

# الأكاديمية العربية الدولية



الأكاديمية العربية الدولية  
Arab International Academy

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## الأكاديمية العربية الدولية المقررات الجامعية

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**KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF OPEN LEARNING**

**ENGLISH AND LINGUISTICS**  
**AEN IO1: INTRODUCTION TO THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH**

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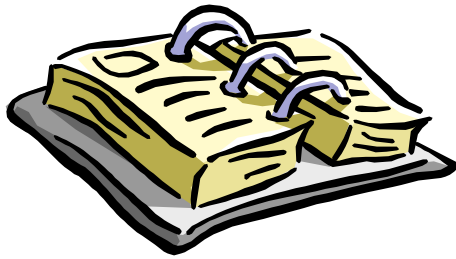
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## INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces the learner to certain basic, but very important features of the grammar of the English language. The grammar of a language describes the form of the language-what its structures look like and how they combine to form larger structures; how they may be divided into classes and sub-classes and how they work to convey meaning. This course introduces you to the grammar of the English Language. It begins with an identification and classification of the words of the English Language. It then explains how the words of the language interact and combine to form larger structures, such as phrases which in turn combine to form clauses. The clause is the unit used by a speaker to express thoughts and thus clearly communicate with other people. This course introduces you to the basic structure of the English language clause and how it can be used to communicate thoughts in different styles.

The knowledge of grammar that you will acquire through this course will be of several practical applications. It will help you to think about the English Language in a more systematic way; it will give you the terminology that enables you to discuss more effectively the problems that may affect people speaking and writing the language, and it will aid your further acquisition and mastery of English as a Second Language. Hence the grammar you learn through this course can be an invaluable tool for increasing your mastery of communication in English.

The Unit is divided into four major sections known as lessons. The lessons are designed not in terms of the time you will spend on each, but in terms of the major divisions of the content material. Some of the lessons are very wide – covering various sub-topics of the content material. The learner is advised to spend as much time as possible on every lesson until all the content's sub-headings are understood. Be sure to check your understanding by doing the activities provided at the end of every major sub-topic.



## UNIT OBJECTIVE

This main objective of this unit is to introduce the learner to certain basic but very important knowledge about the grammar of English.

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

- Describe and illustrate each of the word classes and sub-classes of English
- Explain how words can be analyzed by presenting the word parts some of which realize Morphological categories of number, person, tense and aspect
- Describe phrases, sentence elements, patterns and the types and analyze systematically simple sentences into the elements that constitute the basic sentence structure.
- Coordinate and subordinate clauses into longer sentences.

## LESSON 1

# THE WORD CLASSES

### 1.0 Introduction

In lesson one we are going to look at the different kinds of words found in the English language and provide the description of the major word classes as established by the traditional grammarians who considered the word as parts of speech that a speaker needs to understand if she is to communicate effectively in any language.

### 1.1 Objectives



By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- Classify any English language word that you come across.
- Describe the grammatical function of any English language word you encounter in use.
- Give examples of words that belong to particular parts of speech.
- Explain how the same word may belong to different word classes depending on how it is used in a linguistic occurrence.
- Outline the distinguishing features of the different word classes.

### 1.2 What are Word Classes?

The word classes are also known as PARTS OF SPEECH.

The word classes or parts of speech are categories set up to group words together according to their customary functions and their formal characteristics.

There are eight different classes of words that we use everyday as we speak and write. These are:

- |               |                  |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Nouns      | 5. Adverbs       |
| 2. Pronouns   | 6. Prepositions  |
| 3. Verbs      | 7. Conjunctions  |
| 4. Adjectives | 8. Interjections |

These categories are further divided into sub-classes. We talk about them one by one in the following section of the lesson. We explain them in terms of their functions and form.

### 1.2.1 NOUNS

A noun is a naming word. A noun may name:

| <u>Entity</u>       | - | <u>Example</u>                    |
|---------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| A person            | - | Kamau, woman                      |
| A place             | - | Nairobi                           |
| A thing             | - | house                             |
| A quality           | - | honesty                           |
| An event            | - | the bomb blast                    |
| An activity         | - | finishing writing                 |
| A concept/condition | - | alcoholism                        |
| An idea             | - | procrastination, communism, unity |

#### 1.2.1.1 Types of Nouns

Nouns may be classified in several ways:

##### (i) Common Vs Proper Nouns

**A PROPER noun** is one that names a particular, person, place, thing, event or idea.

Each important word in a proper noun begins with a capital letter e.g.,

|                       |   |             |
|-----------------------|---|-------------|
| Adela Visu            | - | person      |
| Kenya                 | - | place       |
| University of Nairobi | - | institution |

**A COMMON noun** is a general name that can be used to refer to any person, place, event, or idea as long as it is of a similar kind. In other words, common nouns name general classes of items (e.g., boy, animal, building). Proper nouns specific items: For instance, Omolo is a name of a particular person just like your name in the name of a particular person – you; Kenya is the name of a particular country. A common noun does not begin with a capital letter unless it is the first word of a sentence.

When looked at syntactically, proper nouns have certain characteristics worth mentioning:

- They do not occur in the plural
- They cannot be preceded by numerals (e.g., \* One John), except when you are talking about more than one person with the same name, as in:

‘I know two / several Johns.



- They cannot be preceded by quantifiers (e.g., many, few several, much and little.) For example: \***Many John**. This is not acceptable.
- They cannot be preceded by the definite and indefinite articles. (e.g., \*A John or \* The John)

When looked at semantically, one notes that proper nouns refer to one particular person, place or thing.

### (ii) Concrete Vs Abstract Nouns

A CONCRETE noun names an object that occupies space or that can be recognized or perceived by the senses (e.g.. thorn, stars, thunder, gas, milk)

An ABSTRACT noun names qualities, ideas, characteristics that have no physical form (e.g., kindness, patriotism, harmony, innocence).

### (iii) Count Vs Mass Nouns

Common nouns are further sub-divided into:

- Count nouns
- Mass nouns

COUNT nouns name units that can be counted. MASS nouns name items considered in bulk or as abstractions. Syntactically Mass nouns may not be preceded by *a* , *an*, but they usually take a singular verb.

Examples are:

| <u>COUNT</u> | <u>MASS</u> |
|--------------|-------------|
| Apple        | courage     |
| Building     | flour       |
| Boy          | water       |

### (iv) Collective Nouns

Apart from the above sub-classes of nouns, there is another group of nouns known as **Collective nouns**. Collective nouns name groups or classes of items considered as a unit. Examples of collective nouns are: *army, majority, band, couple, team, class committee, crowd, herd, audience*. A collective noun is considered as singular.

A collective noun may also represent a group or class of individuals considered not as a unit but as individuals. In this case the collective noun is treated as plural.

Here are examples showing where the collective noun is treated as singular and plural respectively:

The committee wants our attention.                      – Singular.

The committee have gone their separate ways. – Plural.

Certain collective nouns appear to be plural because they end in *-s*; yet they are treated as singular when they are intended as singulars and as plural, when they are intended as plural. Examples include: athletics, politics, statistics, mathematics and measles.

#### (v) **Compound Nouns**

A compound noun is a noun that is made up of more than one word. Sometimes the two words are written as one to form a compound noun; sometimes a compound noun is written as two separate words and other times it is written with a hyphen. Check a dictionary if you are not sure of the way a compound noun should be written. Examples of compound nouns include:

|             |                   |
|-------------|-------------------|
| Housekeeper | bookmark          |
| Necklace    | roadblock         |
| Ice cream   | mother-in-law     |
| High school | great-grandfather |
| Dining room | railway           |

Proper nouns, that name particular people or places, may be compound, for instance, Bill Clinton, Niagara Falls, Lake Victoria, etc.

### **1.2.1.2 Form of Nouns**

Nouns can be identified by their special forms that show number (i.e., singular or plural) and possession.

(a) **PLURAL NOUNS:** The plural of most of nouns is formed simply by adding *-s* or *-es*, for instance, *books*, *boxes*.

Some nouns acquire a spelling change when a plural ending is added, for instance  
half + es = halves; body + es = bodies

Some plurals are formed not by adding *-s* or *-es* but by making internal changes, for instance: goose - geese; mouse - mice, and, woman - women

Other plural forms show no change from the singular to plural, for instance:

- one fish            - three fish
- one sheep        - three sheep

Some words, borrowed from other languages retain their foreign plurals or have both a foreign plural and a regular English plural. For instance:

- radius - radii, radiuses
- index - indices, indexes
- forum - forum, forums

### (b) POSSESSIVE NOUNS

The possessive form of a singular noun is formed by adding -'s, and that of a plural noun, by adding ', if the plural ends in s, or -'s if the plural does not end in -s.

For example:

- A friend's jacket
- Two friends' jackets
- Children's toys

### 1.2.1.3 Noun – forming Suffixes

Certain suffixes are characteristic of nouns. Examples of these include:

| <u>SUFFIX</u> | - | <u>NOUN</u>   |                       |
|---------------|---|---------------|-----------------------|
| -tion         | - | consideration | } added to verbs      |
| -ee           | - | employee      |                       |
| -dom          | - | freedom       |                       |
| -ment         | - | govern        |                       |
| -ce           | - | obedience     | } added to adjectives |
| -ity          | - | intensity     |                       |
| -ness         | - | shyness       |                       |
| -ship         | - | friendship    | } added to nouns      |
| -hood         | - | brotherhood   |                       |
| -ster         | - | trickster     |                       |

### 1.2.1.4 Functions of Nouns

Nouns perform the naming function. However, there is a special function of nouns in English where nouns are used to serve as adjectives modifying other nouns. Examples include:

|                      |                 |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| Book shelf           | camera case     |
| Air freshener        | student finance |
| University book shop | English man.    |

Nouns can also function as adverbs when they tell when, where, how long, how much, etc.

For example.

- Sue went **home**.

The noun **home** is telling **where**

### 1.2.1.5 Positions of Nouns in the Sentence

Nouns can be identified by their position in relation to other words in a sentence. The usual positions for a noun are the following:

1. after a determiner = the *mirror* broke
2. before a verb = the *story* is interacting
3. after a verb = we like *eggs*
4. after a preposition = they asked for *money*

One of the most reliable noun signals include -

- **Articles** (the, a, an)
- **Possessives** (his, her, its)
- **Demonstratives** (this, that, these, those)
- **Number Words** (first, two, thirty)
- **Indefinites** (some, any, most)

Some expressions like –

|          |  |
|----------|--|
| Most of  | } may precede determiners and are called<br>predetermines. |
| A bit of |  |
| Half of  |  |
| Many of  |  |
| All      |  |

Several determiners may precede a single noun.

For example:

|               |         |               |              |
|---------------|---------|---------------|--------------|
| Some of the   | ten     | <u>STATES</u> | approved it. |
| ↓             | ↓       | ↘             | Noun         |
| Predetermines | Article | number word   |              |

### . ACTIVITY .1.

- (1) Identify each noun occurring in the following extract according to its sub-class. Remember that nouns may be classified in more than one sub-class.

Most people living on the earth today are aware that the natural environment is becoming polluted day by day. Heeding the call of the environmental preservation team, a group of students from Kenyatta University set out to go and plant trees along Thika road bordering fence of the University compound. Their activity was lauded by the Dean of students, who thought this act reflected the commitment of the students to their environment.

- (2) Write a common noun to correspond with each Proper Noun given below.
- a. Mount Kilimanjaro

- b. The University of Nairobi
- c. Mrs. Ogutu
- d. Kenya
- e. Atlantic Ocean
- f. Ronaldo

(3) Add a noun-forming suffix to each of the words that follow.

- a. Heavy
- b. Innocent
- c. Humid
- d. Address

(4) Complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the most appropriate form of a noun.

- (a) Five----- sat on the -----
- (b) The -----who came here yesterday is my sister's husband.
- © This -----was expressed by the Vice Chancellor during the last graduation-----
- (d) We witnessed an ----- along-----
- (e) Sometimes seeing a photograph in a ----- sparks you to imagine a -----.

