

ENGLISH GRAMMAR
ESSENTIALS:
FROM SENTENCES TO ESSAYS

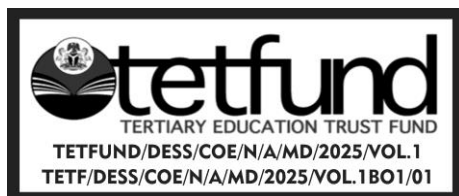
By

AJADI, Babatunde Mustafa PhD

and

OLANREWAJU, Rosemary Foluke PhD

Sponsored by



ENGLISH GRAMMAR
ESSENTIALS:
FROM SENTENCES TO ESSAYS

Copyright ©

AJADI, Babatunde Mustafa PhD

and

OLANREWAJU, Rosemary Foluke PhD

2025

All Right Reserved

No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means electronic, mechanical, photocopy or otherwise without prior permission of the author and publisher in writing.

ISBN: 978-978-690-218-0

Printed by:

Decency Printers & Stationaries Limited

Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria

Published by:

MC PAT Academic Publishers

100, Iworoko Road, Opposite EKSUTH

Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria

mcpatpublishers@gmail.com

Preface

Welcome to this guide on English grammar and writing. This book is intended to assist you in navigating the world of grammar in a clear and understandable manner, regardless of whether you are a teacher, student, or simply someone wishing to brush up on your language abilities. We start with the basics; understanding grammar and the different parts of speech, and build up from there. As you move through the chapters, you will learn about the building blocks of language, like verb tenses, phrases, and clauses. We will dive into sentence structure and explore how to form sentences that make sense and flow smoothly. Along the way, we will also tackle important concepts like subject-verb agreement, pronoun use, and punctuation, so you can express yourself clearly and correctly.

In the final chapter, we will focus on essay writing, helping you put everything you have learnt into practice to craft well-organised, thoughtful essays. The goal is to not only help you understand grammar but also to give you the confidence to use it effectively, whether you are writing for school, work, or just for fun. We hope this book will become a helpful resource as you continue to develop your skills and communicate more clearly in any setting.

AJADI, B. M PhD

OLANREWAJU, R. F PhD

TABLE OF CONTENTS

COPYRIGHT ii

PREFACE iii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

- Definition and Scope of Grammar 1
- The Role of Grammar in Communication 1
- Components of Grammar 2
- Common Misconceptions about Grammar 3

CHAPTER TWO: PARTS OF SPEECH

- Nouns: Types, Functions, and Formation 4
- Pronouns: Types, Functions, and Agreement 10
- Verbs: Types, Tenses, Forms, Moods, and Voices 16
- Adjectives: Types, Forms, Order, and Usage 24
- Prepositions: Types and Usage in Phrases 32

- Conjunctions: Coordinating, Subordinating, and Correlative 36
- Interjections: Types and Usage 38

CHAPTER THREE: TENSE IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

- What is Tense 40
- Present Tense 40
- Past Tense 41
- Future Tense 44

CHAPTER FOUR: PHRASES IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

- What is a Phrase 48
- Types of Phrases 48

CHAPTER FIVE: ENGLISH CLAUSES

- What is a Clause 51
- Types of Clauses 51
- Noun Clauses 52
- Adjectival (Relative) Clauses 53
- Adverbial Clauses 53

CHAPTER SIX: STRUCTURAL PATTERNS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

- Sentence Components and Structures 55
- Sentence Types and Transformations
- Word Order and Grammatical Relations
- Verb Forms and Sentence Patterns
- Degrees of Comparison

CHAPTER SEVEN: COMMON ERRORS AND CORRECT USAGE

- Common Errors and Correct Usage:
 - Articles & Numbers 64
 - Nouns, Verbs & Adverbs 66
 - Adjectives & Prepositions 67

CHAPTER EIGHT: AGREEMENT IN GRAMMAR

- Subject–Verb Agreement: Rules and Exceptions 69
- Pronoun–Antecedent Agreement: Rules and Examples 71

CHAPTER NINE: PUNCTUATION MARKS

- Types of Punctuation Marks and Their Functions 73
- Abbreviations: Types and Application 75

CHAPTER TEN: ESSAY WRITING

- Meaning and Purpose of an Essay 77
- Essay Structure: Introduction, Body, and Conclusion 78
- Types of Essays 81

REFERENCES 84

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

The study of English grammar dates back to the 16th century. Early grammarians modeled English grammar after Latin, which sometimes led to rules that didn't quite fit. Over time, scholars like Robert Lowth and Lindley Murray formalised grammatical rules, many of which still influence modern usage today. With the rise of linguistic science in the 20th century, grammar began to be studied not just as a set of rigid rules, but as a dynamic system. Modern linguistics now explores how grammar functions across dialects, registers, and contexts.

