

LIN 121
Elementary Grammar I

Ibadan Distance Learning Centre Series

LIN 121
Elementary Grammar I

By

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

I congratulate you on being part of the historic evolution of our Centre for External Studies into a Distance Learning Centre. The reinvigorated Centre, is building on a solid tradition of nearly twenty years of service to the Nigerian community in providing higher education to those who had hitherto been unable to benefit from it.

Distance Learning requires an environment in which learners themselves actively participate in constructing their own knowledge. They need to be able to access and interpret existing knowledge and in the process, become autonomous learners.

Consequently, our major goal is to provide full multi media mode of teaching/learning in which you will use not only print but also video, audio and electronic learning materials.

To this end, we have run two intensive workshops to produce a fresh batch of course materials in order to increase substantially the number of texts available to you. The authors made great efforts to include the latest information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly. It is our hope that you will put them to the best use.



Professor Olufemi A. Bamiro, FNSE

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

The University of Ibadan Distance Learning Programme has a vision of providing lifelong education for Nigerian citizens who for a variety of reasons have opted for the Distance Learning mode. In this way, it aims at democratizing education by ensuring access and equity.

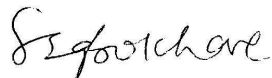
The U.I. experience in Distance Learning dates back to 1988 when the Centre for External Studies was established to cater mainly for upgrading the knowledge and skills of NCE teachers to a Bachelors degree in Education. Since then, it has gathered considerable experience in preparing and producing course materials for its programmes. The recent expansions of the programme to cover Agriculture and the need to review the existing materials have necessitated an accelerated process of course materials production. To this end, one major workshop was held in December 2006 which have resulted in a substantial increase in the number of course materials. The writing of the courses by a team of experts and rigorous peer review has ensured the maintenance of the University's high standards. The approach is not only to emphasize cognitive knowledge but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The materials have had the input of experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind, since such people can often feel isolated from the community of learners. Adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

The Distance Learning Centre also envisages that regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks will find these books very useful. We are therefore delighted to present these new titles to both our Distance Learning students and the University's regular students. We are confident that the books will be an invaluable resource to them.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.



Professor Francis O. Egbokhare

Director

General Introduction and Objectives

This is an elementary course in grammar. The aim of the course is to teach you the subject-matter of grammar, drawing attention to lexical categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. We shall examine these lexical categories in detail by giving our illustrations from the English language. The goal of the course is to let you know how these major syntactic categories operate in English and how they manifest in day-to-day use of the language. This will go a long way in helping you to differentiate their operations in English and your mother tongue.

LECTURE ONE

Nouns

Introduction

In this lecture, we shall discuss the meaning of nouns, different classes of nouns and their peculiar features.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. identify nouns in different contexts;
2. classify nouns into different classes; and
3. properly use nouns in sentences.

Pre-Test

1. What is a noun?
2. What are the different classes of nouns?

CONTENT

Definition of Nouns

The noun names some person, place, thing, state or action. In other words, nouns are naming words. They name persons, places, animals, places, ideas and feelings. They are:

Names of people: John, Mary, Tosin, etc.

Names of animals: dog, lion, goat, etc.

Names of places: school, church, Akure, etc.

Names of things: pen, spoon, chair, etc.

Types of Nouns

1. Proper Nouns

A proper noun is a name that is not common. It is a name that is particular to a person, an animal or a place. For instance, if there are three 'boys' in a class and one calls 'boy', it refers to all of the boys in the class. But each of these three boys has a name that identifies only him. Let us assume that the first is *Şegun*; the second is *Garba*; while the third is *Chidi*. The name that identifies each of them is a proper noun.

A man has three dogs. The names of these three dogs are *Jack*, *Bull* and *Bingo*. Therefore, *Jack*, *Bull* and *Bingo* are proper nouns. Proper nouns include:

- i. Names of people: *John*, *Bola*, *Ibrahim*, *Oluchi*, etc.
- ii. Names of towns: *Akure*, *Ibadan*, *Abeokuta*, etc.
- iii. Names of states and countries: *Zamfara*, *Ebonyi*, *Lagos*, *the USA*, *Nigeria*, *the Netherlands* etc.
- iv. Months of the year: *January*, *February*, *March*, etc.
- v. Days of the week: *Monday*, *Tuesday*, *Wednesday*, etc.
- vi. Names of school subjects: *Economics*, *Biology*, *Mathematics* etc.
- vii. Names of streets: *Banire Street*, *Dangote Street*, etc.
- viii. Names of rivers, oceans and seas: *the Red Sea*, *the Atlantic Ocean*, *River Benue*, *the River Niger*, etc.
- ix. Names of festivals: *Egungun festival*, *Easter festival*
- x. Names of schools: *University of Ibadan*, *Orogun Grammar School*, *University of Puerto Rico*, etc.

2. Common Nouns

Common nouns are nouns that are common. They are the names given to all people, things, places or animals of the same kind. They are general names. For instance, *Şegun*, *Garba*, and *Chidi* are all boys. Therefore, *boy* is a common noun. Also, *Jack*, *Bingo* and *Bull* are all dogs. Therefore, *dog* is a common noun.

Note: Orthographically, proper nouns are also different from common nouns. While the first letter of every proper noun must be capitalized wherever it occurs in sentences that of common noun is written in small letters.

3. Countable Nouns

Countable Nouns are nouns that can be counted. In other words, these are nouns that could be taken apart and counted numerically. They are pen, bag, pencil, house etc.

Yorùbá: *ilé* ‘house’, *àga* ‘chair’ etc.

Hausa: *Gida* ‘house’, *kujèra* ‘chair’ etc.

Features of Countable/Count Nouns

There are two main features that distinguish countable nouns from uncountable nouns in the English language. These features are:

- a. Singular countable nouns are changed into plural by adding the plural marker *-s*, *-es*, or *-ies* as exemplified below:

Singular	Plural
pen	pens
house	houses
mango	mangoes
city	cities etc.

- b. Singular countable nouns can be preceded by the indefinite article *a/an* e.g. a ruler, a boy, an egg, an umbrella etc.

4. Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable Nouns are nouns that cannot be counted but can only be measured, e.g. water, salt, rice, sand, information, equipment etc.

Yorùbá: *omi* ‘water’, *ìròyìn* ‘news’ etc.

Hausa: *rúwá* ‘water’, *shìnkáfá* ‘rice’ etc.

Features of Uncountable/non-count Nouns

1. Uncountable nouns cannot be changed into plural by adding the plural marker *-s*, *-es*, or *-ies*. Therefore, it is wrong to say or write:
*informations, *waters,
*furnitures

- Uncountable nouns cannot be preceded by the indefinite article *a/an*. So, it is semantically and grammatically odd to say or write:
*an information,
*a water, *a furniture

5. Partitive Nouns

Partitive nouns are nouns used with uncountable nouns to make them countable. They assist us in making uncountable nouns numerable in content, e.g.

Singular	Plural
a cup of water	two cups of water
a piece of chalk	four pieces of chalk
a slice of bread	three slices of bread
an item of news	two items of news
a piece of advice	five pieces of advice

Concrete and Abstract Nouns

6. Concrete Nouns

Concrete nouns are nouns that we can see and touch, e.g. bottle, boy, house, dog, chair, book etc.

7. Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns are nouns that we cannot see or touch but we can only feel. They usually name feelings, state of mind or character, e.g. happiness, beauty, hunger, wisdom, holiness, faithfulness, justice, joy etc.

8. Collective Nouns

Collective nouns are names given to a collection of people or things. They name many people, things or animals coming together to form a whole. To put it differently, a collective noun names a group of individual as if they were one individual. Examples of these nouns are: flock, committee, family, class, mob, club, etc.

Features of Collective Nouns

Collective nouns have two characteristics:

- i. Each collective noun selects either a singular or plural verb depending on the usage. If a collective noun is used in such a way that all the members that make it up are considered as a unit, it selects a singular verb, while a collective noun selects a plural verb if, it is used in a way that its members are considered individually. Consider the following sentences:

The jury *is* finally complete (singular)

The juries were divided in their opinions (plural)

The families have never been able to agree (plural)

The family *holds* an annual reunion (singular)

- ii. Some of the collective nouns are particular to certain group of people, animals or objects.

Examples: a team of players, a gang of robbers, a bunch of keys, a congregation of worshippers, an audience of listeners, a jury of judges, a family of relations, a galaxy/constellation of stars etc.

9. Compound Nouns

Compound nouns are nouns that are formed from a combination of two or more words. Compound nouns may be written as separate words, hyphenated words, or combined words.

Examples: high table, world power, poverty line, born-again, passer-by, heart-throb, teacup, handshake, headmaster etc.

Appositive Noun

A noun is said to be an appositive of another noun, or in apposition with another noun, when it identifies the same person or object under another name. In other words, apposition is the relationship between two noun phrases that are used in the same way and refer to the same person or thing. For example, in the sentence below:

My best friend, Olu, is very intelligent.

My best friend and *Olu* are in apposition.

Summary

In this lecture, I defined nouns as naming words. I also discussed various types of nouns such as proper nouns- which are names that are particular to persons animals or places; common nouns, countable and uncountable nouns, concrete and abstract nouns, and collective nouns. I outlined some of features of these nouns. Finally, I explained what compound nouns are. In the next lecture, I shall discuss pronouns, words which are used to stand for nouns.