## 1.2.2 PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun, a group of nouns, or another pronoun.

Pronouns allow you to avoid unnecessary repetition of nouns when you speak or write. The pronoun when used, refers to a person, place, thing or idea already mentioned in the speech or writing. The noun to which a pronoun refers is called its **antecedent**.

E.g.,

When Grace Ogot was still a young girl, she decided to become a writer.

↓  
Antecedent

↓  
Pronoun

The English language has about 75 pronouns, which fall into the different types outlined below.

### 1.2.2.1 Types of Pronouns

There are five types of pronouns:

- (i) Personal (including reflexive and intensive pronouns, and the possessive)
- (ii) Possessive
- (iii) Indefinite
- (iv) Interrogative
- (v) Relative

(vi) Demonstrative

(i) **Personal Pronouns**

Personal pronouns refer to specific persons or things. The form of the personal pronoun indicates its person number and the sentence function as illustrated below.

|                      | SUBJECT              | OBJECT               | POSSESSIVE  |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---|
| <b>First Person</b>  | I, we                | me, us               | <u>my</u> , mine, <u>our</u> , ours                   |
| <b>Second person</b> | you                  | you                  | your yours  |
| <b>Third Person</b>  | he, she, it,<br>They | him, her, it<br>them | his, <u>her</u> , hers, <u>its</u> ,<br>their, theirs |

**The First Person** pronoun refers to the person speaking.

**The Second person** to the person spoken to, and,

**The Third person**, the person or thing spoken about.

Possessive pronouns show possession. Some possessive pronouns can function only as Determiners, for example, my, our, her (which is also object) your, their.

Personal pronouns occupy the some sentence positions as nouns, with one exception namely that, a pronoun never follows a determiner.

Also included in the category of personal pronouns are the **Reflexive** and **Intensive** pronouns, sometimes called compound pronouns. Reflexive pronouns are formed by adding **-self**. For example:

|          |            |
|----------|------------|
| Myself   | itself     |
| Yourself | ourselves  |
| Himself  | yourselves |
| Herself  | themselves |

Reflexive pronouns function in sentences only as objects. For example:

- The acrobat supported **himself**.

When the **-self** pronouns are used to emphasize or intensify the nouns they refer to, they are called **Intensive pronouns**. For example:

- Rita **herself** met us.
- Catalina **herself** saw the huge tree.
- I took the picture **myself**.

Thus an intensive pronoun emphasizes a noun or pronoun already named.

A reflexive pronoun refers to a noun or another pronoun and indicates that the same person or thing is involved.

## (ii) Indefinite Pronouns

These are the pronouns used to refer to an unspecified individual or group. They may have no expressed antecedents. For instance:

- Jacob seems to know *everyone* at school.

Or, they may have a clearly expressed antecedent in a previous clause. For example:

- When we served the bread, we discovered that *some* was stale.

Indefinite pronouns may be singular plural or both singular and plural in number. For example:

| SINGULAR             | PLURAL  | BOTH |
|----------------------|---------|------|
| Anybody, everybody   | both    | all  |
| Anyone, everyone     | few     | any  |
| Anything, everything | several | most |
| Each, either         | many    | some |
| Somebody, nobody     |         |      |
| Someone, no one      |         |      |
| Something, nothing   |         |      |
| Neither, none        |         |      |

## (iii) Interrogatives Pronouns

These are the pronouns used to form questions. They include the words:

Who      whom  
 What     which  
 Whose

These words are used as in the following examples, to introduce direct Wh - questions.

- Who are those strangers ?
- Whose pen did you borrow ?
- Which of these computers shall I buy?
- Whom shall I see there?
- What did you say?

Who      }  
 Whose    } Refer to people – i.e., have personal referents.  
 Whom     }

}

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| Which | Refer to people objects or ideas – i.e., can have personal and/or non- |
| What  | personal referents   |

#### (iv) **Relative Pronouns**

These are the pronouns which introduce adjective clauses. An adjective clause is a clause that modifies a noun in a sentence. For instance:

- 1. The film (that won numerous awards) came out in 1950.
- 2. I introduced the speaker (whom everybody was waiting for).
- 3. The writer to whom you referred is my brother.

The bracketed parts in sentence examples 1, 2 and 3 above are Adjective clauses describing the nouns *film*, *speaker* and *writer*, respectively. They may also be referred to as subordinate clauses since each one of them cannot stand alone on its own. They too, may be considered relative clauses as they are introduced by the relative pronouns *that* and *whom*

The relative pronouns introduce the adjective clauses and function is the clause as subject, as in example (1) above, or as an object as in examples (2 & 3) above.

Relative pronouns include:

|               |              |                 |
|---------------|--------------|-----------------|
| <b>Who</b>    | <b>Whom</b>  |                 |
| <b>Whose,</b> | <b>Which</b> | and <b>That</b> |

The antecedent of a relative pronoun is the noun that precedes it.

#### (v) **Demonstrative Pronouns**

These are the pronouns used to point out things or people or ideas. There are four demonstratives:

|       |       |
|-------|-------|
| This  | that  |
| These | those |

They show proximity, i.e., nearness or farness of the things they point out from the location of the speaker.

Demonstratives replace nouns and function in the same manner as nouns in a sentence. For example:

- **That** is John's book
- **This** is mine

Thus demonstratives can function on their own as constituents of the sentence as the examples above, or with a noun in the structure of a noun phrase as in the example below.

- I don't trust **that** dog



## ACTIVITY .2.

(1) In each of the following sentences (a) circle each noun and underline each pronoun.

- (a) Nakuru is an interesting town to visit because it sits right on the floor of the Great Rift Valley.
- (b) Whoever dropped those clothes on the floor should pick them up before someone steps on them.
- © Atieno's mother passed the oranges and urged us to have others.
- (d) Mr. Kamau's tree nursery has many different tree species but those featured in the catalogue are foreign and more beautiful.
- (e) After the visitors had read the menu, they handed it to the waiter and asked her to bring them roast beef and rice.

(2) Provide the most appropriate pronoun to fill in the gap in each of the following sentences.

- (a) In 1999 President Masaka appointed ----- secretary of commerce.
- (b) ----- was the first time a woman had occupied the position.
- © On the eve of ----- appointment to the Cabinet, Mrs. Njoka gave a speech in which ----- eloquently expressed -----.
- (d) ----- do you will be the next woman appointed to the Cabinet ?
- (e) Cabinet posts may be filled only by persons ----- are approved by the President.

(3) Replace each of the words or word groups in bold type with an appropriate pronoun.

- (a) **Mr. Kanana and Dr. Kisulu** are the ones who studied the student's proposal and deemed it acceptable to the board of postgraduate studies.
- (b) The **chair** at the corner of the room next to the window is my favorite chair.
- © If the headmaster's closure of the school led to his sucking, then he has only **the headmaster** to blame.
- (d) Ms. Nyambane asked the supervisors, "Are **the supervisors** available for consultation?"
- (e) After the students had made an appointment to see the Vice Chancellor, **the students** canceled **the appointment** without explanation.

### 1.2.3 VERBS

The verb is the part of speech that is essential to the formation of the sentence. Every sentence must contain at least one verb. Hence many grammarians and language users consider the verb to be the most important part of speech

A verb is a word that expresses mental or physical action, or state of being. In other words, the verb tells **what happens** or **what is**.

The verb is the part of speech that is very necessary if a statement is to be made. While the nouns and pronouns in sentences name people, places, ideas or things, the verbs tell what those people, places, ideas or things do or are. **Action verbs** tell about physical action, mental action, ownership or relationships. **Linking verbs** show existence of a state of being. The verbs are the ones that 'talk'. They tell us what the people or things did and what they are – their states being. To make a statement, a verb definitely requires the doer of the mental or physical action, or the entity whose state of being the verb expresses. For the expression of action there are two different categories of verbs:

If a verb requires a receiver of the action to complete its meaning the verb belongs to the **Transitive** verb category. If the action expressed by the verb does not require a receiver, the verb belongs to the **Intransitive** verb category. For example:

- Transitive - John **kicked** the ball; She **slapped** the man.
- Intransitive - Jesus **wept**; The baby **yawned**.

#### 1.2.3.1 Types of Verbs

As already mentioned in the definition, verbs may be classified in terms of what they do in a statement and which parts of speech they occur with. We may distinguish the following categories of verbs:

- i Action verbs
- ii Linking verbs
- iii Auxiliary verbs

##### (i) Action Verbs

These are the verbs that express:

- mental action
- physical action
- ownership
- relationship

as exemplified below

- |                                     |   |                 |
|-------------------------------------|---|-----------------|
| 1. He <b>built</b> a house          | - | Physical action |
| 2. He <b>realized</b> his mistakes  | - | Mental action   |
| 3. He <b>owns</b> a piece of land   | - | Ownership       |
| 4. She <b>resembles</b> her father. | - | Relationship    |

Other examples of action verbs include:

Those denoting physical action: bite, dig, grip, open, throw, shake, shout, walk, taste.

Those showing mental action: accept, frighten, recognize, understand, agree, admire.

Those showing ownership: have, possess, acquire, accommodate.

Those showing relation: befriend, look like, daughter, mother, love, hate, relate to.

### (ii) Linking Verbs

Linking verbs help to tell what something or someone is or is like or the state in which something or someone is. They help the subject noun / pronoun by connecting it to another noun or adjective. They join the noun / pronoun with a word / expression that identifies or describes it.

Forms of the Verb **Be** are the most frequently used linking verbs – these are:

|      |        |       |
|------|--------|-------|
| be,  | being, | been, |
| am,  | are,   | is,   |
| was, | were.  |       |

Other linking verbs include: **appear, grow, prove, turn, stay, seem, become, act, remain**. Also the verbs that refer to the senses, i.e., **smell, taste, feel, look, and sound**, belong to the Linking Verbs category.

Some verbs may be either active or linking, depending on the sentence. For instance:

- The steering wheel ***felt*** greasy. - Linking
- The driver ***felt*** hot air on her face - Active

If the Verb be: ***is*** or ***was***, can be substituted for a verb without changing the essential meaning of the sentence, then that verb is a linking verb.

### (iii) Auxiliary Verbs

The verb in a sentence may consist of more than one word. It may be a phrase containing :

- A main verb or lexical verb, and
- An auxiliary verb.

A main verb or a lexical verb is the word that expresses the action or state of being attributed to the noun/pronoun. If it is expressing action, then it is the verb that can have meaning on its own even when it is not part of a sentence. If it expressing the state of being, then it needs a Complement to complete the meaning being expressed – but it is still the main verb because it stands alone as the verbal element in the sentence.

The auxiliary verb is the word that occur with the main verb in the verb phrase for the purpose of helping the main verb to do the following.

- Form questions
- Carry tense
- Form aspect
- Form voice
- Show mood/modality

These uses are exemplified in the following examples:

|  |   |
|--|---|
| What <b>did</b> you swallow? -         | <b>Did</b> shows tense as well as helping to form a question. |
| I <b>am</b> teaching. -                | <b>Am</b> helps to form the progressive aspect                |
| The ball <b>was</b> kicked by my son - | <b>Was</b> helps to form the passive voice.                   |
| She <b>might</b> go today. -           | <b>Might</b> shows modality, i.e., possibility.               |

The most common auxiliary verbs are:

- |                        |   |
|------------------------|---|
| (a) The forms of Be:   | <b>am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.</b> |
| (b) The forms of have: | <b>have, has, had.</b>                          |
| ( c ) The forms of Do: | <b>do, does, did.</b>                           |
| (d) Modal auxiliaries: | exemplified and explained below                 |

**Modal Auxiliaries** are the words used to indicate the intermediate possibilities between the Yes and No states of affairs, that is, the probability, possibility, obligation, and other information about the verb. They include:

|       |       |        |
|-------|-------|--------|
| Can   | Might | Should |
| Could | Must  | Will   |
| May   | Shall | Would  |

### 1.2.3.2 Characteristics of Verbs

The primary characteristic of a verb is its ability to express time. Main verbs in English are capable of changing their forms to show:

|                              |                                       |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <b>Present time</b> , as in: | He <i>is painting</i> the wall.       |
| <b>Habitual time</b> :       | He <i>paints</i> the wall every week. |
| <b>All time</b> :            | The sun <i>rises</i> in the East.     |
| Past time:                   | He <i>ainted</i> the wall yesterday.  |

The verbs are also able to take auxiliaries which help them show Future time.  
 He *will paint* the wall next week.