What is Grammar?

The structural basis of our capacity for self-expression is grammar. It is the collection of guidelines that determines how words are constructed and ordered in a language in order to efficiently communicate meaning. Without grammar, language would be chaotic and communication would be difficult, if not impossible.

In the broadest sense, grammar encompasses everything from word formation (morphology), sentence structure (syntax), to sound patterns (phonology) and meaning (semantics). But when it comes to learning or teaching a language, particularly one like English, grammar is primarily concerned with the rules that control how words and phrases are put together to create cohesive sentences.

The Role of Grammar in Communication

Grammar functions like a roadmap for communication. It provides the structure that helps speakers and writers form clear and accurate

messages, and it allows listeners and readers to interpret those messages correctly. Whether in speech or writing, good grammar ensures that ideas are conveyed precisely and understood as intended.

Incorrect grammar may not always stop communication, but it can lead to confusion, misinterpretation, or a lack of credibility. For example, consider the difference between:

Let's eat, Ishola.

Let's eat Ishola.

The first sentence is a friendly invitation, while the second is a macabre suggestion—illustrating how something as simple as a comma can completely change meaning.

Components of Grammar

The system of grammar has many facets. The primary components include writing, punctuation, verb tenses, phrases, clauses, coordination and subordination, subject-verb agreement, pronoun-antecedent agreement, sentence patterns, and basic sentence types.

Grammar can be studied in two different ways: Prescriptive and Descriptive. Prescriptive grammar dictates how language should be used. It sets rules based on tradition, standardisation, and formal usage. For example, prescriptive grammar might insist that one should never end a sentence with a preposition.

Descriptive grammar on the other hand, observes and records how language is actually used by native speakers. It does not judge

correctness, but rather describes patterns in real usage, even if they deviate from traditional rules. A balanced understanding of both approaches allows learners to appreciate the flexibility of language while mastering its conventions.

Common Misconceptions about Grammar

"Grammar is just about rules."

While rules are essential, grammar is also about patterns and flexibility. Language evolves, and grammar adapts to those changes.

"Only English has grammar."

All languages have grammar. Each has its own set of rules for structuring meaning.

"Native speakers don't need to study grammar." Though, it is debatable. While native speakers acquire grammar naturally, studying it can sharpen writing, improve communication, and enhance understanding of language diversity

Grammar is not a collection of capricious rules designed to make language learning difficult. Instead, it is the underlying structure that allows us to communicate with clarity, depth, and precision. As we journey through this book, we will delve deeper into each aspect of grammar—from the building blocks of words to the construction of sophisticated sentences.

CHAPTER TWO

PARTS OF SPEECH

Nouns

One of the essential components of speech in the English language is the noun. In addition to being vital for naming and identifying persons, places, objects, ideas, or concepts, they are also vital for sentence building. A noun is essentially a term that designates a person, location, object, concept, or idea. Nouns, to put it simply, are naming words. In a sentence, they can serve as the subject, object, or complement. Nouns are integral to forming meaningful and coherent sentences. Knowing their types and functions is essential for effective communication and accurate grammar usage. By mastering the various forms and applications of nouns, one can significantly enhance both written and spoken English.

Example of nouns

Person: Akinola, teacher, student

Place: Ilorin, school, stadium

Thing: Table, book, computer

Idea/Concept: Freedom, love, honesty

Types of Nouns

Nouns can be divided into a number of kinds according to their usage and properties. The main categories of nouns are listed below:

1. Proper Nouns

Proper nouns, which relate to specific people, places, or things, always begin with a capital letter.

Examples:

Persons: Ayomikun, Oreoluwa, Ayinde

Places: Abuja, Ibadan,

Things: The Herald newspaper, Titanic

The months of the year and the days of the week are also proper nouns.

Examples: January, February, Monday, Tuesday, etc.

2. Common Nouns

Common nouns are generic names for individuals, locations, or objects that don't need to be capitalised unless they are used at the start of a sentence.