Post-test

1. Classify the following nouns into different classes:
Confidence, chairs, advice, machinery, bag, Lagos, teacher, behaviour, happiness, furniture, Abuja, book, family, businessman, jury, club, shoes, father-in-law, grassroots
2. Differentiate between countable and non-count nouns.
3. With examples from English and your mother tongue, discuss in detail the difference between proper and common nouns.

Suggested for further reading

Alo, Moses & Ayo Ogunṣiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

Babajide, Adeyemi. (2004). Tense, Aspect and Concord. In Alo & Ogunṣiji (Eds) pp. 216- 236.

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Taiwo, O. (2008). *Basic Concepts in Grammar*. Ibadan: Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan.

LECTURE TWO

Pronouns

Introduction

In this lecture, I shall undertake an explicit discussion of pronouns. The pronouns I shall discuss personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and possessive pronouns. I shall explain how you could to identify these pronouns and use them appropriately.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. identify personal pronouns, demonstrative and possessive pronouns in different contexts;
2. identify different classes of pronouns based on their functions and;
3. properly use them.

Pre-Test

1. What is a pronoun?
2. Explain the following types of pronouns: personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and possessive pronouns.

Content

Definition

The pronoun substitutes for the noun. They are usually used to guide against repetition of nouns. Consider the sentences below:

Olu bought a bag. *He* showed it to Mrs. John. *She* discovered that the bag is faulty and *she* asked *him* to return *it* to where *he* bought *it*.

In the above sentences, the pronouns, **He** and **him**, are used to replace *Olu*; **she** is used to stand for *Mrs John*; while **it** is used instead of *bag*.

If it were not for the substitutions that the pronouns make possible, repetitious and awkward sentences, rife with distorted meanings, would be inevitable. The excerpt above would have read like what we have below:

Olu bought a bag. *Olu* showed it to Mrs. John. *Mrs John* discovered that the bag is faulty and Mrs. John asked *Olu* to return *the bag* to where Olu bought *the bag*.

Type of Pronouns

1. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are so called not because they refer to persons but rather because they encode some grammatical properties or features such as person and gender. Examples are: *I, we, me, us, she, her, it, you, and them*. In terms of person, we can categorize all of these pronouns into three, namely:

1. **The first person pronoun:** This stands for the person that is talking i.e. the speaker. These are: *I, we, me* and *us*.
2. **Second pronoun:** This stands for the person being spoken to i.e. the listener. 'You' is the only second person pronoun in English.
3. **Third person pronoun:** This stand for the person being talked about. *He, she, it, they, him* and *her* are the third person pronouns in English.

It should be noted that each of these three types of personal pronouns has its own singular and plural forms. Witness the following:

Personal pronoun

	Singular	Plural
1st person	I, me	we, us
2 nd person	you	you
3 rd person	he/she, it, her, him	they

For a clearer description between these personal pronouns based on number, person, gender, subject and object, consider the table below:

Person	Number	Gender	Subject	Object
1 st person	Singular		I	me
	Plural		We	us
2 nd person	Singular		You	You
	Plural		You	You
3 rd person	Singular	masculine	He	him
		feminine	She	her
		neuter	It	it
	Plural		They	them

2. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are pronouns that are used to point out nouns that they represent. They show how near the nouns they represent are to us. There are four demonstrative pronouns namely: *this*, *these*, *that* and *those*. They can be classified into singular and plural forms:

Singular	Plural
this	these
that	those

It is also important to say that demonstrative pronouns can be divided into two classes in terms of distance. These are:

- a. Those showing nearness: “*this*” and “*these*”. They are used to point out nouns that are very near to us.

Examples: This is my bag

These are my bags

- b. Those showing distance: “*that*” and “*those*”. They are used to point out nouns that are far from us.

Examples: That is my teacher

Those are my teachers.

3. Possessive Pronouns

Another type of pronoun is the possessive pronouns. These pronouns are used to show ownership of nouns. They are: *mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours,* and *theirs*. Some of these pronouns are used in the following sentences:

This pen is mine.

That pen is yours.

The money is his.

The cage is its.

Summary

In this lecture, I gave a vivid explanation of the following types of pronouns: personal, demonstrative and possessive pronouns. I discussed their features, usage and gave examples of these pronouns. In the next lecture, I shall discuss other types of pronouns such as interrogative, indefinite, reflexive, emphatic or intensive pronouns, etc.

Post-Test

1. What is a pronoun?
2. Explain the following types of pronouns: personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and possessive pronouns.

Suggested for further reading

Alọ, Moses & Ayọ Ogunşiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

Babajide, Adeyemi. (2004). Tense, Aspect and Concord. In Alọ & Ogunşiji (Eds) pp. 216- 236.

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Taiwo, O. (2008). *Basic Concepts in Grammar*. Ibadan: Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan.

LECTURE THREE

Other Pronoun Types

Introduction

In the last lecture, I discussed three types of pronouns; namely, personal, demonstrative and possessive pronouns. I shall continue my discussion of pronoun types in this lecture. The types I shall discuss include interrogative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, reflexive pronouns and emphatic or intensive pronouns. Others are reciprocal pronouns and relative pronouns.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to recognize and explain these types of pronouns: interrogative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, reflexive pronouns, emphatic or intensive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns and relative pronouns.

Pre-Test

Explain the following: interrogative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, reflexive pronouns, emphatic or intensive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns and relative pronouns.

CONTENT

Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns used for asking questions. They are: *who, whom, whose, which, what, where, why* etc. These words ask questions that produce nouns as answers. Some examples are given below.

Who is knocking on at the door?
Where are you going?
What do you want?
Whom did you give my book?

2. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that do not refer to a particular person or thing. They are used to refer to persons or things generally. Most indefinite pronouns end in *-body*, *-one* or *-thing*. Some of these pronouns are: everybody, everyone, everything, somebody, someone, anyone etc.

These pronouns have a peculiar feature. The feature is that each of them selects a singular verb whenever it is used as the subject of a sentence, as we have in the examples below:

Nobody *knows* where the boy lives.
Everybody *has* prepared for tomorrow's test.
Someone *is* at the door.

3. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are those pronouns that function as grammatical objects but they refer to the subjects of the sentences or clauses in which they occur. They usually end in *-self* or *-selves*. Examples are: myself, himself, herself, ourselves, themselves, yourselves, oneself. Some of these reflexive pronouns occur in the sentences below:

The boy injured himself.
Joy praised herself.
They should blame themselves for the mistakes.
We clapped for ourselves.

4. Emphatic Pronouns

Emphatic pronouns are used to lay emphasis on the subject of the sentence. They are otherwise known as **intensive pronouns**. They also end in **-self** and **-selves**. Consider the sentences below:

The man himself killed his only son.
Mr. John himself sponsored the programme
Bimpe herself cooked the soup.

As we can see, reflexive and emphatic pronouns are morphologically similar. However, they differ functionally. The difference, according to Babajide (1998:7-8), is that, for the reflexive pronoun, the action performed by the subject is on the same subject while for the emphatic pronoun the action performed by the subject is not on the subject. This is reflected in the two sentences below:

The boy killed himself.

The boy himself killed the snake.

5. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are so called probably because they are used to express exchange of actions between two or more people. In other words, the action in the sentence in which a reciprocal pronoun is used is normally exchanged by the participants, e.g.

John and James slapped each other.

This means that John slapped James and James in return slapped John.

There are only two reciprocal pronouns in English: *each other* and *one another*. **Each other** is used to show exchange of actions between two people while **one another** is used to show exchange of actions between more than two people. Compare the sentences below:

Mary and Martha hate each other

John and James shook hands with each other.

Good Christians should help one another.

The congregation exchanged greetings with one another.

It should be noted that when you wish to show or express that people exchange an action between or among each other or one another, you should not use “themselves” or “yourselves”. But use as appropriate *each other* or *one another*. Consider the following:

*John and James shook hands with themselves

John and James shook hands with each other.

*The five close friends greeted themselves

The five close friends greeted one another.

The presence of asterisk indicates that the construction is faulty while its absence connotes the opposite.

6. **Relative Pronouns**

They are pronouns used to introduce relative clauses and link them with the main clauses in complex sentences. They are also called **linking pronouns**. Examples are *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, *whose*, as shown in the sentences below:

The man *who* killed that goat is at home.
That is the car **which** I bought.

Use of relative pronouns

WHO is used to refer to the subject in a sentence. Better still, WHO consistently occurs in the subject position of a basic sentence. It is also used alone for human beings e.g.

That is the man who killed the goat.
The girl who took my pen is around.

In the sentences above *who* refers to “the man” and “the girl” because they are the doers of the actions in the sentences.

WHOM is used to refer to the object (the receiver of an action) in a sentence. In other words, it occurs in the object position of a basic clause or sentence in which it appears. It is also used for human beings, e.g.

This is my friend to whom the book was given
That is the man whom I am talking about.

WHICH is used for non-human beings. It can refer to both the subject and the object of a sentence, e.g.

The table which was brought here yesterday is broken (subject)
This is the book which my father bought for me (object)

THAT is used for both human beings and non-human beings either as subjects or objects, e.g.