Present tense verb forms are used to tell about present or repeated action or existence. Past tense verb forms are usually used to tell about action or existence in the past. Many past tense verb forms are made by adding **–ed** or **–d** to the present tense verb form. These are known as Regular verbs. Irregular verbs change in different ways to show the past tense, and others do not change. For example:

| <u>PRESENT FORM</u> | <u>PAST FORM</u> |
|---------------------|------------------|
| Begin               | Began            |
| Go                  | Went             |
| Buy                 | Bought           |
| Put                 | Put              |

The Verbs also change form and with the help of auxiliaries show **Aspect**. Aspect can be **Progressive**, i.e., action is going on, or **Perfective**, i.e., action completed or had gone on up to the end. Verbs, also, are capable of showing **Number**, i.e., whether the subject performing the action is in **singular** or **plural**. For example:

- The boy *goes* to school.
- That girl *sings* well.
- The boys *go* to school.
- Those girls *sing* well.

### ACTIVITY .3.

1. Complete each of the following sentences by supplying the most appropriate verb to fill each blank

- The eagle -----above the valley.
- It ----- very black against the blue sky.
- Realizing that the eagle was timing them, the chicks ----- in the tall grass.

- (d) The chicks ----- very safe in the tall grass as they were sure that however hard the eagle -----, it would not -----them.
- (e) Hence, the eagles mission ----- unaccomplished and it was sure to--- -----back.
2. Identify and write down the verb phrase occurring in each of the following sentences. Bracket the auxiliary verb in each case.
- (a) For along time The Roasters has been a favorite socializing place for many Nairobians.
- (b) People could flock to the places to be treated to traditional music as they feed on roast chicken and lamb.
- (c) That music can reflect the various cultural practices of the Nairobians' ancestors.
3. Write the verbs used in the following sentences. Next to each verb you write, write **A** if it is an Action Verb, **L** if it is a Linking Verb, and then, identify each action verb as **T** if it is Transitive or **I** if it is Intransitive.
- (a) The pupils of Makadara Primary School swim a lot.
- (b) Their swimming pool is clean and the water looks and feels fresh.
- (c) They argue that they need the many hours of swimming in order to exercise their minds and bodies.
- (d) Their craze for swimming is such that, at times the Head teacher has to pull them out of the water.
- (e) As a result of this, many of these pupils are slim and healthy looking.

### 1.2.4 ADJECTIVES

An adjective is a word that modifies or tells more about a noun or pronoun. It describes the noun / pronoun hence limiting its meaning, or making it more specific. Adjectives can modify nouns/pronouns in any of the following four ways:

1. **Describing:** answering the question “**what is it like?**” For instance:
  - It is a *rainy* afternoon
  - The box seems *heavy*
  - The floor has a *smooth* surface
2. **Classifying:** answering the question “**what kind is it?**” For instance:
  - *Female* teachers
  - *Government* policies
  - *Roast* potatoes
3. **Identifying:** answering question “**which one?**”
  - *This* book

- *Our* party
- *John's* car

**4. Quantifying:** answering the question “how much/many?”

- *an* apple
- *three* shillings
- *several* pounds
- *no* water

Adjectives that identify or quantify nouns or pronouns are called **Determiners**.

From the above ways in which Adjectives describe nouns we can identify three types of adjectives as follows:

### **1.2.4.1 Types of Adjectives**

Three different types may be identified, namely, Descriptive Classifying and Quantifying Adjectives.

#### **Descriptive Adjectives**

These specify objective qualities such size, appearance, smell, taste, texture, and colour. They also specify subjective qualities such as importance, value or virtue.

#### **Classifying Adjectives**

These specify type in terms of, for example, origin or species. Some classifying adjectives are also known as **Proper Adjectives** because they are mainly derived from proper nouns. They often specify time or place. For instance:

*Stone age* people,      *English* man  
*Kenyan* woman,      *Italian* shoes

#### **Quantifying Adjective**

These already mentioned above tell how many or how much about the nouns

Besides true adjectives other kinds of words may also function as adjectives. For instance, **Nouns as Adjectives:** a noun may be used to modify other nouns

For example, *paper clip*, *circus parade*, *stone home*,  
and *home owner*, as in the following sentence:

- The devastated *home owners* clung together in support of the new bill.

Expressions like these soon become compound nouns.

**Participles As Adjectives:** Participles, both present and past participles may function as adjectives, as in the following example.

- |                    |   |           |
|--------------------|---|-----------|
| - burning question | } | - present |
| - shared adventure |   | -past     |
| - boiled water     |   | -past     |

### Note

- Determiners, as indicated above, can also serve as adjectives. However along with nouns, they are not true adjectives.
- Words that are not true adjectives may not appear alone after a linking verb or intensifies like 'very'. For instance, you cannot have structures like:
  - \* The clip is very paper.
  - \* The house is very stone.

## 1.2.4.2 Characteristics of Adjectives

Most adjectives take forms that indicate three degrees of comparison.

- positive
- comparative
- superlative

These are exemplified below:

| <u>POSITIVE</u> | <u>COMPARATIVE</u> | <u>SUPERATIVE</u> |
|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| Slow            | slower             | slowest           |
| Healthy         | healthier          | healthiest        |

Certain adjectives are compared irregularly.

|           |                |                |
|-----------|----------------|----------------|
| Good      | better         | best           |
| Bad       | worse          | worst          |
| Strenuous | more strenuous | most strenuous |
| Little    | less           | least          |
| Much      | more           | most           |

Most adjectives occur before a noun or after a linking verb

- We watched two *sleepy* kittens.
- The woods are *thick* and *dark*.

Most adjectives may come before or after the noun they modify. When they occur before the noun they modify they, are referred to as **Attributive Adjectives**. When they occur after the noun they modify, they are referred to as **Predicative Adjectives**.



- The **green** door leads to the bedroom. - **Attributive**
- The door is **green**. - **Predicative**

The majority of adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively. However there are those that can only be used in one of the two ways. For instance:

**Attributively only:**

- A **mere** baby
- The **upper** case
- The **former** headmaster
- His **sole** argument

**Predicatively only:** Those beginning with **a**, such as

|        |         |
|--------|---------|
| Asleep | Awake   |
| Alive  | Afraid  |
| Alike  | Ashamed |
| Alone  | Aware   |

### 1.2.4.3 Order of Adjective

In principle there are no restrictions on the number of adjectives that may occur before the head. What is important, however, is that the order in which adjectives appear is not always free – it is to a large extent determined by the semantic classes of the adjective involved. The order is therefore according to the numbering below:

|                        |  |                         |
|------------------------|--|-------------------------|
| 1. Adjectives denoting | NATIONALITY  | Kenyan, English, Dutch. |
| 2. “                   | SUBSTANCE  | wooden, silk, woolen    |
| 3. “                   | COLOUR   | red, green, yellow      |
| 4. “                   | AGE  | old, young, mature      |
| 5. “                   | SHAPE  | round, square, oval     |
| 6. “                   | SIZE   | large, huge, tiny       |
| 7. Others              | (expensive, gay, fine, secret, brave, silent, presence absence, dirty, etc.) |                         |

The order is further exemplified in the table below:

| DET    | 7. OTHER  | 6. SIZE | 5. SHAPE    | 4. AGE | 3. COLOUR | 2. SUBSTANCE | 1. NATIONAL | HEAD    |
|--------|-----------|---------|-------------|--------|-----------|--------------|-------------|---------|
| An     | expensive | small   |             |        | red       | woolen       |             | sweater |
| John's | brave     |         |             | young  |           |              | Dutch       | hero    |
| Some   |           | big     |             | old    |           | wooden       |             | boxes   |
| His    |           | huge    |             | old    | black     |              | American    | car     |
| A      |           |         | rectangular |        |           | plastic      |             | tray    |

## ACTIVITY .4.

- (1). Complete the following sentences by replacing the blank with the kind of adjective named in the brackets next to the blank. You may want to review the types of adjectives explained above before you do the activity.
- There are ----- (QUALIFYING) basic kinds of stereo systems: the component and the compact.
  - In the component system each part can be bought separately and the sound is very ----- (DESCRIBING)
  - Most buyers prefer the component system because they can buy the best parts from ----- (CLASSIFYING) manufacturers.
  - Other people like the compact system because ----- (IDENTIFYING) system is easy to carry back to the stereo shop for repairs.
  - It is important, for a -----(DESCRIBING) buyer, therefore, to consider these alternatives thoroughly.

## 1.2.5 ADVERBS

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb by making its meaning more specific. Adverbs also modify entire clauses or sentences. They tell:

|       |   |                           |
|-------|---|---------------------------|
| When  | } | something was done or was |
| Where |   |                           |
| How   |   |                           |

|                    |   |                    |
|--------------------|---|--------------------|
| They may also tell | { | To what extent     |
|                    |   | How many times, or |
|                    |   | For what reason    |

They give specific information about: time, place, manner, amount, degree, and general circumstances under which something happens or some state of affairs is. For instance:

- The hockey team plays **well**.                      Modifies verb, **play**
- The stadium is **nearly** full.                      Modifies adjective, **full**
- She works **hard**.                      Modifies verb, **hard**
- Unfortunately**, it is raining now.                      Modifies the entire sentence.

### 1.2.5.1 Types of Adverbs

A number of types have been identified. These include:

- Adverbs of Time
- Adverbs of Place
- Adverbs of Manner

- Adverbs of Degree
- Conjunctive Adverbs
- Interrogative Adverbs

(i) **Adverbs of Time:** They tell when. Examples include: soon, later, now, then early. For example:

- Some species of wildlife will *soon* become extinct.

(ii) **Adverbs of Place:** They tell where. Examples include: here, there, above, down, in, out, around, nearby. For example:

- The duck waited nearby as the ducklings took their first swim

(iii) **Adverbs of Manner:** They tell how. Examples include: quickly, eagerly, angrily, well, carefully, and slowly as in.

- She eats *slowly*.

(iv) **Adverbs of Degree:** These are sometimes called **Intensifiers**. They tell how much or how little. An intensifier can modify an adjective or an adverb. Examples are:

|        |        |
|--------|--------|
| very   | rather |
| quite  | too    |
| fairly | less   |
| many   | more   |

See the example below.

- She plays netball *extremely* well.

(v) **Conjunctive Adverbs:** These are used to join independent clauses. They include: therefore, however, consequently, nevertheless, yet, thus, for example, in addition, on the other hand, also, and although as in the following example.

- *Although* I started the exam late, I completed answering all the questions on time.

(iv) **Interrogative Adverbs.** They introduce questions, as in:

- *When* is dinner?
- *Where* did he go?
- *How* are you?

### 1.2.5.2 Form and Position of Adverbs

The largest group of Adverbs are Manner adverbs. Most of these are formed by adding the suffix *-ly* to Adjectives and to Verb forms. Examples include:

|             |   |   |
|-------------|---|---|
| Brilliantly | } | formed by adding <b>-ly</b> to Adjectives |
| Expertly    |   |   |
| Calmly      |   |   |
| Happily     |   |   |
| Simply      |   |   |
| Amusingly   | } | formed by adding <b>-ly</b> to Verb forms |
| Annoyingly  |   |   |
| Creakingly  |   |   |
| Dreamingly  |   |   |
| Pleasingly  |   |   |

Like adjectives, many adverbs can be compared. Most one-syllable adverbs form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding the suffixes **-er** and **-est**.