Examples:

People: doctor, teacher

Places: city, beach

Things: car, book

3. Concrete Nouns

Concrete nouns can be perceived through the senses and are physically tangible (sight, smell, touch, taste, and hearing).

Examples:

Apple (taste, sight)

Music (hearing)

Flower (smell)

4. Abstract Nouns

Intangible thoughts, ideas, or emotions that are imperceptible to the senses are referred to as abstract nouns.

Examples:

Affection, bravery, intelligence

Joy, friendship, knowledge

5. Collective Nouns

Collective nouns describe a collection of individuals, creatures, or objects that are regarded as a single entity.

Examples:

Group, congregation, bunch, class, spectators

A swarm of bees, a pack of wolves

6. Countable Nouns

Countable nouns have both singular and plural forms and are countable.

Examples:

One book, two books

Car, cars

7. Uncountable Nouns

Uncountable nouns usually don't have a plural form and can't be counted.

Examples:

Advice, information, music

8. Compound Nouns

Compound nouns consist of two or more words that work together to form a single noun. They can be hyphenated, written as separate words, or written as one word.

Examples:

Haircut (one word)

Editor-in-chief (hyphenated)

Dining table (two words)

9. Possessive Nouns

Possessive nouns typically end with an apostrophe and the letter "s." They indicate possession or ownership.

Examples:

The girl's book

The cat's toy

Functions of Nouns

In a phrase, nouns have several purposes:

1. Subject of a Sentence

The subject is the person performing the action.

Example: The dog barked loudly.

2. Object of a Sentence

Nouns can be direct or indirect objects.

Direct Object: The teacher praised the student.

Indirect Object: She gave John a gift.

3. Object of a Preposition

Nouns often follow prepositions to complete a prepositional phrase.

Example: The cat is on the roof.

4. Subject Complement

A connecting verb may be followed by a noun to rename or characterize the subject.

Example: She is a doctor.

5. Object Complement

The direct object may be renamed or described by a noun.

Example: They elected him president.

Noun Formation

Nouns can be formed from other parts of speech through derivation or conversion:

1. Derivation:

Adding suffixes like -ness, -tion, -ment, -er, or -ist to verbs or adjectives.

Happy → Happiness

Create → Creation

2. Conversion:

Using a word of one part of speech as a noun without changing its form.

Run (verb) → A run (noun)

Rules of Noun Usage

Capitalisation: Capital letter is always used to begin a proper noun.

1. Pluralisation: Regular noun usually take -s or -es (dog → dogs, box → boxes), while irregular nouns change form (child → children).
2. Possessive Form: Add 's for singular possessive (girl's book) and s' for plural possessive (girls' school).

Pronouns

In order to substitute nouns and make sentences more concise and less repetitious, pronouns are crucial parts of the English language. They are essential to communication and sentence construction because they help writers and speakers avoid using the same nouns repeatedly. In a sentence, a word that takes the place of a noun or noun phrase is called a pronoun. Pronouns make sentences more flowing and succinct by preventing repetition. Pronouns are invaluable in making sentences concise and clear, but they must be used correctly to avoid ambiguity and grammatical errors. Knowing the types and functions of pronouns, along with their proper agreement and case usage, is crucial for effective communication.

Types of Pronouns

According to their purpose and usage, pronouns can be divided into a number of categories. The main categories of pronouns are listed below:

1. Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns differ according to person, number, gender, and case and are used to refer to particular individuals or objects.

a. Subjective Case: When a sentence's subject is used. He, she, it, we, they, you, and I

Example: She is going to the store.

b. Objective Case: utilised as a verb or preposition's object. He, she, it, us, them, me, and you

Example: The teacher praised him.

c. Possessive Case: Indicate ownership or possession.

My, your, his, her, its, our, their (used before a noun)

Mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs (used independently)

Example: This is my book. / The book is mine.

2. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are used when the subject and object of a sentence refer to the same person or thing.

They end in - self (singular) or - selves (plural).

Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Example: She prepared *herself* for the presentation.

3. Intensive Pronouns

Intensive pronouns emphasise a preceding noun or pronoun and have the same form as reflexive pronouns.

Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Example: The president himself attended the meeting.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns highlight certain objects and set them apart from other objects.

This, that, these, those

Example: These are delicious. / That was surprising.

5. Interrogative Pronouns

To ask questions, one uses interrogative pronouns.