The girl that came here yesterday is a fool. (subject)
These are the books that Olu read. (object)

WHOSE is used to show ownership/possession. It is used for both human and non-human beings, e.g.

The boy whose mother died is in the class.

The goat whose leg got broken has died.

Summary

In this lecture, I concluded my discussion of the pronoun. I explained the following types of pronouns: interrogative, indefinite, reflexive, emphatic or intensive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns and relative pronouns. I gave some of the features of these pronouns and mentioned how they could be used in sentences.

Post-Test

Use the following pronoun types in different sentences: reflexive, emphatic, indefinite, interrogative, relative and possessive pronouns.

Suggested for further reading

Alo, Moses & Ayọ Ogunsiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

Babajide, Adeyemi. (2004). Tense, Aspect and Concord. In Alo & Ogunsiji (Eds) pp. 216- 236.

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LECTURE FOUR

Verbs I

Introduction

The verb is said to be the most important word-class or part of speech. This is probably because, without it, there can be no sentence. In fact, it can make a sentence without other words or constituents. In this lecture and the next, I shall discuss different classes of verbs as well as their uses/functions.

The focus of this lecture is on auxiliary verbs. I shall examine types of auxiliaries in English and teach you how to use these various types.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define verbs; and
2. identify various types of auxiliary verbs and their uses.

Pre-Test

1. What is a verb?
2. What are auxiliary verbs?
3. Examine the various functions of both primary auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries.

CONTENT

Definition of Verbs

Verbs are words that express actions, events, or states of being. Verbs are very important in sentences. Without a verb in a group of words, a

meaningful and complete idea cannot be expressed. Consider the following:

1. The boy killed a goat.
2. *The boy a goat.

The construction in (2) does not express a meaningful idea because the verb is absent in the sentence. The verb is so important in the sentence to the extent that it can make a sentence. This is the situation in the following imperative sentences.

Run!
Sing!
Stop!
Come! etc.

Classes of Verbs

Generally, verbs fall into two main classes. These are main verb and auxiliary verbs. Main verbs usually present the main action in a sentence. They are usually able to stand as the only verb in a sentence without any other adjoining verbs. Consider the following sentences:

He goes to school everyday.
They eat rice.

However, auxiliary verbs are essentially helping verbs. They assist the main verbs to express some actions or in realizing specific nuances of meaning especially in terms of time, duration of action and politeness. For instance, main or lexical verbs cannot express a continuous action unless they are assisted by auxiliaries, e.g. it is wrong to say:

*He going to school.
*They eating rice.

Instead, what we say or write is:

He is going to school.
They are eating rice.

In these sentences, the auxiliary verbs are *is* and *are*.

Types of Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs are of two types:

Primary auxiliaries, and
Modal auxiliaries

Primary auxiliary verbs are so called because apart from their auxiliary function, they can still function as main verbs. There are three forms of primary auxiliaries:

- The Be-form
- The Have-form
- The Do-form.

The **Be-form** consists of eight verbs: *am, is, was, are, were, be, being* and *been*. The **Have-form** consists of three basic verbs: *has, had* and *have*, while the **Do-form** also comprises three basic verbs: *does, did* and *do*.

As said earlier, primary auxiliary verbs can function as main verbs. When they do, they are technically referred to as copula. In other words, primary auxiliaries are capable of functioning as main verbs and auxiliary verbs.

Examples

We are learning grammar. (aux.)

We are afraid of death. (main)

John has come back from Lagos. (aux.)

John has a car (main)

John does not know my name (aux.)

Mary does a washing every Saturday (main)

Uses of Primary Auxiliaries

The **Be-form** is followed by *-ing* or *present participle* to show progressive aspect, e.g.

The boy is jumping

James was sleeping when I got to their house.

Be is also followed by past participle to show or express passive voice, e.g.

A goat was killed by Olu.

The song is sung by Christians.

The **Have-form** is followed by past participle to express perfective aspect. Consider the sentences below:

The boy has gone.

The lecturers have come.

The Vice-chancellor had gone before the governor arrived.

The **Do-form** does not perform the function of an auxiliary in a declarative sentence except for the purpose of emphasis. Compare the following examples:

Dickson drives his mother's car.

Mary cooks well.

You promised to pay my money.

Paul travels to the US regularly.

Dickson *does* drive his mother's car (emphatic)

Mary *does* cook well (emphatic)

You *did* promise to pay my money (emphatic)

Paul *does* travel to the US regularly (emphatic)

The **Do-form** is also used as an auxiliary in negative and interrogative sentences where an auxiliary is needed but none is present. This is technically refers to as do-support. Consider the following:

John *can* write well.

Mary *is* praying.

John *cannot* write well (negative)

Can John write well? (interrogative)

Mary *is* not praying (negative)

Is Mary praying? (interrogative)

In declarative sentences, where we have no auxiliaries, it is necessary to introduce or make use of **do** verb forms. This is as said above is technically called do-support. Consider the following sentences:

John *does not* drive his mother's car (negative)

Does John drive his mother's car? (interrogative)

Mary *does not* cook well. (negative)

Does Mary cook well? (interrogative)

Modal Auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries are used to show mood, that is, the speaker's feeling to what he/she is saying. This mood can be that of ability, permission, obligation etc. The verbs in this category are *will, would, may, might, can, could, shall, should, must, ought to, need, dare, used to*.

Uses of Modal Auxiliaries

Can is used to express:

- Ability
e.g. He can speak French.
He can work for three days.
- permission
e.g. Can I smoke in here?
Note: Can is less formal in this sense.
- theoretical possibility
e.g. Anybody can make mistakes.

Could is used to express:

- past ability
e.g. I never could play the piano.
- present or future permission:
e.g. Could I smoke in here?
- present possibility:
e.g. We could go to the concert.

May is used to express:

- permission
e.g. You may leave now
Note: In this case, *may* is more formal than *can*.
- Prohibition: mustn't is often used,
e.g. You mustn't leave now.
- possibility;
e.g. The road may be blocked

Might is used to express:

- permission (rare)
e.g. Might I smoke in here.
- Possibility:
e.g. We might go to the concert.

Shall is used to express insistence

- e.g. You shall do as I say.
You shall be punished.

Should is used to express obligation and logical necessity:

- e.g. They should go and see their brother.
You should do as he said.

Will is used to express:

- willingness used in polite request:
e.g. He will help you if you ask him.
Will you have another cup of coffee?
- Intention:
e.g. I will write as soon as I can.
We won't stay longer than two hours.

Would is used to express:

- Willingness:
e.g. Would you excuse me?
- characteristic activity in the past:
e.g. Every morning he would go for a long walk.
- Politeness:
e.g. Would you attend our party?

Must is used to express:

- obligation or compulsion in the present tense:
e.g. You must be back by 10 o'clock.
- logical necessity:
e.g. There must be a mistake

Note: *must* is not used in sentence with negative or interrogative meaning *can* is used instead.

Need as an auxiliary verb occurs chiefly in interrogative and negative sentences. It has three major features:

- It has no past tense form.
- It has no form for the third person singular.
- It takes a bare infinitive when used in interrogative and negative sentence
e.g. He need not travel today.
Need you travel today?
He need not tell you the answer.
Need he show you the way?

Need can also be used as a main or full verb. When it is used in this context, it is regular in every way:

- it has the third person singular form, and
- it has the past tense form.
e.g. Job needs a new bag.
The work needed time and energy.
Job doesn't need a new bag.

Dare like *need* is used in negative and interrogative sentences. It has no third person singular form but unlike *need* it has a past tense form, e.g.

You dare not tell that I am stingy.

He dare not come to my house.

Dare you tell me that I am stingy.

When the armed robbers came we dare not confront them.

No one dared speak. (followed by an infinitive without *to*)

Dare can also be used without following infinitives, e.g.

Fight with him if you dare

When **dare** is a modal verb, negatives and questions are formed without *do*, and the negative **dare not** can be shortened to **daren't** in conversation and in informal writing.

Dare he tell her the truth?

He dare not/daren't

Note: *Dare* can be used as a main verb (transitive and intransitive) He doesn't dare to complain

She never went there on her own – she didn't dare to.

When used as a transitive verb, the object is usually followed by an infinitive with *to*.

Someone dared him to climb the tree.

Used to

Used to only exist as a past tense. It is usually followed by an infinitive.

We used to swim in the river.

But sometimes the following infinitive is left out.

I don't play football now, I used to.

Questions and negatives are usually formed with **did** + **used to** (with no **d**).

Did you use to work here?

We didn't use to earn much.

The spelling **did used to** is sometimes used, but many people think that this is wrong.

In formal English, negatives are often formed with **used not to**.

They used not to allow shops to be open on Sundays.

The short forms **usen't to** and **usedn't to** are sometimes used, but they sound rather formal and old-fashioned.

Summary

In this lecture, I defined the verb, mentioned the two main classes of verbs, which are main and auxiliary verbs, and discussed extensively the types and the functions of auxiliary verbs. I explained that the primary auxiliary verbs are three: **the Be-form, the Have form and the Do form**. The modal auxiliaries are used to show the speaker's feeling to what he/she is saying. These are: *will, would, may, might, can, could, shall, should, must, ought to, need, dare, used to*. I discussed the functions of each of them with appropriate examples.