For example:

|      |        |         |   |                  |
|------|--------|---------|---|------------------|
| Soon | sooner | soonest | } | Adverbs of time. |
| Late | later  | latest  |   |                  |

Adverbs ending in **-ly** usually form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding the words **more** and **most** or **less** and **least**. For example:

- Speedily      **more** speedily      **most** speedily
- Carefully      **less** carefully      **least** carefully

## POSITION

**Intensifier adverbs** always come directly before the adjectives or adverbs they modify.

For example:

- She moved **very** unsteadily because she was **so** nervous.

**Adverbs of place** usually follow the verbs they modify.

For example:

- Jeff looked **up** when the box fell **down**.

Other adverbs, particularly adverbs of **manner**, can shift positions in a sentence, as exemplified below.

**Cautiously** Yoko climbed over the wall.  
 Yoko **cautiously** climbed over the wall.  
 Yoko climbed **cautiously** over the wall.  
 Yoko climbed over the wall **cautiously**.

When an adverb of place and an adverb of time occur together, the adverb of place precedes the adverb of time. For example:

- Let us go *there now* and come *back later*.

#### SPECIAL FUNCTION

**Adverbs of place** can modify nouns, a function characteristic of Adjectives. For example.

- The football march at the *nearby* stadium was well attended.

**Nouns** can function as **Adverbs**, when they tell **when, where, how long, how much, how far**, and etc. For instance:

- Sue went *home*.                      **Home** tells **where**

#### ACTIVITY .5.

- (1) Indicate next to the number of each sentence in the following extract the adverb (s) it contains. Identify each adverb by type. Then write the nouns which serve as adverbs and identify the type of information they give by writing *when, how, how long* or *how far*.

(1) Jambi and Mela went to Uhuru Park last Sunday. (2) Since the day was quite warm and sunny, they hiked steadily all morning, enjoying the beautiful weather. (3) But suddenly, the wind begun to blow briskly and the sky grew menacingly dark. (4) Nervously, they realized that they were very far away from their car. (5) They quickly started to retrace their steps, however before they had one kilometer, it began to rain hard. (6) Thunder boomed loudly. Lightning flashed vividly across the sky. (8) Unable to do anything else, they continued walking quickly. (9) The storm lasted nearly one hour, and Jambi and Mela were outside the entire time. (10) When they eventually reached the car, they were extremely happy to be safe in spite of their wetness.

### 1.2.6 PREPOSITIONS

A preposition is a word that shows how a noun or a pronoun relates to another word or group of words in the sentence. Prepositions exist to help express space, time, and other relationships among words, such as: possession, position, direction, place. For example:

- The garage is *behind* the house.

**Behind** shows the spatial relationship of the house and the garage.

- The engine stopped *before* the fuel was added.

**Before** tells the time relationship between the stopping and the adding of fuel.

- The car started *with* ease.

Here *with* does not cover a spatial or time relationship, but does relate *started* and *ease*.

As with pronouns, there are only a limited number of prepositions in English. Here are some common ones.

|        |         |         |                      |            |          |
|--------|---------|---------|----------------------|------------|----------|
| Aboard | against | before  | over to              | down       | up       |
| About  | along   | behind  | beyond               | during     | upon     |
| Above  | among   | below   | but (meaning except) | except     | out      |
| Across | around  | beneath | by                   | for        | between  |
| After  | at      | besides | concerning           | following  | during   |
| In     | near    | onto    | regarding            | to         | with     |
| Inside | of      | outside | since                | toward     | within   |
| Into   | off     | over    | through              | under      | without  |
| Like   | on      | part    | throughout           | underneath | opposite |

A **compound** preposition is a preposition that is made up of more than one word. For example:

|              |                |               |
|--------------|----------------|---------------|
| According to | because of     | instead of    |
| Ahead of     | by means of    | next to       |
| Along with   | in addition to | on account of |
| Apart from   | in front of    | on top of     |
| Aside from   | in spite       | out of        |

A preposition normally occurs with a noun or a pronoun, called the **object of the preposition**. And it serves to relate its object to another element in the sentence.

The word preposition means “**placed before**” and generally prepositions comes before the noun or pronoun that ends a prepositional phrase.

Thus prepositions introduce prepositional phrases, as in the following examples.

Of the world  
 Near the house  
 On the coldest morning of the week  
 After that Sunday  
 In the water  
 Over the fence.

What follows the preposition in the prepositional phrase has the structure of an Noun Phrase. The noun phrase serves as the object of the preposition.

## ACTIVITY .6.

- (1) Use each of the following Prepositions in sentences of your own.  
 Remember a preposition must have an object.

For in on at by across near

From except into to of with down  
Over between up after about along off  
On top of without in place of toward

## 1.2.7 CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction is a word or a pair of words used to join other words, phrases, or clauses. Conjunctions are important because they clarify the relationship between parts of a sentence. English has four kinds of conjunctions.

- (i) Coordinating conjunctions
- (ii) Correlative conjunctions
- (iii) Subordinating conjunctions
- (iv) Conjunctive adverbs.

### (i) Coordination Conjunctions

These are conjunctions that join words or groups of words that have equal grammatical weight in a sentence. The coordinating conjunctions are:

- and
- but
- or
- nor
- for
- yet

All coordinating conjunctions except **for** can join words, phrases, or clauses. **For** joins only clauses and nothing else. For example:

- She buys **and** sells used car. Conjoined **words**
- He writes in French **but** not in English. Conjoined **phrases**
- Practice writing, **or** you will never improve. Conjoined **Clauses**
- She had no homework, **nor** did she have basketball practice. **Clauses**

### (ii) Correlative conjunctions

These make the relationship between words or groups of words a little clearer than the **coordinating** conjunctions. For instance:

- (1) **Coordinating** - You and I must go.
- (2) **Correlative** - Both you and I must go.

The relationship is clearer and stronger in 2. Other examples are:

You **or** I must go – **either** you **or** I must go.

We saw Paris **and** Rome - We saw **not only** Paris **but also** Rome.

### (iii) Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction joins two clauses, or ideas, in such a way as to make one grammatically dependent upon the other. The idea, or clause, that a subordinating conjunction introduces is said to be “**subordinate**” or “**dependent**” because it cannot stand by itself as complete sentence.

Following are examples of common subordinating conjunctions:

|          |               |          |
|----------|---------------|----------|
| Though   | if            | than     |
| Although | as if         | provided |
| When     | as long as    | whether  |
| Whenever | as though     | while    |
| Before   | because       | that     |
| After    | since         | how      |
| Till     | so that       | where    |
| Until    | in order that | wherever |
| Unless   | as much as    | whatever |
| As       | in as much as |          |

The following sentences are composed of more than one clauses joined by the subordinations ***because***, ***although*** and ***when***, respectively.

- Mr. Omondi called the students back to class ***because*** they were apologetic.
- ***Although*** I like taking tea, I do not enjoy taking it ***when*** the weather is too hot.

### (iv) Conjunctive Adverbs

A conjunctive adverb is used to clarify the relationship between clauses of equal weight in a sentence. Conjunctive adverbs are usually stronger and more precise than coordinating conjunctions.

They include:

Those used instead of **and**, such as, ***also***, ***besides***, ***furthermore***. These highlight the relationship of addition.

Those used instead of **but**, such as, ***however***, ***nevertheless***, ***still***, ***although***, and highlighting the relationship of contrast.

Those used to state **result** or **consequently**, such as, ***therefore***, ***so***, ***thus***, and those used to state **equality** or **comparison**, such as, ***equally***, ***likewise***, ***similarly***.

### ACTIVITY .7.

- (1) Fill in the blanks in the following sentences by the most appropriate conjunctive item as indicated in the bracket after each sentence.

- (a) The Nile River lies mostly in Sudan; ----- its source is in Uganda. (Conjunctive Adverb)



- (b) The lands irrigated by the Nile River are deserts, ----- they become quite productive after the irrigation. (Coordinating Conjunction)
- (c)
- (d)
- (e)
- (f) ----- Egypt ----- Sudan would survive agriculturally if the Ugandans were to block the waters of the Nile from flowing down stream. (Correlative Conjunction)
- (g) ----- You visit the Ugandan city of Jinja, you may be fortunate enough to see the source of the Nile River. (Subordinating conjunction)
- (h) The countries of Egypt, Sudan ----- Uganda must be proud of the Nile River. (Coordinating conjunction)

## 1.2.8 INTERJECTIONS

An interjection is word or phrase that expresses emotion or exclamation or feeling. An interjection has no grammatical connection to any other words of the rest of the sentence in which it occurs. An interjection can be part of a sentence or it can stand alone. If they are part of a sentence then they are simply thrown into the sentence. Infact, interject means “to throw between”.

When an interjection expresses a particularly strong emotion, it stands alone and is followed by an exclamation point. When it expresses a milder emotion, it may come at the beginning of a sentence or within a sentence. A mild interjection is set of by commas.

Examples:

- **Good grief!** This is the worst mess I’ve ever seen!
- **Well,** try calling again.
- The weather was perfect and **oh,** how we enjoyed it.
- **Oh no,** didn’t you know?
- **Ah,** your father knows the recipe.
- **Oops!** I slipped.
- **Why,** hurry!

Interjections are used more frequently in informal speech than in writing.

Other examples of interjection include:

|       |        |
|-------|--------|
| Gosh! | Ouch!  |
| Gee ! | Ugh!   |
| Whew! | Never! |

|           |            |
|-----------|------------|
| Wow!      | Pats!      |
| Oh no!    | Fantastic! |
| Hey!      | Wonderful! |
| My!       | Say!       |
| Goodness! | Boo!       |
| Amazing!  | Blast!     |
| Gracious! | Alas!      |

When another part of speech serves as an interjection, the word does not carry its original meaning. For instance, the following words may be used as interjections with no connection whatsoever with the original meanings.

|                |             |               |               |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|
| <b>Heavens</b> | (noun)      | <b>Really</b> | (adverb)      |
| <b>Help</b>    | (verb)      | <b>So</b>     | (conjunction) |
| <b>Great</b>   | (Adjective) | <b>My</b>     | (pronoun)     |

The feelings that are normally expressed by interjections are:

- |            |              |
|------------|--------------|
| 1. disgust | 4. surprise  |
| 2. joy     | 5. disbelief |
| 3. sorrow  | 6. interest  |

## 1.2.9 BROAD CLASSES OF WORDS

The words of English that we have seen categorized in the above classes can be divided into two broad classes namely.

The open class

The closed class.

**OPEN:** An open class is one whose membership is in principle indefinite or unlimited.

It is in this class where new words easily find their way into a language.

**CLOSED:** A closed class is one whose membership is fixed or limited. No new words are expected to come into the language in this class.

The **Open class** members are:

- nouns
- verbs
- adjectives
- adverbs
- interjections

The **Closed class** members are:

- prepositions
- pronouns
- conjunctions

No new prepositions, pronouns or conjunctions are expected into the English language in the near future.

### ACTIVITY .8.

- (1) Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with the most appropriate Interjection from the list in the bracket: (wow, sh, good luck, help, hi)

- (a)----- The show is about to begin.  
(b)-----The sink is overflowing.  
(c)-----I hope to see you at the finish line.  
(d)----- We just moved into the house upstairs.  
(e)----- How did you manage to win the race?

- (2) Group each of the words occurring in the following extract into the OPEN class and the CLOSED class.

“ When Hildah Anyango was asked if she could contribute to the writing of a story, she quickly sent in a narrative about a certain happening which she considered the most unpleasant happening of her life.”

### SUMMARY



In this lesson we have learned that the English Language words can be classified according to word classes or parts of speech namely: Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections. Each part of speech is further divided into sub-classes. Each member of a class can be described in terms of its form and function in the sentences structure.