Who, whom, whose, which, what

Example: Who is calling? / Which is your favorite?

6. Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns connect relative sentences to the main clause and introduce them.

Who, whom, whose, which, that

Example: The woman who lives next door is a doctor.

7. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are used to describe non-specific individuals or objects.

Anyone, everyone, someone, no one, nobody, anything, everything, something, nothing, few, many, several, all, some, none

Example: Someone left their bag behind.

8. Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns indicate that two or more individuals or objects have a reciprocal relationship.

Each other, one another

Example: They helped each other with their assignments.

Functions of Pronouns

Pronouns serve various grammatical functions in sentences, including:

1. Subject of a Sentence

Pronouns can act as the subject.

Example: He runs fast.

2. Object of a Sentence

Both direct and indirect objects can be pronouns.

Example: She called me.

3. Object of a Preposition

Pronouns can follow prepositions.

Example: The gift is for him.

4. Possessive Determiner

Pronouns can indicate possession when placed before a noun.

Example: This is her car.

5. Subject Complement

Pronouns can complete the subject of a sentence.

Example: It was they who called.

Pronoun Agreement

The following criteria must be met by pronouns and their antecedents:

1. Number: Singular or plural.

Incorrect: Everyone should bring their ID.

Correct: Everyone should bring his or her ID.

2. Gender: Masculine, feminine, or neutral.

Incorrect: A student should manage their time wisely.

Correct: A student should manage his or her time wisely.

3. Person: First, second, or third person.

Incorrect: If one wants success, you must work hard.

Correct: If one wants success, one must work hard.

Common Errors with Pronouns

1. Ambiguous Antecedents:

Incorrect: When Sarah met Lucy, she was excited.
(Who was excited?)

Correct: When Sarah met Lucy, Sarah was excited.

2. Reflexive Pronoun Misuse:

Incorrect: Rosemary and *myself* went to the Ilorin.

Correct: Rosemary and *I* went to the Ilorin.

3. Incorrect Case Usage:

Incorrect: The winner was her.

Correct: The winner was she.

4. Pronoun-Antecedent Disagreement:

Incorrect: Neither of the students did their homework.

Correct: Neither of the students did his or her homework.

Verbs

The verb is one of the most crucial speech elements in the English language. They express actions, states, or occurrences and are fundamental in forming complete sentences. Without verbs, sentences would lack meaning and coherence. It is the core component of a predicate in a sentence and indicates what the subject does or experiences. Verbs are indispensable for constructing meaningful sentences, as they express actions, conditions, or states of being. The knowledge of different types, forms, tenses, moods, and voices of verbs ensures proper grammar and successful communication.

Examples:

Action: She runs every morning.

Occurrence: The accident happened suddenly.

State of Being: He is happy.

Types of Verbs

Based on their traits and functions, verbs can be divided into a variety of types. The primary categories of verbs are listed below:

1. Action Verbs

These verbs describe the subject's mental or physical activity.

Physical Action: write, dance

Example: She writes a letter.

Mental Action: think, believe, consider, know

Example: He believes in honesty.

2. Linking Verbs

Linking verbs link the topic to more details about the subject rather than expressing action. Between the subject and the subject complement, they serve as a link.

Common Linking Verbs: be, seem, appear, become, feel, look, sound, taste

Example: The soup tastes delicious

3. Auxiliary (Helping) Verbs

Auxiliary verbs help the main verb form tenses, voices, or moods. Auxiliary verbs are used in combination with main verbs to create verb phrases.

Primary Auxiliary Verbs: be, have, do

Example: She is running.

Modal Auxiliary Verbs: can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must

Example: You should study harder.

4. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

A direct object is necessary for transitive verbs to fully express their meaning.

Example: Olanrewaju kicked the ball.

Intransitive Verbs: Do not require a direct object.

Example: John slept peacefully.

5. Regular and Irregular Verbs

Regular Verbs: Form their past tense and past participle by adding -ed or -d.

Example: walk → walked

Irregular Verbs: Form their past tense and past participle in various ways.

Example: go → went → gone

6. Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs are verbs that contain one or more particles, such as prepositions or adverbs. They frequently acquire a meaning distinct from that of the individual terms.

Examples:

Look up: to search for information

Break down: to stop working (for machines)

7. Stative and Dynamic Verbs

Stative verbs are not typically used in the continuous tense and are used to express states, feelings, or conditions, while, Dynamic verbs express actions or processes that can occur over time.