Post-Test

1. What is a verb?
2. What are auxiliary verbs?
3. Examine the various functions of both primary auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries.

Suggested for further reading

Alọ, Moses & Ayo Ogunşiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

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LECTURE FIVE

Verbs II

Introduction

I shall continue my discussion of the verb in this lecture. In Lecture Four, I focused mainly on auxiliary verbs, their types, forms and functions. In this lecture, I shall explain the finite and non-finite verbs, transitive and intransitive verbs, and regular and irregular verbs.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to make a distinction between these pairs of verbs:

1. finite and non-finite verbs,
2. transitive and intransitive verbs, and
3. regular and irregular verbs.

Pre-Test

1. What is a finite verb?
2. Differentiate between a finite verb and a non-finite verb.
3. Discuss the following:
 - a. A transitive verb
 - b. A mono-transitive verb
 - c. A di-transitive verb
 - d. An intransitive verb
 - e. A regular verb
 - f. An irregular verb.

CONTENT

Finite and Non-finite Verbs

Finite Verbs

Finite verbs are verbs that can form the predicate of a sentence by themselves. They can stand alone to make sense. They can be inflected for tense, number and person, e.g.

He writes in London

He wrote in London

He is in London

There are two forms of finite verbs. They are:

- The simple present tense: *go, dance, jump, sing, is, etc.*
- The simple past tense: *went, danced, wrote, jumped, was, etc.*

Non-finite Verbs

Non-finite verbs are verbs that cannot form the predicate of a sentence by themselves. They cannot stand alone to make sense and they are not inflected for tense, number and person, e.g.

*He writing in London

*He written in London

*He to write in London

The above expressions are ungrammatical and do not make sense because they have only non-finite verbs in them.

There are three forms of non-finite verbs. They are:

- The present participle: These are verbs that end in *-ing*, e.g. writing, dancing, singing, eating, etc.
- The past participle: These are verbs that end in *-en, -t, -ed*, e.g. written, beaten, eaten, built etc.
- The to-infinitive: These are verbs that appear with *to* in front of them, e.g. to go, to see, to come, to write, etc.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Transitive Verbs

A transitive verb is a verb that takes an action from a doer (subject) to a receiver (object).

e.g. Olu killed a goat.

Here, *Olu* is the doer of the action and *a goat* is the receiver of the action. The verb *killed* carries the action from *Olu* to *a goat*. The action performed by *Olu* affects *a goat*. Therefore, *killed* is a transitive verb. Basically, a transitive verb is a type of verb that takes/requires an object to complete its meaning.

A transitive verb can be **mono-transitive** or **di-transitive**. When it takes an object, it is mono-transitive while it is di-transitive when it selects two objects: one will be a direct object while the other will be an indirect object.

e.g. The man slapped his wife
The man gave his wife a book.

In the above examples, *slapped* is a mono-transitive verb, while *gave* is a di-transitive verb.

Intransitive Verbs

An intransitive verb on the other hand is a verb that shows an action that remains with the doer. In other words, the action performed by this kind of verb is not transferred to the object but rather remains with the subject, e.g.

God lives forever.
John grows happier.
Jesus reigns in glory.
The sun rises from the East.

The above verbs are intransitive because they express actions that do not affect anything but remains with the subject. Intransitive verbs do not take objects but they may take complements e.g.

John grows happier.
Olu is a boy.

Note: All the verbs in the category of Be-form of the primary auxiliary verbs are intransitive.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

Regular Verbs

A regular verb is a verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *-d* or *-ed* e.g.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
look	looked	looked
move	moved	moved
promote	promoted	promoted
dance	danced	danced

The verbs in this class are also called weak verbs.

Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs are verbs that do not form their past tense and past participle like regular verbs. They are otherwise known as strong verbs. They form their past tense and past participle in many different ways.

Consider the list of irregular verbs with their past tense and past participle forms below:

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
Arise	arose	arisen
speed	sped	sped
weave	wove	woven
grind	ground	ground
deal	dealt	dealt
drive	drove	driven
fly	flew	flown
go	went	gone

Summary

In this lecture, I concluded my discussion of the verb. I focused on the following verbs: finite and non-finite verbs, transitive and intransitive verbs, and regular and irregular verbs. I explained that finite verbs are verbs that can form the predicate of a sentence by themselves. They can be inflected for tense, number and person, while non-finite verbs cannot form the predicate of a sentence by themselves. They cannot stand alone to make sense, and they are not inflected for tense, number and person. A transitive verb is a verb that takes an action from a doer (subject) to a receiver (object). On the other hand, an intransitive verb is a verb that shows an action that remains with the doer. A regular verb is a verb that forms its past tense and past participle by adding *-d* or *-ed*, but irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle in many different ways.

Post-Test

1. Differentiate between the following pairs of verb types:
 - a. main and auxiliary verbs
 - b. regular and irregular verbs
 - c. finite and non-finite verbs
 - d. transitive and intransitive verbs.

2. Supply the past tense and past participle forms of the following irregular verbs; beat, come, cost, choke, bite, cast, dig, draw, drink, eat, fight, find, fling, grow, hide, hold, hurt, kneel, seek, rent, put, run, sew, sow, tear, swear, ring, ride, lead, teach.

Suggested for further reading

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LECTURE SIX

Adverbs

Introduction

Another word-class is the adverb. In this lecture, I shall discuss the meaning, forms, formation and types of adverbs.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define adverbs ; and
2. identify forms and types of adverbs

Pre-Test

1. What is an adverb?
2. Discuss the types and functions of adverbs.

CONTENT

Definition

Adverbs are words used to modify or qualify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. In the process, they add some meaning to such lexical items modified.

Modification of verbs

He arrived early.

Bolu will come soon.

Modification of adjectives

Funmi is very happy.
Tunde was really impressed.

Modification of adverbs

He works quite sluggishly.
He walks very briskly.

Modification of a complete clause

Honestly, he won my heart.
Reluctantly, she let go of my shirt.

Adverbs may be formed from other words, such as adjectives. Some examples are: quick = quickly, wrong = wrongly, sincere = sincerely, sure = surely, plain = plainly. This means that most adverbs can be formed with the addition of the affix *-ly*. However, you should note that the assumption that every word that ends in *-ly* is an adverb is not true. There are some words that end in *-ly* but which are not adverbs.

Examples:

The boy is *rascally*.
The boy is *cowardly*.

The two words *rascally* and *cowardly* are adjectives yet they end in *-ly*. Also, some words do not end in *-ly* yet they are adverbs.

Examples:

Olu runs *fast*.
He hit the door *hard*.
The man came *later*.

Such words can behave as adjectives in a context and as adverbs in another context e.g. hard, well, better, etc.

Examples:

The man works hard (adverb)

The work is hard (adjective)

John runs very fast (adverb)

John is fast (adjective)

It is important to say that when these words function as adverbs, they qualify the verb. When they function as adjectives, they qualify the noun.

Notice that the adverb is usually very mobile in sentence. That is, it can occur in different positions in a sentence. However, you have to be careful with some adverbs because a change in their position will cause a change in the meaning of the sentences. Consider the following expressions:

Only my friend called the man.

My friend *only* called the man.

My friend called *only* the man.

In spite of the fact that these sentences contain the same words, the meaning of each differs from those of the others.

Forms of Adverbs

Like adjectives, adverbs also have the positive, comparative and superlative forms.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
badly	more badly	most badly
cleverly	more cleverly	most cleverly
sincerely	more sincerely	most sincerely

Types of Adverbs

Adverbs are of different types:

1. **Adverb of time:** This adverb tells us the time an action is performed. It answers the question *when?* Examples are: yesterday, last week, in the morning etc.

2. **Adverb of place:** This adverb tells us the place where an action is performed. It answers the question *where*? Examples are: outside, inside (in the) garden, (at) school, (at) home etc.
3. **Adverb of result:** This tells us the outcome of an action, e.g. (as a) result, thus, consequently, following this, therefore etc.
4. **Adverb of reason:** This tells us the reason why an action is performed. It answers the question **why**? Examples are: because, since, for, etc.
5. **Adverb of condition:** This tells us the condition under which an action will be performed. Examples are: if, provided, should in case.

Adverbs often follow a specific order. The following is the regular order:

- a. Adverbs come very close to the words they describe.
- b. Adverbs often occur as the last element in an ordinary sentence. This, however, excludes adverbs of degree and time, which occur before the words they modify.
- c. When different adverbs occur in a sentence, they often follow the following order: degree/manner, place, time as in:
 - i. The farmers evidently arrived here later.
 - ii. The clothes were thoroughly washed.

Summary

This lecture discussed the word-class known as adverbs. Adverbs are words used to modify or qualify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. I explained that some adverbs may be formed from other words, such as adjectives. I gave five different types of adverbs. These are adverb of time, adverb of place, adverb of result, adverb of reason and adverb of condition. Finally, I mentioned that adverbs often follow specific order in a sentence.

Post-Test

1. Discuss different types of adverbs.
2. Define adverbs and discuss various functions they perform.

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LECTURE SEVEN

Adjectives

Introduction

In this lecture, I shall discuss the word-class known as adjectives. The discussion will focus on different types, their meaning and how to properly use adjectives in sentences.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to

1. define adjectives;
2. identify adjectives in different contexts;
3. classify adjective into different classes; and
4. properly use adjectives in sentences.