## LESSON 2

# WORD STRUCTURE

## 2.0 Introduction

**W**ord structure is in the domain of MORPHOLOGY which is the study of the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed. In morphology the units of study are the word - which is the largest unit of morphological analysis; and the morpheme – which is the basic unit that combines with other morphemes to form words. In order to understand the words of a language one needs to know not only the categories into which words may be classified but also how the words are formed. The English language words, like words of any other language have a clearly definable structural organization the basics of which we talk about in this lesson.

## 2.1 Objectives



By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- State the different types of morphemes found in different word classes and explain the function of each type of morpheme in the structure of the word.
- Identify morphemes and explaining how the morphemes combine to form words.
- Analyze any of the words they encounter into the different morpheme components of the word.
- Explain the different grammatical roles of morphemes
- Form new words from existing bases by the use of Affixation.

## 2.2 Morphemes

Morphemes may be defined as the minimal units of meaning. It is the minimal unit of meaning which is also the minimal unit of grammatical analysis. Fromkin and Rodman (1988: 128) define the morpheme as: “The minimal linguistic sign, a grammatical unit that is an arbitrary union of a sound and meaning and that cannot be further analyzed.” A single word may be composed of one or more morphemes. For instance:

Boy - one morpheme - *boy*  
 Boys - two morphemes - *boy* + *s*  
 Boyishness - three morphemes - *boy* + *ish* + *ness*

The morphemes combine to form words – which are units of Semantic analysis. Whereas Semantics studies meaning at the level of words, Morphology identifies meaning at a lower level than the word – namely: the morpheme and looks into the ways in which different kinds of morphemes combine to form different categories of words. Also, morphology studies how different types of morphemes are added to other morphemes to show the grammatical roles of the words in sentences.

In this unit (AEN 101) we will not go deeper into morphological analysis we will limit our study to a brief mention of the types of morphemes and how they are useful in the expression of the morphological categories of:

|             |          |                           |
|-------------|----------|---------------------------|
| - Number    | - Person | } in the English language |
| - Gender    | - Tense  |                           |
| - Mood, and | - Aspect |                           |

## 2.2.1 Types of Morphemes

In terms of form, some morphemes (e.g., **boy**) may constitute words by themselves. Other morphemes occur only as parts of words. The latter are **affixes** which may be:

Prefixed, that is, attached to the beginning of the root morpheme. E.g., *Unsafe*  
 Infixes “ inserted into the middle of the root morpheme. E.g., (\*)  
 Suffixed “ attached to the end of the root morpheme or the base. E.g., *Safely*

(\* = there are no clear examples of **in fixation** in the English language.)

The morphemes that can occur alone by themselves, and have meaning, are called **Free morphemes**. The affixes, i.e., those morphemes that have to be attached to other morphemes in order to make sense are called **Bound morphemes** because they cannot occur unattached. Examples include:

| <u>FREE</u> | <u>BOUND</u> |
|-------------|--------------|
| Boy         | -s           |
| Cook        | -ing         |
| Farm        | -er          |
| Happy       | -ly          |
| Use         | - ful        |
| Correct     | in-          |
| Kind        | un-          |
| Approve     | dis-         |

Morphologically two, types of Morphemes may be identified,

- (i) Derivational Morphemes
- (ii) Inflectional Morphemes

### (i) Derivational Morphemes

These are the morphemes that are relevant to the formation of new words in English.

They do this by:

- (a) Adding specific meaning to existing words.
- (b) Adding meaning which changes a word from one word class to another.

The derivational morphemes that add specific meaning to existing words are mainly prefixes. The prefix is added to the beginning of a base word to change its meaning. There are various meanings involved as can be seen in the following examples of prefixes that express various meanings:

#### MEANING

#### PREFFIX

##### NEGATION:

|                       |                                      |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <b>Anti</b> (against) | <i>anti</i> establishment,           |
| <b>De</b> (opposite)  | <i>deflate</i>                       |
| <b>Dis</b> (not)      | <i>dissatisfied</i>                  |
| <b>In, im</b> (not)   | <i>in</i> secure, <i>im</i> possible |
| <b>Non</b> (not)      | <i>non</i> stop                      |
| <b>Un</b> (not)       | <i>un</i> important                  |

##### TIME:

|                      |                    |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Ante</b> (before) | <i>ante</i> natal  |
| <b>Post</b> (after)  | <i>post</i> script |
| <b>Pre</b> (before)  | <i>pre</i> heat    |
| <b>Re</b> (again)    | <i>re</i> consider |

##### NUMBER / DEGREE:

|                       |                        |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| <b>Bi</b> (two)       | <i>bicycle</i>         |
| <b>Hyper</b> (over)   | <i>hyper</i> sensitive |
| <b>Semi</b> (half)    | <i>semi</i> sweet      |
| <b>Super</b> (over)   | <i>super</i> star      |
| <b>Tri</b> (three)    | <i>tri</i> angle       |
| <b>Under</b> (below)  | <i>under</i> estimate  |
| <b>Sub</b> (division) | <i>sub</i> committee   |

##### PLACE / DIRECTION:

|                        |                       |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Ad</b> (add to)     | <i>ad</i> mit         |
| <b>Circum</b> (around) | <i>circum</i> ference |
| <b>E, ex</b> (out)     | <i>ex</i> communicate |
| <b>Inter</b> (between) | <i>inter</i> rupt     |
| <b>In</b> (in)         | <i>in</i> spect       |
| <b>Pro</b> (forward)   | <i>pro</i> ceed       |

**Trans** (across)      *transfer*

The derivational morphemes that add meaning by changing a word from one word class to another are mainly suffixes. They are known as **Derivational suffixes**. And they add meaning to a base by changing its word class and hence sentence function.

The following are derivational suffixes forming Nouns, Verbs and Adjectives.

#### NOUN-FORMING:

The Noun forming suffixes may have the meaning: **one who** or **that which, does** or is **connected with**. For instance:

- **An, ian**      beautician
- **Ant, ent**      assistant, occupant
- **Ary**      missionary
- **Er**      teacher
- **Ist**      soloist
- **Or**      actor

They may have the meaning: **state, quality** or **condition of**. Examples include:

- **age**      bondage,      drainage
- **ance**      attendance
- **ation, ion, tion**      civilization
- **cy, acy**      bankruptcy
- **ence**      excellence
- **ism**      patriotism
- **ity, ty**      activity
- **ment**      enjoyment
- **ness**      goodness
- **ure**      pleasure

#### VERB – FORMING:

The Verb-forming suffixes mean **to make, do, or cause**. Examples include:

- **Ate**      activate,
- **En**      weaken
- **Fy**      purify
- **Ise, ize**      unionize

#### ADJECTIVE - FORMING:

These communicate different meanings. For instance:

|                |             |                      |
|----------------|-------------|----------------------|
| Full of        | <b>ful</b>  | hopeful,      useful |
| “              | <b>ous</b>  | furious              |
| Capable of     | <b>able</b> | breakable            |
|                | <b>ible</b> | convertible          |
| Doing, showing | <b>ant</b>  | defiant              |

|                      |             |                   |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| “                    | <b>ent</b>  | emerg <b>ent</b>  |
| Made of, like        | <b>en</b>   | wool <b>en</b>    |
| Characteristic of    | <b>ic</b>   | histor <b>ic</b>  |
| Lending to, given to | <b>ive</b>  | expens <b>ive</b> |
| Lacking, without     | <b>less</b> | joy <b>less</b>   |
| Similar, like        | <b>like</b> | dog <b>like</b>   |
| “                    | <b>ly</b>   | friend <b>ly</b>  |
| Like, showing        | <b>y</b>    | dirty             |

#### ADVERB – FORMING:

The most common Adverb-forming suffix is **-ly**

Which generally means “**in that manner**” or “**like that**”. Examples include:

Quickly,      Beautiful**ly**  
 Carefully,    Hasti**ly**,  
 Funni**ly**,      Slow**ly**,  
 Consistent**ly**.

Other derivational morphemes are simply free morphemes which join together to form compound words, for example,

**Ice cream,      Bedroom,**  
**Book shelf,    Railway.**

#### (ii) Inflectional Morphemes

These are morphemes that are relevant to the grammatical categories of the words in English. They add grammatical meanings which are also known as morphological categories of:

**Number** -      Singular, Plural  
**Person** -      First, Second and Third  
**Tense** -        Present, Past  
**Aspect** -      Progressive, Completed  
**Possession** - Ownership  
**Comparison**- Comparative, Superlative

**Grammatical** meaning because they show additional meaning and how that meaning functions, occurs and co-occurs in the sentence.

**Morphological** category in that morphemes are involved which change forms and meanings of words. For instance:

- Nouns change form to show: Number: boy – boys; Possession John – John’s.
- Verbs change to show number agreement: The boys sing; That boy sings; Person: I go, he goes and so on as elaborated here below.
- Adjective change to form comparison.



In English the inflectional morphemes that show morphological categories are only suffixes and they show the categories of:

- Number
- Person
- Possession
- Tense
- Aspect
- Comparative

#### NUMBER:

In English a morpheme **-s** may be suffixed to:

Nouns, e.g., **boy** + s = boys to show number - i.e., the plural form of the noun.

Also it may be added to a Verb, e.g., **sails** as in:

- The boy **sails**.

This is to show number agreement, that is, that the subject noun that is occurring with the verb **sail** is in its singular form.

#### PERSON:

A morpheme **-s** may also be used as the marker of **person**, i.e., to show that the noun occurring with the verb to which the **-s** is suffixed is a third person singular noun.

For instance:

|                 |   |                                  |
|-----------------|---|----------------------------------|
| Mary /she sails | - | 3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular  |
| The girls sail  | - | 3 <sup>rd</sup> person plural    |
| You sail        | - | 2 <sup>nd</sup> person singular. |

Thus the morpheme **-s** is added to a verb to show number and person agreement between the subject and the verb of the sentence.

#### POSSESSION:

The suffix **-s** is added to show possession as in John's book is lost.

#### TENSE:

In English the Inflectional suffixes **-ed** and **-d** show the past tense of verbs. For instance:

|        |   |    |   |                   |
|--------|---|----|---|-------------------|
| Walk   | + | ed | = | walk <b>ed</b> .  |
| Change | + | d  | = | chang <b>ed</b> . |

The Inflectional suffix **-s** is added to verbs to show present tense, as in:

He walks.

#### ASPECT:

Aspect is shown in English by the Inflectional suffix **-ing**, which shows Progressive Aspect, or action in progress, as in:

- I am *eating*.

The suffixes **-en / -n**, and **-ed** show the Perfective Aspect - action in completion. as in:

- I have eaten*n*.
- She was shaken*n*.
- I had walked*ed*.

#### COMPARATIVE:

The Inflectional suffixes **-er** and **-est** are added to the regular Adjectives to form the comparative and the superlative comparisons respectively. For instance:

Short                  shorter                  shortest

These suffixes may also be added to adverbs, as in:

Work hard                  work harder                  work hardest

Thus words which belong to the class of Verbs generally take the inflectional morphemes.

- |       |   |                              |
|-------|---|------------------------------|
| - s   | } | for number                   |
| - ing |   | for number, aspect and tense |
| - ed  |   | marking.                     |

Typical inflectional endings for Nouns are **-s**, for plural, and **-‘s** for possession, whereas Adjectives, and at times, Adverbs take the comparison morphemes, **-er** and **-est**.

### ACTIVITY .9.

- (1) Identify and list indicating the words in which they occur all the Inflectional and Derivational Affixes used in the following extract.

Hurriedly I walked down the path to the teacher’s house. My father had instructed me to make sure I reach there earlier than eight so that the lesson could begin on time. Although I felt uneasy about the demand that I learn such an impossible language in just one month, I knew that the demand was justifiable. At the end of my first English lesson, I was delighted to have learned many words including: capable uneducated, hopeful, happiness, trainee, perfection, and, expressive.

- (2) Divide each of the following word into its constituent affixes and free morpheme.
- (a) Telephotographic. (d) Unbelievable
  - (b) Mismanagement. (e) Impure
  - (c) Historically.

