverse means to go back.

SAMPLE 32

"Can I be able to see you later"? It is repetition to say 'can I be able' because can means to be able.

4.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher has presented the samples of data collected, analyzed the data, and discussed the data analyzed.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the summary and conclusion of the project. It is therefore divided into these two broad headings.

5.1 SUMMARY

The first chapter opens with an insight to the project, by giving a background of the study. It lists the aim and objectives of the study, and the goal of the project. The method of data collection and analysis used is also introduced. Some key terms are defined, and the chapter is concluded. Chapter one is simply an introduction to the project.

The second chapter is a review of the relevant literature to the project. It starts with an introduction to the chapter. Then, it discusses semantics, the theories in semantics, word meaning, the relationship between sentences, semantics and semiotics, semantics and meaning, and redundancy. Then the chapter closes with a conclusion.

The third chapter also opens with an introduction to the chapter, and then it discusses the method used in collecting and analyzing the data. After which the chapter draws a conclusion.

As a tradition, the fourth chapter opens with an introduction. It presents the samples of data collected, and analyses the data using a table for the purpose of clarity. Then it discusses the data analyzed, and the chapter is concluded.

The last chapter has an introduction, a chapter to chapter summary of the whole project, and a conclusion.

5.2 CONCLUSION

This project is titled 'Semantic Redundancy in Students' Speech: A Case Study of Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto'.

Semantic redundancy in the speech of the students of Mathematics Department in Usmanu Danfodio University is to a large extent due to negligence, and part of the blame would be put on ignorance on the path of the students.

Students should pay attention to the rules of grammar; effective communication should be a priority.

It should be noted that English is not just a discipline that should be neglected, but it is most importantly a medium of communication in formal

gatherings. It would be embarrassing to make mistakes like tautology, especially when communicating with people that are aware of the mistakes being made.

It is best for students to take out time to study English Language, in order to avoid these mistakes.

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