Pre-Test

1. What is an adjective?
2. What are the different classes of adjectives?

CONTENT

Definition of Adjectives

An adjective is a word which qualifies a noun or a pronoun. It gives us more information about a noun or a pronoun. In most cases, it comes before the noun it qualifies and tells us more about it. Let us examine the following expressions:

a white bag

a beautiful lady

a delicious meal
a surprising event

In the above constructions, the words, *bag*, *lady*, *meal*, and *event* are nouns while the words: *white*, *beautiful*, *delicious* and *surprising* are adjectives coming before the nouns to tell us something about them.

Syntactic Functions of Adjectives

The major syntactic functions of adjectives are attributive and predicative functions. Adjectives are attributive when they pre-modify nouns i.e. appear between the determiner and the head of the noun or when they occur before nouns, e.g.

the beautiful painting
a long story
some young girls
a rich man
a wounded lion.

Adjectives on the other hand, function predicatively when they occur after linking verbs, e.g.

Your daughter is pretty.
The book is interesting.
The house seems big.
The story sounds horrible.
The boy felt ashamed.

Classes of Adjectives

1. Descriptive Adjectives

A descriptive adjective is an adjective used to show the quality of a noun that makes it different from others, e.g.

Olu is a brilliant student.
Mr Ajayi is a wise man.
Dayo is a hardworking person.

2. Proper Adjectives

A proper adjective is an adjective formed from a proper noun. It usually begins with capital letters, e.g.

He is an American scholar.

They are Nigerian soldiers.

3. Quantitative Adjectives

A qualitative adjective shows the size or amount of a noun. It shows how much of a noun we talk about, e.g.

I need *five* textbooks.

We need *enough* water.

Do you have *any* oil in your keg?

They want us to bring *all* the students for assessment.

4. Distributive Adjectives

Distributive adjectives are used to pick out members of a group of nouns that are being qualified, e.g.

Each student has the book.

Every citizen must pay tax.

Either of the two boys will bring the money.

5. Demonstrative Adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives are adjectives used to *point out* nouns which they modify. When demonstrative pronouns are used with nouns, they become demonstrative adjectives. Consider the following examples:

This book is mine.

That bag is yours.

These shirts are mine.

Those phones are yours.

6. Interrogative Adjectives

Adjectives in the class of interrogative adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions. When interrogative pronouns are used with nouns in asking

questions; they become interrogative adjectives. Consider the following examples:

What school is this?

Whose pen is that?

Which book did you use?

7. Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives are used to show ownership of the nouns they qualify, e.g.

My bag is in the class.

Your book has been stolen

Our chairs are broken

Their pencils are on the table.

8. Emphatic Adjectives

Emphatic adjectives are used to lay emphasis on the noun that they qualify. Examples:

Your own opinion is required.

His own contribution is relevant.

Summary

The focus of this lecture was defining the adjective as well as examining the functions and classes of adjectives. I defined the adjective as a word, which qualifies a noun or a pronoun and explained that adjectives could perform attributive and predicative functions. The classes of adjectives discussed in this lecture include descriptive, proper, quantitative, distributive and demonstrative adjectives. Others are interrogative, possessive and emphatic adjectives. In the next lecture, I shall explain other types of adjectives and comparison of adjectives.

Post-Test

1. What is an adjective?
2. What are the different classes of adjectives?

Suggested for further reading

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LECTURE EIGHT

Post-Positive and Ultimate Adjectives

Introduction

In the last lecture, I gave a vivid discussion of some of the classes of adjectives. These are descriptive, proper, quantitative, distributive and demonstrative adjectives. Others are interrogative, possessive and emphatic adjectives. In this lecture, I shall explain what are referred to as post-positive adjectives and ultimate adjectives. I shall also discuss comparison of adjectives.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to explain post-positive adjectives and ultimate adjectives as well as guide you in comparing two or more things.

Pre-Test

1. What is an adjective?
2. What do you understand by postpositive and ultimate adjectives?
3. Discuss the difference between the position of adjectives relative to nouns in English and your mother tongue or any Nigerian language.

CONTENT

Post-Positive

Thus far we have discussed adjectives that normally come before the nouns which they modify. However, adjectives can sometimes be post

positive i.e. they can sometimes follow the nominal items they modify. A postposed adjective can be regarded as a reduced relative clause. Indefinite pronouns ending in *-body*,

-one, *-thing*, or *-where* can be modified only postpositively e.g.

I want to try something larger

(i.e. I want to try something which is larger)

Postposition is obligation for a few adjectives which have a different sense when they occur attributively or predicatively. The most common are probably *elect* meaning soon to take office and *proper* meaning as strictly defined as in:

The president elect,

and

The city of London proper

In several compounds, mostly legal or quasi-legal, the adjective is postposed, the most common being *Attorney-General*. *General* is an adjective in this context. Other examples are *body politic*, *heir apparent* etc.

Some postposed adjective, especially those ending in *-ible* retain the basic meaning they have in attributive position but convey the implication that what they are denoting has only a temporary applications. Thus, *the stars visible* refers to stars that are visible at a time specify or imply while 'the visible stars' refers to a category of stars that can be seen.

Comparison of Adjectives

There are three degrees of comparison of adjectives. They are:

- i. **The positive degree:** This states the simple quality of a thing, e.g. tall, big, long etc.
- ii. **The comparative degree:** This is used to compare two things. It states a higher degree of the quality when two things are involved, e.g. tall – taller, big – bigger, long – longer etc.
- iii. **The superlative degree:** is used to compare more than two things. It states the highest degree of comparison when more than two things are involved, e.g. tall – taller – tallest, big – bigger – biggest, long – longer – longest.

Rules for Adjective Comparison

- a. Mono-syllabic adjectives or mono-morphemic adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding *-er* and *-est* to the positive, e.g.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
tall	taller	tallest
high	higher	highest
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
fair	fairer	fairest

- b. Di-syllabic and poly-syllabic adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees by placing *more* and *most* before the positive e.g.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
important	more important	most important
obedient	more obedient	most obedient
difficult	more difficult	most difficult

- c. Some adjectives form their comparative and superlative in both of the two ways discussed above e.g.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ugly	uglier/more ugly	ugliest/most ugly
quiet	quieter/more quiet	quietest/most quiet
clever	cleverer/more clever	cleverest/most clever
handsome	handsomer/more handsome	handsomest/most handsome

- d. Some adjectives form their comparative and superlative irregularly e.g.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
many	more	most
much	more	most

good	better	best
bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
near	nearer	nearest
far	farther/further	farthest /furthest
late	later/latter	latest/last
little	less/lesser	least
hind	hinder	hindmost
fore	former	foremost, first
old	older, elder	oldest, elders
up	upper	uppermost

Ultimate Adjectives

As we know, *than* is normally used with adjectives to compare two things or persons, e.g. *John is taller than Mary*. However, there are some adjectives that cannot be compared using *than*, instead, we use *to*. These types of adjectives are called ultimate adjectives. These adjectives are: *inferior, superior, supreme, junior, senior, paramount, preferable, right, wrong, correct, all shapes*, including circular/round, rectangular, etc. Consider the examples below:

Olu is senior to me.

The federal government is supreme to the state government

I am inferior to him.

Therefore, it is wrong to say:

*Olu is more senior than him.

*He is more superior than me.

Summary

In this lecture, I discussed other types of adjectives known as post-positive adjectives and ultimate adjectives. A post-positive adjective follows the nominal items it modifies. Ultimate adjectives are adjectives that cannot be compared using *than*, instead, we use *to*. These adjectives are: *inferior, superior, supreme, junior, senior, paramount, preferable, right, wrong, correct, all shapes*. I also discussed comparison of adjectives. There are three degrees of comparison of adjectives. They are: positive, comparatives and superlatives. Finally, I discussed the rules of adjective comparison.

Post-Test

1. What do you understand by postpositive and ultimate adjectives?
2. Discuss the difference between the position of adjectives relative to nouns in English and your mother tongue or any Nigerian language.

Suggested for further reading

Alọ, Moses & Ayọ Ogunşiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

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LECTURE NINE

Prepositions

Introduction

The focus of this lecture of this lecture is on the word-class known as the preposition. I shall discuss the meaning of prepositions, their classes and functions.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define prepositions;
2. state the roles of each preposition wherever it occurs; and
3. classify prepositions into different classes.

Pre-Test

1. What is a preposition?
2. What are the different types of prepositions?

CONTENT

Definition

Prepositions are words that are used to connect elements of a sentence and specify a particular relationship between them. Examples of prepositions are *in*, *under*, *by*, *with*, *on*, *below*, *after*, *over*, *for* etc. Some of them are used in the sentences below

She put the book *in* the bag (showing relationship between, *put*, *she* and *bag*)

We spoke *to* him (relating *spoke* to *him*)

They sent *for* the man (relating *sent* to *man*)

Types of Prepositions

There are three classes of preposition namely:

1. **Simple prepositions:** These are prepositions that are made up of only one word e.g. *of, in, with, for, on, over, after* etc.
2. **Compound prepositions:** These refer to a combination of two simple prepositions; examples include *within, outside, into, unto,* etc.
3. **Complex prepositions** are those that contain more than one word, e.g. *on top of, in spite of, in regard to, in addition to, in front of, with regard to, in view of, in compliance with* etc.