Example: believe, own, know (Stative)

Example: run, eat, play (Dynamic)

Verb Forms

Verbs have five main forms:

1. *Base Form* (Simple Present): go, eat, play
2. *Simple Past*: went, ate, played
3. *Past Participle*: written, eaten, sung
4. *Present Participle*: going, eating, playing
5. *Third Person Singular Present*: goes, eats, plays

Verb Tenses

The time at which an action occurs is indicated by the verb tenses. These are the primary tenses:

1. Present Tense

Simple Present: She runs every day.

Present Continuous: She is running now.

Present Perfect: She has run five miles.

Present Perfect Continuous: She has been running for an hour.

2. Past Tense

Simple Past: She ran yesterday.

Past Continuous: She was running when it rained.

Past Perfect: She had run before the storm.

Past Perfect Continuous: She had been running for an hour when it started to rain.

3. Future Tense

Simple Future: She will run tomorrow.

Future Continuous: She will be running at noon.

Future Perfect: Kazeem will have run by then.

Future Perfect Continuous: Kazeem will have been running for two hours by then.

Verb Moods

Verb moods convey the speaker's perspective on the verb's action. Here are the main types of verb moods:

1. Indicative Mood

Use for stating facts or requests.

Example: She is happy.

2. Imperative Mood

Used in giving commands or requests.

Example: Sit down.

3. Subjunctive Mood

Used to convey wishes, hypotheticals, or untrue situations.

Example: I wish it were summer all year round.

Voice of Verbs

Verbs can be in either the active or passive voice.

1. Active Voice

The action is carried out by the subject.

Example: The chef cooked the food.

2. Passive Voice

The subject is the object of the action.

Example: The food was cooked by the chef.

Functions of Verbs

1. Expressing Action: He writes stories.
2. Indicating a State of Being: She is a teacher.
3. Forming Questions: Did you see that?
4. Giving Commands: Do your homework.
5. Expressing Possibility or Necessity (with modals): You must leave.

Common Errors with Verbs

1. Subject-Verb Agreement

Incorrect: The list of items is long.

Correct: The list of items are long.

2. Incorrect Verb Tense

Incorrect: She go to the market yesterday.

Correct: She went to the market yesterday.

3. Misuse of Irregular Verbs

Incorrect: He writed a letter.

Correct: He wrote a letter.

4. Using the Wrong Voice

Incorrect: The meal was ate by him.

Correct: The meal was eaten by him.

Tips for Correct Verb Usage

1. Identify the Subject: verify that the verb and the subject are in agreement.
2. Choose the Correct Tense: Match the verb tense to the time frame.
3. Use Proper Voice: Prefer active voice for clarity, unless passive voice is necessary.
4. Be Mindful of Modals: Use the correct type of the verb after modals (e.g., can do).

Examples of Correct Verb Usage

1. *Present Tense:* She works hard every day.
2. *Past Tense:* They visited the museum.
3. *Future Tense:* I will call you later.
4. *Perfect Tense:* She has finished her assignment.
5. *Continuous Tense:* They are playing soccer now.

Adjectives

In the English language, adjectives are a necessary component of speech. They describe, modify, or quantify nouns and pronouns, adding depth and detail to sentences. Adjectives are basically crucial for effective communication, as they help create vivid and precise expressions. Because they provide precision and details, adjectives are essential for improving language's expressiveness. A term that adds extra details about a noun or pronoun's quality, amount, size, shape, color, or other characteristics is called an adjective.

Examples:

A tall building. (height)

The blue sky (colour)

Five apples (quantity)

An exciting movie (quality)

Functions of Adjectives

Adjectives serve several functions in sentences, including:

1. Describing Qualities:

A beautiful garden.

An intelligent student.

2. Indicating Quantity:

Three cars were parked outside.

Several people attended the event.

3. Specifying Identity:

This book is mine.

Those shoes are hers.

4. Showing Possession:

My friend is here.

Their house is spacious.

Types of Adjectives

Depending on their purposes and applications, adjectives can be divided into a number of categories:

1. Descriptive Adjectives

A noun or pronoun's attributes are described using descriptive adjectives. They are the most common type of adjectives.

Examples: beautiful, tall, happy, old

The graceful dancer performed.