## SUMMARY



In this lesson we have learned that the words of the English language are made of building blocks known as Morphemes or Affixes. The morphemes are the smallest units of meaning. They combine together to form words.

Some of the morphemes can stand by themselves and have lexical meaning. Others have to be attached to other morphemes in order for them to be meaningful.

The morphemes are categorized into Inflectional Morphemes – those that add grammatical meaning- and, Derivation Morphemes those that form new words or change meaning of a word.

## LESSON 3

### THE PHRASE

#### 3.0 Introduction

We have already learned about the words of English the part of speech to which they belong and the smaller units that combine to form the words. Words also combine to form larger units known as phrases. A phrase is a group of words that act in a sentence as a single part or element of the sentence. In this lesson you will learn about the different types of phrases in the English language how they are formed, and how a speaker uses them in the structure of the sentence or clause to communicate a complete thought.

#### 3.1 Objectives

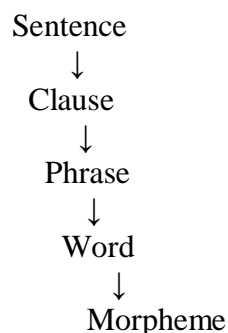


By the end of this lesson you should be able to:

- Distinguish the different categories of phrases that occur in a clause or sentence.
- Identify and categorize any phrases that you encounter in a clause or sentence
- Explains the functions of clauses in the sentence
- Describe the different words that combine to form the phrases.

#### 3.2 What is a Phrase?

A phrase is a group of words that function in a sentence as a single constituent of the sentence. It is a unit of grammar or syntactic (syntax is the study of the sentence structure) analysis that falls above the word but below the clause in the following rank-scale of the units of grammar.



The phrase, together with the clause, are the major units of syntactic description. Syntactic description concerns the study and analysis of rules of sentence formation, or how words combine to form sentences.

The Phrase is a unit that can be identified on the basis of the word class membership of at least one of its constituent words. The following five classes of phrases can be distinguished.

- (i) **Noun Phrase:** A phrase which has a Noun as head - the most important constituent.
- (ii) **Adjective Phrase:** A phrase which has Adjective as head.
- (iii) **Adverb Phrase:** A phrase which has an Adverb as head.
- (iv) **Verb Phrase:** A phrase that is made up of only Verbal elements.
- (v) **Prepositional Phrase:** A phrase that has a Preposition introducing it.

We have said that a phrase is identified on the basis of the class of its most important constituent such that a noun phrase, for example, is a phrase whose head – most important constituent - is a noun. But how do we determine the most important constituent? The most important constituent of:

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| A Noun Phrase<br>An Adjective Phrase<br>Adverb Phrase | } | is the constituent that can replace the whole phrase without affecting the structure of the sentence. |
|---|---|---|

For example:

| <u>FULL PHRASE</u>  | <u>REPLACED BY</u>          | <u>TYPE OF PHRASE</u> |
|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. We like <u>classical music</u> .                         | We like <u>music</u> .      | Noun Phrase           |
| 2. Martin is <u>very worried about his studies</u> .        | Martin is <u>worried</u> .  | Adjective phrase      |
| 3. It was <u>so cold that my fingers got frozen</u> .       | It was <u>cold</u> .        | Adjective phrase      |
| 4. She drives <u>much more carefully than her husband</u> . | She drives <u>carefully</u> | Adverb phrase         |
| 5. He spoke <u>too hesitantly to be convincing</u> .        | He spoke <u>hesitantly</u>  | Adverb phrase         |

The most important /dominant element of the phrase, that gives the phrase its name, is referred to as the Head of the phrase.

Unlike in the phrases above, the most important element for the **Verb Phrase** is not determined by word membership, but by Semantic considerations, that is, the meaning expressed, and not the syntactic structure. Actually the dominant member of the verb phrase cannot replace the whole phrase without causing serious harm to the syntactic structure. For instance, you cannot replace:

*Has been examined*, the verb phrase of

***Jill has been examined by the Doctor.***

by *examined*. You cannot have:

**\*Jill examined by the doctor.**

So to determine the dominant member of the verb phrase you look at the meaning expressed by the verbs and ask: are they serving as main verbs or as helping verbs? The verb serving as the main verb is the dominant member.

As for the **Prepositional Phrase**, the element that gives the phrase its name is not the head but the item that introduces/begins the phrase.

### 3.2.1 The Noun Phrase

Apart from having a noun its head, the Noun Phrase (NP) is characterized as follows.

(a) Usually, it has a determiner introducing it. For instance:

- ***The*** book that I need
- ***My*** best friend
- ***A*** well designed house

(b) Has modifiers describing its head. Apart from the determiner and the head of the Noun Phrase all the other constituents of the NP function as modifiers, which describe or qualify the NP in different ways.

What is the difference between Determiners and Modifiers as constituents of the Noun Phrase?

- (i) Determiners are specifiers of the noun, which must occur before the head of the NP.

While

The modifiers can occur both before and after the head.

For instance: The ***red*** house is mine

The house ***which is red*** is mine

The **brown** lady *at the back*.

- (ii) The modifiers may be realized more than once in an NP.  
The determiner occurs only once. In other words, there may be more than one modifier occurring with a noun. But the determiner must be one, as in the examples below.

That *huge rugged* rock *at the top of the mountain*.

\**His* *a* car

- (iii) The modifiers can be easily omitted.  
The determiner is most of the times obligatory.

A noun phrase may consist of one word, two words or several.

**Oranges** provide vitamins  
*The oranges* provide vitamins.  
*All the oranges* provide vitamins.  
*All the big oranges* provide vitamins.  
*All the big oranges from the market* provide vitamins.

There are several kinds of “noun like” words that can function as the head of a Noun Phrase. The chief category is the Pronoun, as in the following example.

- *The three cats* are eating - Noun Phrase  
*They* are eating - Pronoun

The pronoun in this example does not refer only to the plural noun ‘**cats**’ but to the entire NP “The three cats”.

A few kinds of adjectives may also function as heads of the noun phrase.  
For instance:

- The *Acholis* are more numerous than the *Lango*.
- The *rich*, the *poor* and the *lonely* were present at the polling station.
- The *bold* and the *beautiful* were all acting in that play.

In these cases the adjectives are considered nouns because they perform the role of Noun Phrases in the structure of the clause.

### 3.2.1.1 Functions of Noun Phrases

In the clause, Noun Phrases function as:

|            |   |                                   |
|------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Subject    | = | <i>The house</i> was quite empty. |
| Object     | = | We bought <i>the house</i>        |
| Complement | = | She is <i>a teacher</i> .         |

In other structures, NPs may function as:

|                               |   |                                      |
|-------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| Object of Preposition         | = | She is in <i>the house</i> .         |
| Adverb modifying an Adjective | = | It is <i>a yard</i> long.            |
| Adverb of time                | = | He went away <i>many years ago</i> . |

### 3.2.2 The Adjective Phrase

The Adjective phrase has an Adjective as its head and it performs the following functions:

- Modifier of the Noun Phrase wherever it occurs in the sentence, as in the example below where the NP is underlined.

I am reading an *extremely* interesting book.

- Complement in the clause, as exemplified below.
  - You should be *very patient with that child*.
  - This water is *quite hot*.

### 3.2.3 The Adverb Phrase

The Adverb phrase has an adverb as its head. It functions in the clause as an Adverbial - an element that provides additional information about manner, frequency, time, place and others, as shown in the following examples where the Adverb phrases are in italics..

- He reads *very fast*. - **MANNER**
- He reads novels *in the Library*. - **PLACE**
- He reads novels *at night* in the Library - **TIME**
- *Quite unfortunately*, he reads novels in the Library at night. - **ATTITUDE**
- He visits *quite often*. - **FREQUENCY**

### 3.2.4 The Verb Phrase

The verb phrase is the unit that acts as the verb or predicator in the clause. In terms of structure, the verb phrase consists of all the verbal elements occurring in the clause.

Every verb phrase has:

- (i) A dominant member - the **Main verb**  
and
- (ii) A helping member - the **Auxiliary verb**

The main verb is usually a lexical verb and is always the last constituent of the phrase. A lexical verb is the verb that has semantic meaning and can convey meaning on its own.



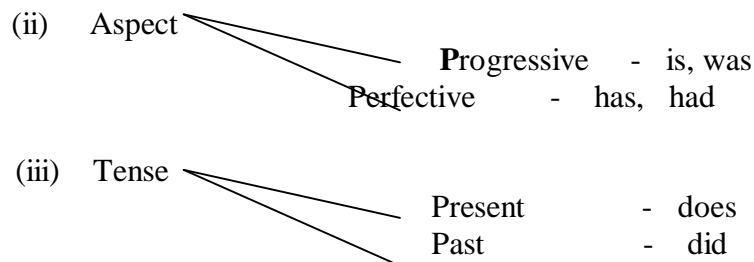
The Auxiliary verbs that occur with the main verb may help the main verb in carrying the information about the following:

- (i) **Mood / modality:** This is information in the middle part of polarity, i.e.,  
 Between the positive and the negative

Yes                      ←————→ No

Examples of middle information include possibility / *can*, probability / *may* / *might* and obligation / *must* ). For example,

- She *might* kick the ball.



Following are examples of the use of Auxiliaries in the Verb Phrase as listed above:

- She *can* **clean** the house - Modality
- She *is* **cleaning** the house - Progressive Aspect
- How *did* she **clean** the house - Past Tense
- She *has* **cleaned** the house - Perfect Aspect.
- She *does* **clean** the house - Present Tense

The Verb Phrase could have as many as verbal elements, as exemplified below.

|    |                         |       |
|----|-------------------------|-------|
| He | sleeps                  | ONE   |
| He | is sleeping             | TWO   |
| He | has been sleeping       | THREE |
| He | must have been sleeping | FOUR  |

### 3.2.5 The Prepositional Phrase

These are the phrases that are introduced by prepositions. They function in the clause as Adverbials. (See Adverbial functions above.) Consider the following examples of PPs

By four O'clock, we had arrived at the market.

PP                      Clause                      PP

On the sea bed lies coral reef.

PP                      Clause

The structure of the Prepositional Phrase is = P + NP (Preposition + Noun Phrase)

which means that the a proposition is always followed by a noun phrase as in these examples:

|                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>in the house;</i>        | <i>after the year 2000;</i> |
| <i>along the path;</i>      | <i>of the skies,</i>        |
| <i>over the mountains,</i>  | <i>out of the way;</i>      |
| <i>at the university,</i>   | <i>off the roof</i>         |
| <i>away from home; etc.</i> |                             |

**ACTIVITY .10.**

- (I) Expand each of the following sentences by adding at least one adjective Phrase, and one Adverb Phrase to each.

- (a) The thunder was frightening the children.
- (b) No one had started clearing the land yet the rains were coming.
- (c) The horse galloped.
- (d) The workers piled up the stones.
- (e) It was interesting to watch Miss Tourism dancing.

- (2) Identify and list all the Prepositional Phrases and the Verb Phrases occurring in the following two sentences. Explain the relationship between Prepositional phrase and Noun Phrase.

- (a) The most demanding job of my life was managing the president's farm at Kabarchonjo, where he has been growing maize.
- (b) The very punctual member of the class must have been studying in the Senior boy's Classroom when the arsonist was setting the fire on at five o'clock in the morning.

## SUMMARY



In this lesson we have learned that words group together to form phrases, which in turn combine to form clauses/sentences.

Each of the five sub-categories of phrases are identified and described in terms of the word class of the word that constitutes its head/most dominant word.

Phrases play different roles in the structure of the sentence:

- The NP serves in the Subject and Object position of the clause, and also, as Object of Preposition
- The Adjective Phrase serves as modifier in the structure of the Noun Phrase at the Object or Complement of the clause
- The Adverbial Phrase modifies all the other phrases, and
- The Prepositional Phrase serves as an Adverbial in the clause structure.