Functions of Prepositions

1. The primary function of a preposition is to express a relation in space between one thing and another.
2. It can refer to position or movement in one direction or another.
3. It can express position or movement in relation to the speaker's perception of the following:
 - a. a point or place with no specified dimension, e.g. *to, at, from, away from.*
 - b. a one-dimensional line or a two-dimensional surface on which something can rest, e.g. *on, onto (on to), off.*
 - c. a three-dimensional space in which something can be enclosed e.g. *in, into, out of*
4. A preposition can also express movement or position along a line, across a surface, through a space.
5. A preposition can express relationships in time, e.g. *at eight o'clock, on Monday, in 1987.*
6. In addition to expressing relationships in space and time, a preposition can refer to agency, instrument, means, purpose, topics etc.

Examples:

for Kano (destination)
for the party (purpose)

by the manager (agent)
with a knife (instrument)

Prepositions and Usage

The following sections will describe the various forms of usage of prepositions. It should be realized that there are only a few examples. Students are advised to identify many more examples.

Prepositions expressing relationship in space

These are prepositions which refer to movement or position in space.

1. Prepositions referring to movement or position in space in relation to a point or dimension:
to, at, on, in, away from, from, ... to, back to.

Let's go to the Auditorium

We have now decided to live in Badagry.

You can go back to Lagos.

We are leaving for Port Harcourt.

2. Prepositions of movement or position in to a surface
on, onto, off, across.

The actors are going on (to) the stage.

The producer is getting off the stage.

The actresses are already on the stage.

We told the singers to stay off the stage.

3. Preposition of movement or position in relation to a three-dimensional space:
into, in, inside, out of, outside of.
You cannot go out of the office now.
"Come inside my office", he shouted.

Prepositions of time and date

1. a. at a time e.g. at ten o'clock, at noon, at midnight
- b. on a day: e.g. on Saturday, on April 3rd, on Easter Monday.
- c. in a period: e.g. in December, in 1960, in the morning, in the evening.

The meeting will start at ten o'clock.

The school closes on April 3rd

Let's meet again in the evening.

2. a. on time: means "at the time arranged", e.g.
The 7.00a.m. plane took off on time (i.e. at exactly 7.00a
- b. in time: means "not late" e.g.
We arrived in time for the 8.00am flight
(i.e. we arrived before 8.00am)
3. in time can also mean in the end/ eventually: e.g.
He'll get used to the weather in time.

Prepositions of travel and movement

It is important to note the following expressions involving the use of specific prepositions in connection with travel and movement.

1. We travel from a starting point to a destination.
2. You arrive in or at a village.
3. You arrive in a country or town.

Note: However, that the preposition is omitted in the following expressions:

1. You travel/go/return home (used without the preposition to)
2. You get home (without to)
3. You arrive home (without to)

Summary

The focus of this lecture was prepositions. I defined prepositions as words that are used to connect elements of a sentence and specify a particular relationship between them. I gave three types of prepositions. These are simple prepositions, compound prepositions and complex prepositions. The primary function of a preposition is to express a relation in space between one thing and another. Some of the various forms and usages of prepositions I discussed in this lecture are prepositions expressing relationship in space, prepositions of time and date and prepositions of travel and movement.

Post-Test

1. What is a preposition?
2. What are the different classes of prepositions?
3. Explain functions of prepositions.

Suggested for further reading

Alo, Moses & Ayo Ogunsiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

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LECTURE TEN

Conjunctions

Introduction

In this lecture, I shall discuss the meaning of conjunction, types of conjunctions and functions.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define conjunctions;
2. identify types of conjunctions, and
3. properly use conjunctions

Pre-Test

1. What is a conjunction?
2. Discuss the different classes of conjunctions and their functions

CONTENT

Definition

Conjunctions are words that are used to join words, phrases or clauses in a sentence. Some examples are *and*, *but*, *because*, etc.

Types

Conjunctions in English have been categorized into two major types. These are:

1. Subordinating conjunctions, and
2. Coordinating conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce subordinate or dependent clauses and connect them to main clauses to form complex sentences. Some examples of subordinating conjunctions are: because, that, what, how, whose, if, whenever, etc. In the sentences below, the italicized words are the subordinating conjunctions.

You can go *wherever* you want to go.

I will give you the money, *if* you work for it.

A thief entered the house *because* nobody was in.

Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions are used to join or connect words, phrases or clauses that belong to the same grammatical class. Coordinators do join two or more nouns, verbs, adjectives or clauses that have the same status. Some examples of coordinating conjunctions are but, for, so, yet, either – or, neither – nor, and, etc.

Eze *and* Ope are friends.

He worked hard *but* could not win the competition.

Functions

Subordinating conjunctions have the following functions

1. They state a relationship of subordination: The sentences which are combined by subordinating conjunctions are not of equal syntactic status; one is subordinate while the other is super-ordinate.
2. Subordinating conjunctions perform the grammatical job of making, by connection, one sentence a subordinate of a larger structure.

Coordinating conjunctions have the following functions

1. Word coordinators. These are coordinators used in linking two words in a phrase or a sentence. Examples:

We ate rice *and* beans for lunch.

The wrestler is strong *but* clumsy.

2. Coordinators which link phrases

Examples:

The referee wore a red cap *and* a white shirt.

Is it in the store *or* in the garage?

3. Coordinators used in linking clauses/sentences

The pretty girl smiled *but* (she) remained silent.

We don't know who you are *or* what you want.

Coordinating and meaning

This is a very important aspect of coordination in English. Different shades of meaning can be expressed through the use of coordinators such as *and*, *or* *but*.

The meaning of *and* as a coordinator

And show merely a relation between sentences (or clauses). But the sentences should have sufficient things in common to justify their combination. If they have nothing in common, their combination will be quite odd because it will be difficult to decide what the coordinated structure mean.

1. The National Festival of Arts has ended and the NNPC increased the price of petrol.
2. He heard a gun shot, and he (therefore) phoned the police

The two clauses combined in (1) are rather unrelated. In (2), the second clause in the coordination is a consequence of the first. The order in which the two clauses occur shows time sequence.

The meaning of *or* as a coordinator

The word *or* denotes an alternative. When *or* is used to combine two clauses, the contents of the two clauses must have sufficient things in common to justify their being regarded as alternatives.

Examples:

3. The National Festival of Arts has ended or the NNPC increased the price of petrol.

The sentence in (3) above is odd.

4. You can boil yourself an egg or make some sardine omelette.
Or in (4) shows that both alternatives are possible.

The meaning of *but* as a coordinator

The use of *but* denotes contrast. The contrast may be the unexpected notion of what is said in the second clause in view of the content of the first clause in the coordination.

Examples:

5. We've been friends for years, but we've never agreed on politics.
6. Aminu was quite poor, but was a happy man.

In the sentence in (5), the information in the second clause is unexpected in view of the fact that the first clause states the long duration of their relationship. While in example (6), sentence supplies that his unhappiness is unexpected in view of his poverty.

Summary

In this lecture, I discussed conjunctions. I defined conjunctions as words that are used to join words, phrases or clauses in a sentence. I gave two types of conjunctions in English as subordinating conjunctions and coordinating conjunctions. Subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce subordinate or dependent clauses and connect them to main clauses to form complex sentences. Coordinating conjunctions are used to join or connect words, phrases or clauses that belong to the same grammatical class. I discussed both the functions and meanings of the two types of conjunctions.

Pre-Test

1. What is a conjunction?
2. Discuss the different classes of conjunctions and their functions.

Suggested for further reading

Alọ, Moses & Ayo Ogunsiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

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LECTURE ELEVEN

Modifiers in Sentence Construction

Introduction

In this lecture, I shall discuss words or group of words which are used to describe another word. They are referred to as modifiers. I shall explain how these words are used or employed in modification. Finally I shall examine misplaced modifiers as well as dangling modifiers.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define modifiers;
2. identify modifiers in sentences;
3. place modifiers appropriately; and
4. avoid dangling modifiers.

Pre-Test

1. What is modifier?
2. Briefly explain with examples the term misplaced modifiers.
3. What do you understand by dangling modifiers?

CONTENT

Definition of Modifiers

Modifiers are words or group of words whose function is to describe, limit, intensify or add to the meaning of another word, called the head word. The word classes which can be modified are nouns, verbs,

adjectives and adverbs. In the examples below, the modifiers are in italics, while the words they modify are capitalized:

Noun modifier

The *short* BOY wore a *red* SHIRT.

The *old* MAN *in the garden* is my father.

Verb modifier

The man RUNS *slowly*.

The boy DIED *last week*.

Adjective modifier

The novel is *highly* INTERESTING.

You are *very* SAD

This is *extremely* BAD.

Adverb modifier

Ade attends lectures *fairly* REGULARLY.

He works *quite* EFFECTIVELY.

As we can observe, the modifier can occur before or after the modified word. The modifiers in our example sentences are single words or fairly short phrases; but modifiers can sometimes run into fairly long phrases.

Examples:

Driving home at night, Olu was attacked by robbers

When I was listening to music, the light went off

In the examples above, the modifiers are in italics.