2. Quantitative Adjectives

Quantitative adjectives specify the amount or quantity associated with a noun. They provide answers to the questions "How much?" for

uncountable nouns or "How many?" for countable nouns, helping to convey the extent or number of the noun in question.

Examples: few, many, several

She bought some flowers.

He has five dogs.

3. Numeral Adjectives

Numeral adjectives specify numbers or positions in a series. They can be further divided into:

Cardinal Adjectives: Indicate quantity (one, two, three).

Example: Four cats were sleeping.

Ordinal Adjectives: Indicate order or position (first, second, third).

Example: She won first place.

4. Demonstrative Adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives identify certain nouns and provide an answer to the question "Which one?"

Examples: this, that, these, those

Example: That car is expensive.

5. Possessive Adjectives

Possessive adjectives indicate ownership.

Examples: my, your, his, her, its, our, their

Example: My bag is on the table.

6. Interrogative Adjectives

Interrogative adjectives ask questions and are placed before nouns. They modify nouns and help to gather specific information. The main interrogative adjectives in English are:

Examples: which, what, whose

Example: Which African festival do you prefer?

7. Distributive Adjectives

Individual members of a group are referred to using distributive adjectives.

Examples: each, every, either, neither

Example: Each student must submit their assignment.

8. Proper Adjectives

Proper adjectives are used to describe certain individuals, places, or objects and are derived from proper nouns.

Examples: Nigerian, American, Indian

Example: I love Nigerian cuisine.

Forms of Adjectives

Adjectives can take different forms to express comparison. These forms include:

1. Positive Degree

When no comparison is made, this serves as the base for an adjective.

Example: She is tall.

2. Comparative Degree

When comparing two nouns, an adjective's comparative degree usually denotes a higher degree of a quality. It is employed when comparing two individuals or objects. usually created by preceding the adjective with -er or more.

Example: Jide is taller than his sister.

Example: This painting is more beautiful than that one.

3. Superlative Degree

Used to compare three or more persons or objects, usually produced by adding -est or using most before the adjective

Example: She is the tallest in the class.

Example: This is the most beautiful garden in the neighborhood.

Formation of Adjectives

Adjectives can be formed in various ways:

1. By Adding Suffixes

- ful: beauty → beautiful

- less: care → careless

- ous: danger → dangerous

2. From Nouns

Child → childish

Gold → golden

3. From Verbs

Talk → talkative

Create → creative

4. From Other Adjectives

Tragic → tragicomic

Good → better

Order of Adjectives

When more than one adjective are used, they follow this order:

1. Quantity/Number: two, several

2. Quality/Opinion: beautiful, ugly
3. Size: large, small
4. Age: old, new
5. Shape: round, square
6. Color: indigo, violet
7. Origin: Nigeria, Oyo
8. Material: stick, plate
9. Purpose: writing (as in writing desk)

Example: Two beautiful small old round red Nigerian wooden writing desks

Position of Adjectives

In a sentence, adjectives can appear in a variety of places:

1. Attributive Position (Before the Noun)

Example: A tall building.

2. Predicative Position (After a Linking Verb)

Example: The building is tall.

3. Postpositive Position (Immediately After the Noun)

Example: The president elect.

Common Mistakes with Adjectives

1. Misplacement of Adjectives:

Incorrect: The car blue is fast.

Correct: The blue car is fast.

2. Double Comparatives/Superlatives:

Incorrect: More smarter

Correct: Smarter

3. Using Adverbs Instead of Adjectives:

Incorrect: She looked happily.

Correct: She looked happy.

Examples of Correct Usage

1. Descriptive Adjective: The happy child played.
2. Comparative Adjective: This route is shorter than the other.
3. Superlative Adjective: He is the richest person in town.
4. Demonstrative Adjective: Those flowers are beautiful.
5. Possessive Adjective: Their house is huge.
6. Interrogative Adjective: Which option do you prefer?
7. Quantitative Adjective: She has many friends.

Tips for Using Adjectives Correctly

1. Choose the Right Degree: Use comparative or superlative forms appropriately.
2. Avoid Redundancy: Don't use double comparatives or superlatives (e.g., more better).
3. Follow Adjective Order: Maintain the proper order when using multiple adjectives.
4. Keep in mind that adverbs change verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, but adjectives modify nouns.