## LESSON 4

### THE SENTENCE

#### 4.0 Introduction

In each of the previous lessons we have been talking about items found in the sentence, namely, the words and phrases. When you understand the words and the phrases you are ready to start thinking of how you can use them to build the sentence. The words and phrases are the building blocks that are strung together in a linear order to create sentences. The sentence is the largest unit of grammatical analysis. Words combine to form phrases and phrases combine to form clauses, which are the shortest and simplest forms of sentences. In this lesson you will learn about the sentence; what it is, its form and structure, its creation and how you can subordinate and coordinate sentential structures to build longer sentences.

#### 4.1 Objectives



By the end of this lesson you should be able:

- Identify and state the sentence parts and the patterns in which they occur.
- Analyse sentences using the five elements of the sentence to label the sentence structure.
- Combine clauses into longer sentences or break down a long sentence into its different clause types.

#### 4.2 Basic Sentence Structure

Before talking about the basic sentence structure we need to know what a sentence is. A sentence is a statement of complete thought. It is formed by a number of words/ phrases that combine together in a rule governed and systematic manner to express the complete thought. The latter is also known as a proposition.

Sentence structure has to do with the sentence parts and how they combine to form sentences.

In English every sentence has two main parts:

- (i) The Subject (S)
- (ii) The Predicate (Pred)

Together these parts form a grammatically independent structure that expresses a complete thought, namely, the Clause or Sentence.

#### 4.2.1 The Subject and The Predicate

**SUBJECT:** The subject of a sentence tells who or what the sentence is about. The principal word in the subject is a noun or a noun substitute. Determiners and modifiers specifying and describing the noun may also be part of the subject.

**PREDICATE:** The predicate of a sentence explains what the subject does or is. The principal word in the predicate is the verb. The verb may appear alone or with various auxiliaries, modifiers, and complements. The type of verb – Transitive, Intransitive or Linking – determines what elements the predicate will contain.

Transitive Verbs need something – an object - to follow it in order to make sense  
For example:

- The boy **kicked** the ball.
- The mother **held** the baby.

Transitive verbs **kicked** and **held** need direct objects - entities that are directly affected by the actions denoted by the verbs.

Intransitive Verbs do not need Objects. For example:

- The two girls **laughed**.

**Laughed** is an Intransitive verb that does not need to be followed by an object, but it could be followed by a modifier, as in the example below.

- The two girls were **laughing** loudly.

**Loudly** is the modifier that came after the Intransitive verb **laughing**.

The Linking verb connects the Subject of the sentence to the complement that expresses a characteristic of the Subject. For example:

- The team members **seem** enthusiastic

**Seem** is the linking verb that connects and subject to the complement

**WORD ORDER:** The word order in a sentence is regular if the subject precedes the predicate, that is, if the subject comes before the verb, in a declarative sentence.

For example:

- [A bowl full of hot porridge] [sat on the kitchen table.]  
S P

Generally, the subject is not expressed in sentences that give a command or make a request. In such cases the subject is understood to be **You** as in:

- (You) sit down and don't say a word.
- (You) check the oil and light the lamp.

Such a subject is known as the UNDERSTOOD SUBJECT.

### Structures Preceding the Subject

The subject may be preceded by an adverb or by a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverb. These structures are part of the predicate if they modify a word or a word group in the predicate. However, they are not part of either the subject or the predicate if they modify the entire sentence, for instance:

- *In 1963*, they signed the declaration of independence.

Here the pre-subject element, **in 1963** is a Prepositional phrase modifying the verb signed.

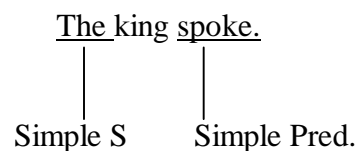
- *Luckily*, no one got hurt.

Here the Adverb, **luckily**, is modifying the entire sentence.

### Simple Subject/Predicate and Compound Subject/Predicate

The simple subject is the principal noun or pronoun that tells what the sentence is about. The simple predicate is the verb or verb phrase that tells something about the subject.

For example:



In most sentences the meaning of the simple subject and the simple predicate is expanded or modified by additional words and phrases to form the complete subject and the complete predicate. For instance,

- The King [of England] spoke [openly about the mismanagement of funds in Kenya]

In this example, all the items in the square brackets are additional words making complete the subject and the predicate respectively.

The Complete subject consists of the simple subject and all the words that modify it.  
 The Complete Predicate consists of the simple predicate and all the words that modify it or complete its meaning.

Also existing in the structure of the clause is the Compound Subject and the Compound Predicate. A compound subject is made up of two or more simple subjects or complete subjects that are joined by a conjunction and that have the same verb. For example:

- *Eagles* and *owls* hunt for food.

A compound predicate is made up of two or more verbs or verb phrases that are joined by a conjunction and that have the same subject. For example:

- We have *lost* or at least *misplaced* the map.
- Sande *will buy* a stamp, *mail* the letter, and *hurry* home.

#### 4.2.2 Elements of The Basic Sentence Structure

When analyzing the sentence structure it is not adequate to use the Subject and Predicate categories. Rather, you use the **constituent parts** of the sentence which are commonly known as the ELEMENTS of the sentence since they are more objectively definable.

#### CONSTITUENT PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

These are the principal elements that form the sentence / clause. They are the ones which occur in the subject / predicate parts of the sentence discussed above.

The principal elements of the sentence may also be referred to as the structural parts, or the constituents of the sentence. They form the basic sentence structure.

There are five principal elements of the sentence / clause, namely:

|       |              |                |          |
|-------|--------------|----------------|----------|
| (i)   | The VERB     | abbreviated as | <b>V</b> |
| (ii)  | The SUB JECT | “              | <b>S</b> |
| (iii) | The OBJECT   | “              | <b>O</b> |
| (iv)  | COMPLEMENT   | “              | <b>C</b> |
| (v)   | ADVERBIAL    | “              | <b>A</b> |

The minimal sentence/clause has two of the elements: Subject (S) and Verb (V).  
 For example:

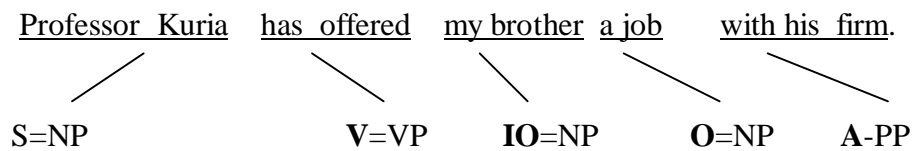
- The baby cried.  
           S                  V

But a sentence can have any of or all of the other elements as long as it has a subject and a verb and the rules of sentences formation are in application. Here is an example of a sentence that has each one of them, with the Adverbial occurring three times.

- Actually   people no longer consider   private cars a luxury   these days.  
           A                   S           A           V           O           C           A

Apart from the Adverbials which are usually mobile. This example gives a typical ordering of these elements in a declarative clause if all the elements are present. That is, the SUBJECT occupies the first sentence slot, followed by the VERB, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT and then ADVERBIAL.

The elements are presented by the phrases talked about above. For instance:



#### 4.2.2.1. The Verb (V) and the Subject (S)

The **VERB** is the most important element in the clause. It describes the action or state being talked about in relation to the subject. The subject normally precedes the verb. There is concord /agreement in number (singular/plural) and person (first, second and third) between the subject and verb of a sentence. This is where the inflectional morphemes (learned about in Lesson 2) play a significant role in the structure of the words combining to form the sentence. Examine, for example, how the Verb forms vary according to the number/person of the subject in the following sentences.

Hot peppers   **are**   popular in Nigeria.  
                   S           V

Hot pepper   **is**   popular in Nigeria.  
                   S           V

Many people   **prefer**   tea to coffee.  
                   S           V

Jane   **prefers**   coffee.  
           S           V

|  |   |  |
|--|---|--|
| <u>She</u> <b>is</b> my student.<br><u>You</u> <b>are</b> my student.<br>S       V | } | The Verbs forms: is and are different because of<br>difference   in   person |
|--|---|--|

|               |              |                |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|
| The lecturer  | <b>knows</b> | her subject    |
| The lecturers | <b>know</b>  | their subjects |



The SUBJECT names what is to be talked about in terms of the verb. The subject and the verb are very closely related. And one cannot do without the other in a sentence.

#### 4.2.2.2. The Object (O) and the Complement (C)

##### THE OBJECT

The object is very closely tied to the verb in terms of the meaning of the entire sentence. It typically denotes the person or thing most intimately affected by the action denoted by the verb. For example:

Ivy      dislikes   mangoes  
 S                  V                  O

The object normally follows the verb in a sentence.

There are two kinds of objects: (i) The DIRECT OBJECT (O)  
 (ii) The indirect Object (IO)

For example:

- Jane showed me her new dress.  
          S        V        IO        O
- Jane showed her new dress to me.  
          S        V                  O                  IO
- Jane took the pen.  
          S        V        O
- Jane took the pen to James.  
          S        V        O                  IO

The direct object answers the question: **what** or **whom** after an action verb. An indirect object answers the question: **to whom** or **for whom** or **to what** or **for what**. A sentence may have an indirect object only if it has a direct object, or if the direct object is understood, as in the following example.

- He told the story to **her**.      Has the indirect object **her**.
- He told the story.              The direct object is understood to be whoever listened to the story .

The indirect object comes between the verb and the direct object or after the prepositions **to** or **for**. For example:

- Engineers gave *students* awards.
  - Roberto bought *me* lunch.
- } IO between verb and O
- Roberto bought lunch for me.
- IO after the preposition **for**

While the Direct object is obligatory after an action verb, the indirect object may be optional, and replaceable by an Adverbial element, such as a Prepositional Phrase introduced by a *to* or *for* coming after the Direct Object.

|  |                           |
|--|---------------------------|
| Njue showed <i><b>the classmates</b></i> his new book.     | Has an IO                 |
| Njue showed his new book.                                  | Has no IO                 |
| Njue showed his new book to <i><b>the classmates</b></i> . | Has an IO after <b>to</b> |

## Objects are usually Nouns, Pronouns or Noun Phrases.

## THE COMPLEMENT

A complement is a word or group of words that complete the meaning of a verb. A subject and a linking verb often need a complement in order for the meaning of a sentence to be complete. Consider, for example the following structure:

- The house looks \_\_\_\_\_ (big, huge, smart)

In this example, we can see that the sentence cannot stop at **looks**. It needs something else, like the items in the brackets next to it, to complete it so that it can make sense. What it needs is a complement. The complement can look superficially like an object (both the complement and the object can be Noun Phrases), but in terms of meaning it provides a definition or a characterization of the subject or object, as in the following examples:

- Musa called his father a beggar.  
S V O C
- My father is a teacher.  
S V C

In these examples, *a beggar* and *a teacher* are complements characterizing **Musa** and **my father**, respectively.

The complement normally follows the verb. When there is an object (O) and a complement (C) in a clause, then normally the C follows the O as in the example below.

The considered my last week's journey to the Coast of Kenya a waste of time.

There are two kinds of complements.

- (i) Subject complement
- (ii) Object complement.

(i) **Subject Complement:** This characterizes or describes the subject. It follows a subject after a linking verb. A linking verb (almost) always needs one or more additional words in the predicate to complete its meaning. In fact, a linking verb links a subject to something else. The “something else is the **Subject Complement**.

There are two kinds subject complements:

- Predicate Nominatives, and,
- Predicate Adjectives

A **Predicate nominative** is a noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb and points back to the subject to identify it further as in:

- Engineers are *Scientists*. **Noun.**
- The engineer on this project is *she*. **Pronoun.**

Predicative nominatives are usually found in sentences that contain forms of the linking **Verb be**. Often these are sentences that classify things, or put or assign them to a group. For example:

- Your friend is a nurse.  
                   S                   V (Verb be)                   C

In this example, the complement, **a nurse**, places **the friend** into some class of individuals known as **nurses**.