As implied in the definition above, modifiers play the very crucial role of telling us a lot more about the modified words than the words themselves can do. However, in the use of modifiers, there are two major precautions that must be taken all the time. These are:

1. misplacing the modifier, and
2. using dangling modifiers.

Misplaced modifiers

A modifier is said to be misplaced when it occurs in a position where:

1. it appears to modify a word other than the intended one and therefore gives the sentence a different meaning from the intended meaning;
2. it appears to modify either of two words and therefore makes the sentence ambiguous; or it makes the sentence odd if not totally ungrammatical.

Consider the following examples:

1. *Taye almost ate all the food
2. Olu's brother encouraged him frequently to study.
3. *The policeman shot the innocent boy nearly

The intended meaning in example (1) is that *Taye* ate most of the food, but saying he *almost ate* it is saying that he did not eat it at all. To *almost do* something is not to do it at all. So, the modifier *almost* is misplaced since it is made to modify *eat* instead of *all of the food*.

The correct expression should be

Taye ate almost all of the food.

In different but related example in (2), it is indeterminate whether *frequently* modifies *encouraged* or *to study*, that is, do the speaker means:

- 4 a. Olu's brother frequently encouraged him to study, or
b. Olu's brother encouraged him to study frequently?

As evident in (4a&b), the ambiguity in (2) is resolved by simply placing the modifier as close as possible to the word it modifies and as far away as possible from the other possibilities.

In example (3), *nearly* modifies *shot* but is placed very far away from it. The correct version is:

5. The policeman *nearly* shot the innocent boy.

As shown above, to avoid misplacing modifiers, two things must be done:

1. you should be clear in your mind what modifiers go with what words and try to place each modifier as close as possible to the word it modifies, and
2. avoid placing a modifier between two words where it becomes unclear which one it modifies, or placing it in a position where it makes the sentence odd or ungrammatical.

Dangling modifiers

A modifier is said to be dangling when it does not modify any word in the sentence where it is used.

For example:

6. **Listening to music*, the light went off
7. **Expecting trouble*, adequate precautions were taken.

The modifiers in italics here are dangling. Who was listening to music? Who was expecting trouble? We are not told.

Another common error is placing the modified word so far away from the modifier that the latter appears to apply to some other word. Consider the following examples:

8. **Driving home late at night*, robbers attacked Olu.
9. **At the age of seven*, my mother took me to London.

As we can see in example (8), it appears as if it was the robbers who were driving home late at night, while in (9), it appears that it is my mother who was seven. But we understand that the modifiers in (8) and (9) refer to *Olu* and *me* respectively.

To avoid dangling modifiers and other related problems, the following precautions must be taken:

1. make sure that the word being modified is present in the sentence.
Expecting trouble, we took adequate precautions.
2. place the word as close as possible to its modifier
Driving home late at night, Olu was attacked by robbers.

3. re-write the dangling modifier as a dependent clause

When I was listening to music, the light went off.

Sometimes, a modifier can modify the whole sentence and sometimes only part of it. When this happens, there is often a significant change in meaning; e.g.

Wisely, he refused to spend his money.

He refused to spend his money *wisely*.

In the first sentence, *wisely* modifies the whole sentence, while in the second sentence, it modifies only *spend*. In the first sentence, the person in question did not spend his money at all (which was wise of him); in the second sentence, he spent it foolishly. So, when you use a modifier, be sure that the meaning it conveys is the one you intend it to have.

Summary

In this lecture, I examined modifiers and their roles or uses in sentences. I defined modifiers as words or group of words whose function is to describe, limit, intensify or add to the meaning of another word, called the head word. I mentioned that modifiers could occur before or after the modified word. I went ahead to discuss misplaced modifiers and dangling modifiers. To avoid misplacing modifiers, you should be clear in your mind what modifiers go with what words and try to place each modifier as close as possible to the word it modifies and avoid placing a modifier between two words, where it becomes unclear which one it modifies.

Post-Test

1. What is modifier?
2. What do you understand by the term dangling and misplaced modifiers?
3. The modifiers in the following sentences are misplaced. Correct them by placing them nearer the words they modify.
 - a. Olu told Tola to go to hell in a loud voice.
 - b. All the students failed almost to do the assignment.

- c. The students after the semester holidays returned to school.
 - d. Everyone nearly enjoys watching a football match.
 - e. Tolu scored 80% in the examination surprisingly.
4. Write out the word or group of words which modify the capitalized word.
- a. The tall black MAN stood under the tree
 - b. It happens very FREQUENTLY
 - c. The dinner was quite DELIGHTFUL
 - d. The thief GLANCED furtively around.
 - e. The ROBBER who tried to escape was shot dead.

Suggested for further reading

Alọ, Moses & Ayo Ogunşiji (Eds). (2004). *English Language Communication Skills for Academic Purposes*. Ibadan: General Studies Programme, University of Ibadan.

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LECTURE TWELVE

Concord/Agreement in Sentences

Introduction

When two grammatical elements in languages occur in a sentence, they do agree with each other. Therefore, for one to form a grammatical sentence, one must ensure that there is agreement between these grammatical elements that make up such a sentence. The agreement could be in terms of number, gender or person. So, the lecture is devoted to discussing the meaning and different types of agreement.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define concord/agreement;
2. form sentences with grammatical elements in agreement with each other and;
3. distinguish agreement in English from that in your mother tongue.

Pre-Test

1. What is concord/agreement?
2. What do you understand by subject – verb agreement?
3. Explain the term pronoun-antecedent agreement.

CONTENT

The Meaning of Concord

Concord is the relationship between two grammatical elements such that if one of them contains a particular feature, the other also has to reflect that feature. For this reason, one can say concord means ‘agreement’.

Agreement refers to the unity of purpose among the different parts of a sentence. There are different types of agreement or concord but the one easily noticed and most commonly considered is that between the verbal group (the predicator) and the subject (nominal or pronominal group). This is called grammatical concord. This and other types will be examined in detail.

Subject – verb Agreement

The subject of a verb is usually a noun, a pronoun, or a noun phrase. In all acceptable sentences, the subject agrees with its verb in number and person.

Agreement in Number

The principle says that for a singular subject; use a singular verb, provided that the tense of the verb is present. Consider the sentences below:

- 1 a. The boy laughs.
b. He loves him.

- 2 a. The boys laugh.
b. They love him.

As we can see, the form of the verbs in (1a & b) differs from that in (2a & b). Those in examples (1) are in the singular because they have singular items as their subjects while those in examples (2) are in the plural.

However, this kind of agreement is not morphologically marked in some Nigerian languages in particular and African languages in general. For example, witness the following sentences in the Yorùbá language.

- 3 a. Olú ra eja
Olu buy fish
'Olu buys/bought a fish'.
b. Olú àti Adé ra eja
Olu and Ade buy fish
'Olu and Ade buy/bought a fish'.

The subject in (3a) is singular while that of (3b) is plural but the form of the verb remains unchanged in each case. This account for why some Yorùbá speakers of English do say or write:

*Olu buy yam
instead of:
Olu buys yam.

Agreement in Person

The rule says that a verb agrees with its subject in person. Consider the following sentences:

4. a. I love him
- b. You love him
- c. He/She/It loves him
- d. We love him
- e. You love him
- f. They love him

Each pronoun in (4c) is third person and the verb in the sentence agrees with the pronoun in terms of person. This is why its form alone differs from others.

Also, this third-person subject-verb agreement is absent in the Yorùbá language as shown in the following Yorùbá translation equivalent sentences:

5. a. Mo fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
 I love him
- b. O fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
 You(sg) love him
- c. Ó fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
 He/She/It loves him

- d. A fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
We love him
- e. È fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
You (pl) love him
- f. Wọ́n fẹ̀ràn rẹ̀
They love him

Note: Speakers of other languages are advised to do the same analysis in their respective languages.

Subject – object Agreement

Another type of agreement is the subject-object concord of number, person, and gender and the subject complement concord, where the second element is a reflexive pronoun. Some examples are:

6. a. The boy slapped himself
b. The girl slapped herself
c. They are making bags for themselves

but not:

- *The boy slapped herself.
*The girl slapped himself
*They are making bags for himself

Compare the Yorùbá example sentences below with that of English above.

- 7a. Ọmọkùnrin náà gbá etí ara rẹ̀
boy the slap ear body his
'The boy slapped himself.'
- b. Ọmọ̀bínrín náà gbá etí ara rẹ̀
girl the slap ear body her
'The girl slapped herself.'

As shown in the sentences (7a&b), the subject-object gender agreement in English is far from being attested in Yorùbá. Therefore, Yorùbá speakers of English should be mindful of this dichotomy when writing or speaking the language so as to avoid negative transfer that may result in unacceptable utterances.

Pronoun-antecedent Agreement

Pronouns must agree with their antecedents. The term antecedent refers to the noun that is replaced with a pronoun to avoid repetition.

The third person pronouns agree with their antecedents both in number and (in the case of the 3rd person singular pronoun ‘he/she/it’) in gender. Some examples are:

8. a. John cut his nails
- b. Mary burnt her hair
- c. Taye and Bọla lost their fame.

But not

9. a. *John cut her nails
- b. *Mary burnt his hair
- c. *Taye and Bọla lost his fame

The nouns *John*, *Mary*, and *Taye and Bọla*, which occur in the sentences (8a – c) above, are substituted with the pronouns *his*, *her* and *their* respectively. In (8a&b), the pronouns agree with their respective antecedents in terms of gender while in (8c), the pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number. However, the absence of such agreement in the in examples (9) accounts for their ungrammaticality.