Prepositions

An essential component of the English language is prepositions. They convey relationships such as place, time, direction, cause, and manner by joining nouns, pronouns, or phrases with other words in a sentence. In prepositional phrases, prepositions usually appear before nouns or pronouns, and the noun or pronoun that follows the preposition is referred to as the "object of the preposition."

Example:

"The cat is on the table."

The relationship between "cat" and "table" is indicated by the preposition "on" in this instance.

Types of Prepositions

Prepositions can be classified based on the relationships they indicate:

1. Prepositions of Place

These prepositions show location or position.

Examples: in, on, at, under, behind, between, among

"She is sitting at the desk."

"The cat is under the table."

2. Prepositions of Time

These prepositions indicate temporal relationships.

Examples: at, on, in, during, before, after

"The meeting is at 3 PM."

"I was born in 1990."

3 Prepositions of Direction or Movement

These demonstrate movement or direction from location to location.

Examples: onto, towards, into, through

"He walked towards the park."

"The bird flew into the room."

4 Prepositions of Manner

These indicate the way or manner in which something occurs.

Examples: by, with, like

"She solved the problem with ease."

"He traveled by car."

5 Prepositions of Cause, Reason, or Purpose

These demonstrate the reason or cause of something.

Examples: because of, due to, for, from

"The game was canceled because of the rain."

6 Prepositions of Agency or Instrumentality

These indicate the means or instrument used to accomplish something.

Examples: by, with

"The novel was written by the author."

"She cut the paper with scissors."

7. Prepositional Phrases

A preposition, its object, and any related adjectives or modifiers make up a prepositional phrase.

Structure: Preposition + Object of Preposition (+ Modifiers)

Example:

"Under the old oak tree" (*The old oak tree* is the object, and *under* is the preposition).

Prepositional phrases serve as either adverbs or adjectives:

Adjective: "The book on the shelf is mine."

Adverb: "She ran through the forest."

8. Prepositions vs. Adverbs

Depending on how they are used, several words can serve as both prepositions and adverbs.

As Preposition: "She climbed up the ladder." (up + noun)

As Adverb: "She looked up." (no noun after up)

Common Errors with Prepositions

Incorrect Usage: "He discussed about the issue." (Remove about)

Redundant Prepositions: "Where are you at?" (Remove at)

Wrong Choice: "He is good in math." (Should be at)

9. Idiomatic Expressions with Prepositions

Prepositions often form fixed phrases or idiomatic expressions that do not follow standard rules.

In time (early enough) vs. On time (punctual)

Agree with (a person) vs. Agree to (a proposal)

Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that link other words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence. They aid in the construction of more intricate, coherent sentences.

Types of Conjunctions

1. Coordinating Conjunctions

Words, phrases, or independent clauses of equal importance are joined by coordinating conjunctions.

FANBOYS acronym helps remember them:

| | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| For - shows reason: | She stayed home, for she was sick. |
| And – adds ideas: | I bought apples and oranges. |
| Nor - presents alternatives: | He neither called nor texted. |
| But - shows contrast: | She is kind but shy. |
| Or - offers choices: | Do you want tea or coffee? |
| Yet - contrast like “but”: | It was raining, yet they played. |
| So - shows result: | He was late, so he missed the bus. |

2. Subordinating Conjunctions

They link dependent (subordinate) clauses to independent ones.

Examples:

| | |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Because - | She left because it was late. |
| Although/Though - | Although it rained, they went out. |
| If - | If you study, you'll pass. |
| Since - | Since we're here, let's start. |
| Unless - your work. | You can't go unless you finish |
| While - | While I cooked, she cleaned. |

3. Correlative Conjunctions

When used in pairs, correlative conjunctions join equal items.

Examples:

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Either...or - late. | Either you start now or you'll be |
| Neither...nor - was ready. | Neither the manager nor the staff |
| Not only...but also - | She is not only smart but also hardworking. |

Both... and -

He is both funny and wise.

Interjection

An interjection is a type of word that conveys an abrupt or intense emotion, reaction, or exclamation, and it can either stand alone or be incorporated into a sentence. Interjections express feelings like surprise, joy, anger, or pain, and they are usually punctuated with an exclamation point or a comma. Below are some common types and examples of interjections.

1. Joy / Happiness

Hurray! -

Hurray! We won the match!

2. Surprise / Shock

Wow! -

Wow! That's wonderful!

Oh! -

Oh! I didn't see you there.

Whoa! -

Whoa! That was unexpected.

Eh? -

Eh? What did you say?