A few other linking verbs (e.g., **become** and **remain**) can be followed by a predicate nominative. For example:

- Aug eagle is *a bird*.
- Nairobi is *a city*.
- You became *a student*.
- Monday remains *a holiday* for us.

A **Predicate adjective** follows a linking verb and points back to the subject, and further describes it. For example,

Engineers are *inventive*.  
 Engineers must be highly *responsible*.

Predicate adjectives may follow any linking verb.

(ii) **Object Complement:** This characterizes or describes the object, as in:

Everyone considered Ali a great boxer.  
                   S                   v                   o                   c

Object complements occur only in sentences with action verbs like the following verbs:

|                |         |        |
|----------------|---------|--------|
| Appoint,       | Choose, | Elect, |
| Make,          | Render, | Call,  |
| Consider,      | Find,   | Name,  |
| Think, and etc |         |        |

Which are mainly **mental action verbs**. An object complement follows a direct object.

It may be an **Adjective**, as in: Engineers find plans *essential*.

It may be a **Noun**, as in: Geri considers me her *friend*.

And it may be a **Pronoun**, as in: The citizens call that privilege *theirs*.

#### 4.2.2.3 The Adverbial

Adverbials are the words or phrases or clauses that fill out the sentence clause by adding extra circumstantial information of various kinds. The added information may range from manner, time, and location to reason and the speaker's attitude.

Adverbials are the least closely integrated elements into the clause/sentence structure.

Why? Because:

- (i) Most of the times they are optional elements in the clause structure.
- (ii) There is no fixed number of them in a clause.

For example, the following sentence has four adverbials.

a. Actually he eats at home very rarely these days.

A      S      V      A      A      A

Each of the Adverbials in this example can change its positions, without making the sentence erroneous.

- (iii) They have no fixed order of occurrence in the clause. They are mobile. Some adverbials can be placed even in the middle of a Verb Phrase, for Example:

- Lunch is *now* being served.  
*Now* lunch is being served.  
Lunch is being served *now*.  
Lunch is being *now* served. (This position is the only one which may be considered a bit awkward)

#### 4.2.3 Common Clause / Sentence Patterns

The clause patterns are formed of the principal clause elements namely:

|                                |       |
|--------------------------------|-------|
| The Verb                       | V     |
| The Subject                    | S     |
| The Direct and Indirect Object | O, IO |
| The Complement                 | C     |

## The Adverbial

A

Using these elements, the following most common clause pattern of English can be identified:

|    | <u>PATTERN</u> | <u>EXAMPLE<br/>OF SENTENCE</u>                             | <u>EXAMPLES OF VERB<br/>TAKING THE PATTERN</u>                                   |
|----|----------------|--|--|
| 1. | SV,            | Kamau yawned<br>He screamed                                | behave, come die, dream, eat,<br>look, run, walk, work, sleep                    |
| 2. | SVO            | Kamau opened the door<br>He caught it<br>She makes dresses | most verbs of action like;<br>kick, swallow, construct                           |
| 3. | SVIOO          | She served him some tea                                    | Serve, tell, make  |
| 4. | SVOIO          | Kamau gave a pen to me                                     | sell, give, tell, send, buy,<br>make   |
| 5. | SVC            | He is a kind /a nurse                                      | verbs be and other linking<br>verbs like: become, seem,<br>look, appear, sound   |
| 6. | SVOC           | Jane got her hair wet.<br>Kamau proved her wrong           | get, call, make, think<br>consider, imagine, prove,<br>prefer                    |
| 7. | SVA            | He is there<br>He went home<br>She thinks about it         | verbs be, stand, go, leave,<br>know, think, talk, grieve,<br>worry, live, reside |
| 8. | SVOA           | He put it there<br>She told him about it.                  | put, place, keep, tell, inform,<br>worry   |
| 9. | SVCA           | Life has never been better<br>for this generation.         | verbs be   |

### ACTIVITY .11.

- (1) Analyze each of the following sentences by underlining and labeling the constituents using the elements SVOCA.
  - (a) Venus is the planet that shines brightest in the sky.
  - (b) The lawyer loved objecting to the prosecutor's motions and winning concessions from the judge.
  - (c) Thorough bred horses often turn their wealthy owners poor

- (d) Sleep on the bed in the sitting room.
- (e) The children told interesting stories to their parents.
- (f) When the teacher told them that they had passed the exam, all the students shouted with joy.

(2) Construct a sentence of your own for each of the following sentence/clause patterns, and label the sentence parts with the elements:

S-V-A

S-V-O

S-V-IO-O

S-V-C

SVOCA

#### 4.2.4 Coordination and Subordination of Clauses

The clauses built with the above explained elements may combine in different ways to build longer sentences. The two common ways in which the clauses combine are:

- (i) Coordination
- (ii) Subordination

And the different types of sentence that result from coordination, subordination or lack of them are:

- The simple Sentence
- The Compound Sentence
- The Complex sentence, and
- Compound-Complex sentence.

##### 4.2.4.1 Coordination

Coordination is the process of joining two or more grammatical structures such as the clause, into a longer structure. The two or more structures coordinated must be of equal rank, i.e., word to word, phrase to phrase or clause to clause. When you coordinate two or more clauses, you connect, associate or relate the ideas expressed by the different clauses. You can coordinate grammatical structures using various methods, but the most obvious method is the use of Coordinating conjunctions. These include the conjunctions:

**And Or Nor, For, But, Yet, So,**

The use/meanings of the conjunctive words are exemplified below:

| <u>COORDINATING CONJUNCTION</u> | <u>MEANING</u>                      | <u>EXAMPLE</u>                                     |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| And                             | addition: one idea added to another | I went to the market, <b>and</b> I bought a broom. |

|          |  |   |
|----------|--|---|
| But, yet | the two ideas are different/opposite/ to be contrasted | I wanted to buy sugar, <b>but</b> I had no money.                               |
| Or       | alternatives or choices                                | Tonight, I might watch T.V., <b>or</b> I might sleep early.                     |
| Nor      | not either   | Mambo was not at home, <b>nor</b> was he at work.                               |
| For      | one idea is the cause of another                       | We went for a walk, <b>for</b> it was a beautiful evening                       |
| So       | as a result  | I was early for the appointment, <b>so</b> I decided to doze for a few minutes. |

Coordination can also be achieved by **Correlative Conjunctions**. These are conjunctions that work in pares. Examples are:

If - - - then,            either- - - or,  
 just as - - - so,        so- - - that,  
 not only - - - but also.

Correlative conjunctions can be uses to coordinate clauses that can be examined side by side. For example:

- **Not only** is our boss a better leader than your boss, **but** he is **also** a more interesting human being.
- **If** I agree to read and edit your entire book, **then** you will have to pay me handsomely.

#### 4.2.4.2 Subordination

Subordination is the process of joining two or more grammatical structures such as the clause, into a longer structure. The two ore more structures subordinated are of unequal rank. When two clauses are joined but one cannot stand alone grammatically, then they are subordinated.

Clauses of unequal status can be joined by the use of Subordination conjunctions which include words such as:

After; although, before, since, unless,  
 while, when, because, if, as  
 though, once.

Examples of subordinated clauses joined by subordinating conjunctions are:

- **After** I finished completed doing my assignment, I went to see my friend.

- **Because** I was too scared to go the bus stop at six in the morning I missed the morning train
- I shall not be able to reach home today **unless** I set off very early in the morning

Subordination of clauses can also be done by the use of Relative Pronouns:

who, whose, whom, whoever, whomever,  
that, which, what, whatever,

as shown in the following underlined subordinated clause examples:

- The professor who won the award is on leave this semester.
- The courses that I am taking this semester are challenging.
- Your sister whose name I forget left you a message with the secretary's office

#### 4.2.5 Coordination, Subordination and the Structural Types of Sentences.

As mentioned above the different types of sentences that result from coordination, subordination or lack of them are:

- The Simple Sentence
- The Compound Sentence
- The Complex sentence, and
- The Compound -Complex sentence

Following is an explanation of how they are formed.

Sentences are formed from clauses, with the SVOCA elements explained above. A clause is a group of words that have both a Subject and a Verb. There are two types of clauses:

- (i) An Independent Clause - also known as Main clause
- (ii) A Dependent Clause - also known as Subordinate clause

(i) An Independent clause can stand alone as a sentence because it expresses a complete idea. For instance.

- . Momanyi made some tea
- . The police car sped along the highway.
- . The thunder boomed

Each of these independent clauses has a **Subject**: *Momanyi*, *police car*, and *thunder*. Each has a **Verb**: *made*, *sped* *boomed*. And each expresses a complete thought. Therefore, each is a sentence.

(ii) A dependent clause also contains a Subject and a Verb. However, it cannot stand alone as a sentence for it does not express a complete idea. For instance, if one uttered clauses as follows:

- Because Momanyi made some tea,



The dependent clauses must be subordinated to independent clauses as follows:

Having explained the two types of clauses (i.e., independent and dependent), we can now understand how the processes of coordination and subordination lead to the structural sentence types: the Simple Sentence, the Compound Sentence, the Complex sentence and the Compound –Complex sentence.

The classification of sentences into these four types is based on the number and type of clauses each sentence contains.

**A SIMPLE SENTENCE** contains only a single independent clause – a group of words having a subject and a predicate. The following examples of simple sentences are divided into subject and predicate, each of which is just one.

- Aloo's father and mother **migrated to America.**  
S Pred.
- Aloo's father and mother, a peace loving couple, **moved to America**  
S Pred.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE is composed of two or more independent clauses. The clauses may be joined as follows:

- By a comma and a coordination conjunction.
- By a semicolon and a conjunctive adverb plus a comma
- By a semicolon alone

Each of these is exemplified by the following examples respectively

$$\vdots$$

- The muffler was leaking dangerous fumes, ***and*** the brake linings were growing thin.
- Pencils were invented in the sixteenth century; ***however***, erasers were not added to them until 1858.
- We expected chaos; we found order.

A COMPLEX SENTENCE contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. The dependent clauses may be Adjective, Adverb or Noun clauses. That is, they may be performing the functions that are typically performed by these word classes in the clause. The following examples of Complex sentences have the independent clause underlined while the dependent one(s) are in bold and italics.

- One type of the orchid produces vanilla beans, *which are used in the manufacture of vanilla extract.*
- Shortage of maize in Kenya can be a big problem *because maize is the staple food for most Kenyans.*
- Few people who live in towns do not know *that maize can be that important.*

A COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCES contains two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. Examples follow:

- As the storm blew, windows rattles **and** doors shook.
- The rain fell for days, **but** the towns reservoirs *which* had been almost empty were not filled **and** the water department had to think of alternative sources
- *Although* the baby was crying next to her, **and** the bigger children fighting close by, the mother did not wake up from her sleep.

### ACTIVITY .12.

- (1) Construct two compound sentences by coordinating each of the following independent clauses in two different ways, Add a dependent clause of your own to the two independent clauses in order to create a compound-complex sentence.
  - (a) The stock market finally rose.  
Investors remained nervous.
  - (b) Tough road traffic laws are necessary.  
There is no reason for tolerating drunk drivers.
- (2) Complete each of the following sentences with an appropriate conjunction. Tell whether the conjunction is a coordinating, a correlative, or a subordination conjunction.
  - (a) The sun was shining brightly ----- the birds were singing sweetly.
  - (b) Do you prefer juice ----- milk?
  - (c) Andi cannot go swimming today ----- she lost her swimming costume.
  - (d) I do not know -----I can wait that long.
  - (e) ----- The Head of the department ----- the exam officer will be able to solve that problem.

## SUMMARY



In this lesson you have studied the basic form and structure of sentence as the largest unit of grammatical analysis.

The sentence has been defined as a unit of syntactic analysis that expresses a complete thought or proposition. It has constituent parts that are formed of words, phrases and clauses, which combine in systematic ways to build the sentence.

The constituent parts are known as the elements of the sentence. They occur in certain ways referred as the clause/sentence patterns.

Every clause can be conjoined with another or others to create different structural types of clauses.

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