Summary

In this lecture, I explained concord/agreement. I defined concord as the relationship between two grammatical elements such that if one of them contains a particular feature, the other also has to reflect that feature. I discussed subject-verb agreement where I pointed out that the subject agrees with its verb in number and person. Another type of agreement is the subject-object concord of number, person, and gender and the subject complement concord, where the second element is a reflexive pronoun. Finally, I looked at pronoun-antecedent agreement where I explained that the third person pronouns agree with their antecedents both in number and (in the case of the 3rd person singular pronoun 'he/she/it') in gender.

Post-Test

1. What is concord/agreement?
2. What do you understand by subject – verb agreement?
3. Explain the term *pronoun-antecedent agreement*.

Suggested for further reading

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LECTURE THIRTEEN

Tense and Aspect

Introduction

The term “tense” is derived from the Latin word “tempus” meaning “time”. Aspect relates to the perspective from which a verbal action is considered i.e. as being in progress or as having been completed. I shall examine the various forms of tense and aspect and how they are employed in the English language.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. identify both the simple and perfect tenses in the language; and
2. explain them clearly to other people.\

It also aims at giving a clear discussion of the various aspectual forms in the English language so that you will be able to use them correctly.

Pre-Test

1. Give the tense of each italicized verb in the following sentences:
 - a. I *fell* in love before I *had reached* years of discretion.
 - b. The true friend of property, the true conservative, is he who *insists* that property *shall be* the servant and not the master of the commonwealth.
 - c. Many people *believe* that it *was* a sad day indeed when Rutherford split the atom; other people *believe* that if it *hadn't been* Rutherford, it *would have been* someone else.

2. Give examples of the following: Present continuous tense, Present perfect tense, Future present progressive tense and past perfective tense.

CONTENT

TENSE

The term “tense” is derived from the Latin word “tempus” meaning “time”. In English, reference to the time an action or event is made in the verb. In other words, the form of the verb informs whether the action or event being described took place in the past, is taking place now (in the present) or will take place in the future. The discussion below is taken from (Babajide 2004: 216-225).

Simple Present Tense

The present form of the given verb marks the simple present tense. Examples are given below.

We *are* listening to you.

God *is* able to do all things.

I *leave* everything to God.

When to use the simple present tense

Sentences in the simple present tense are used:

1. When a state of being is expressed
We *are* very busy now.
I *am* pleased.
Your old man *is* dead.
2. When a report of an on-going action is made
Here *comes* the boy.
Tick, tick *says* the clock.
3. When aphoristic statements are made
Knowledge *is* power.
The more we *are* the merrier we shall be.
Time *is* money

4. When reference is made to a book, *the Bible*, *the constitution*, or any document as in the following sentences:

The Bible *maintains* that Jesus died for the sins of man.

The constitution *states* that no citizen should be unlawfully detained.

So Long a Letter written by Mariama Ba *exposes* the problems faced by women in polygamous homes.

5. When a habitual action is reported and when a natural fact is stated
I *study* the Bible regularly.

I *pray* many times every day.

I *die* daily.

The sun *rises* in the east.

6. When a future event is reported

The President *addresses* a world conference tomorrow.

The plane *takes* off tonight.

The new TV station *begins* transmission early next month.

Simple Past Tense

The simple past tense is marked by the use of the past form of the verb. Regular verbs derive their past tense form by taking past tense suffix *-d* or *-ed* as in the following:

“-d”

note	noted	die	died
------	-------	-----	------

agree	agreed	phone	phoned
-------	--------	-------	--------

“-ed”

pass	passed	count	counted
------	--------	-------	---------

add	added	open	opened
-----	-------	------	--------

Irregular verbs are those whose past tense forms are not derived by simply adding *-d* or *-ed* suffix. The following are examples.

cut	cut	spread	spread
do	did	see	saw
go	went	write	wrote
tell	told	catch	caught

When to use sentences in the simple past tense

1. When reporting an action or event that took place in the past
 The lady *killed* the snake in the lecture room.
 The lecturer *answered* the question.
 Some students *ran* away from class.
 He *put* the lecture note on the table.
2. When narrating or lamenting an experience or state of things in the past
 The okada rider *hit* by the taxi driver *died* instantly.
 We *went* to the class and *informed* the students about the postponement of the test.
 Salaries and allowances *used* to be paid regularly.
3. When an event scheduled for a particular time in the future is changed or aborted
 They *were* to travel tomorrow before fire incident.
 The criminal *was* to be publicly executed but died this morning
4. When referring to a past habitual action
 We *were* always at home after church on Sundays.
 She *was* always out of school during the weekends in her undergraduate days.
 They *were* never friendly as neighbours.
5. When an event slated for a time in the past did not take place
 We *expected* to see them at the occasion.
 It *was* to happen yesterday.
 They *were* to come to the party.

Future Tense

Futurity can be expressed in a number of ways in English. Some of these are:

1. By using *will* or *shall* e.g.
 - a. I *will come* tomorrow morning.
 - b. I *shall come* tomorrow morning.
 - c. He *shall come* tomorrow morning.
 - d. He *will come* tomorrow morning.

Shall is used with the first person (I, We) to express the simple future while *will* is used to express a promise or certainty. Therefore, sentence (a) above expresses the strong intention of the speaker to come tomorrow morning, while (b) simply expresses the simple future. On the other hand, when *will* is used with the second and third persons (You and She/He/It/They), the simple future is expressed, whereas, the use of *shall* in this case expresses an obligation. Therefore, sentence (c) expresses the strong intention or determination of the speaker, whereas, sentence (b) expresses the simple future.

Other ways of expressing futurity are:

2. By using simple present tense
The President *leaves* for Togo tomorrow
Our examination *starts* tomorrow.

This is the case when the future action has been planned or time-tabled.

3. By using present continuous tense
The President *is leaving* for Togo tomorrow.
Our examination *is starting* tomorrow.

The present continuous tense is used here just like the simple present explained above.

Aspect

Aspect relates to the perspective from which a verbal action is considered, i.e. as being in progress (progressive aspect) or as having been completed (perfective aspect).

Continuity (progressive aspect)

The progressive aspect of verbs shows that the action described is, was, or will be continuous.

I am learning English grammar

We are all doing something.

I was learning English grammar

We were all doing something.

I will be learning English grammar

We will all be doing something.

Completeness

This shows that an action or activity described has been completed. In other words, the action or activity described is already concluded. Examine the sentences below.

I have danced. (completed action)

I am dancing. (action in progress)

In English, tense and aspect can combine, and when they do, we have the following:

Present Continuous Tense

This is a combination of present tense and progressive (continuous) aspect. It is used to indicate an action in progress in the present.

I am dancing merrily.

We are reading now.

Past Progressive Tense

This combines past tense and progressive aspect. It is used to indicate an action that was in progress in the past, when something else occurred

I was dancing merrily.

We were reading when you called.

Present Perfect Tense

This is the combination of the present tense and the perfective aspect.

I have written the note.

We have washed the plates.

This structure is used for a completed action in the past but which is still relevant to the present.

Past Perfect Tense

This is combination of past tense and perfective aspect.

We had written the note before you came.

We had washed the plates before you finished cooking.

This tense is used when at least two actions occurred in the past, with one occurring before the other. The action that occurred before the other is expressed in the past perfective form while the second action is expressed in the simple past form.

Future Progressive

It is used to express an action that will be in progress in the future.

I will be dancing this time tomorrow.

We shall be discussing the matter with him this time tomorrow

Present Perfect Progressive

I have been reading.

She has been dancing.

Summary

In this lecture, I examined the various forms of tense and aspect and how they are employed in the English language. The form of the verb shows whether the action or event being described took place in the past, is taking place now (in the present) or will take place in the future. The present form of the given verb marks the simple present tense, while the simple past tense is marked by the use of the past form of the verb. However, for regular verbs, they derive their past tense form by taking past tense suffix *-d* or *-ed*, while irregular derive past tense forms other ways. The future tense is expressed with the use of *shall* and *will*. *Shall* is used with the first person, while the second and third persons employ *will*. Aspect relates to the perspective from which a verbal action is considered, i.e. as being in progress (progressive aspect) or as having been completed (perfective aspect).

Post-Test

1. Give the tense of each italicized verb in the following sentences:
 - a. I *fell* in love before I *had reached* years of discretion.
 - b. The true friend of property, the true conservative, is he who *insists* that property *shall be* the servant and not the master of the commonwealth.
 - c. Many people *believe* that it *was* a sad day indeed when Rutherford split the atom; other people *believe* that if it *hadn't been* Rutherford, it *would have been* someone else.
2. Give examples of the following: Present continuous tense, Present perfect tense, Future present progressive tense and past perfective tense.

Suggested for further reading

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LECTURE FOURTEEN

General Revision

Examine the post-test questions on all the lectures. Are you able to answer all these questions satisfactorily? If you are not, study again the lectures whose questions you cannot answer to identify the thorny issues. You must be able to explain the topics covered in this course because this is a foundation course in grammar. Your ability to explain and teach others this course would give you a solid and firm foundation. Good luck!

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