3. Pain

Ouch! -

Ouch! That hurt!

Ow! -

Ow! I stubbed my toe.

4. Anger / Frustration

Ugh! -

Ugh! This is so annoying!

Grr! -

Grr! This is so frustrating!

5. Greeting / Parting

Hey! -

Hey! How are you?

Hi! -

Hi! Long time no see.

Bye! -

Bye! See you tomorrow.

6. Thinking / Hesitation

Hmm... -

Hmm... I'm not sure about that.

Uh... -

Uh... I don't know what to say.

Er... -
someone else.

Er... maybe we should ask

7. Agreement / Confirmation

Yeah! -

Yeah! That's a great idea.

Uh-huh. -

Uh-huh. I get it.

Sure! -

Sure! Let's go!

CHAPTER THREE

Tense in English Grammar

What is Tense?

Tense are grammatical expression of time in language. In English, tense is primarily marked on verbs and allows speakers to situate actions, events, or states in relation to time, typically **the past, present, or future**.

Tense works closely with aspect (which expresses the nature of an action - completed, ongoing, or repetitive) and mood (which reflects the speaker's attitude toward the action, e.g., certainty, necessity, possibility). However, in this chapter, we primarily focus on tense and aspect combinations.

The Three Basic Tenses

English has three primary tenses, each of which may appear in four aspects:

Each of these combinations is discussed in detail below.

Present Tense Forms and Uses

A. Simple Present

Form: base verb (add –s for third person singular)

Examples:

I trek to class every morning.

Tunde reads historical fiction.

Uses:

Habits and routines: He gets up at 6 a.m.

General truths: Water freezes at 0 degrees Celsius.

Scheduled future events: Local Art Exhibition Opening -
November 1, 2025

Instructions: First, chop the onions.

B. Present Continuous

Form: am/is/are + present participle (-ing)

Examples:

I am studying for the exam.

They are working on the project.

Uses:

Actions happening right now: He is on the telephone.

Temporary actions: She is staying with a friend.

Annoying habits (with "always"): He is always complaining.

C. Present Perfect

Form: have/has + past participle

Examples:

I have seen that movie before.

They have completed their assignment.

Uses:

Actions with relevance to the present: I have lost my keys.

Life experiences (unspecified time): They have visited Paris.

Recent events: The match has just finished.

D. Present Perfect Continuous

Form: have/has been + present participle

Examples:

We have been working all morning.

She has been writing her thesis for months.

Uses:

Duration of an ongoing activity: We have been studying for three hours.

Repeated actions with present relevance

4. Past Tense Forms and Uses

A. Simple Past

Form: past form of verb (regular: -ed; irregular: varies)

Examples:

I watched a film last night.

They went to Italy in June.

Uses:

Completed actions in the past: She graduated in 2020.

Sequences of past actions: He woke up, brushed his teeth, and left.

B. Past Continuous

Form: was/were + present participle

Examples:

I was reading when the phone rang.

They were watching TV.

Uses:

Ongoing past actions interrupted by another: I was sleeping when it started to rain.

Background context: People were chatting as the meeting began.

C. Past Perfect

Form: had + past participle

Examples:

Tafa had finished the book before class.

they had already left when he arrived.

Uses:

Actions taken prior to a previous action: He had cooked dinner before she got home.

D. Past Perfect Continuous

Form: had been + present participle

Examples:

Tunde had been studying all night.

Uses:

Duration of an activity before a past moment: We had been walking for miles when it started raining.

Future Tense Forms and Uses

English expresses the future in several ways, often using modal verbs or periphrastic constructions (multi-word expressions).

A. Simple Future

Form: will + base verb

She will have finished the project by the deadline.

Uses:

Completed action before a future time: By next year, I will have saved enough.

D. Future Perfect Continuous

Form: will have been + present participle

Examples:

I will have been working here for 10 years.

They will have been driving for hours.

Uses:

The amount of time that an action lasts till a future point:

She will have twenty years of teaching experience by December.

Tense vs. Time

It's important to remember that tense and time are not always exactly the same:

“If I were you...” uses past tense to express a present hypothetical.

“I am meeting him tomorrow” uses present continuous for the future.

“She has gone to the store” suggests a past action with present relevance.

Mastery of tense is fundamental for clear and precise communication in academic writing. It allows writers to convey not just when events occur, but how they unfold, relate to one another, and connect to the present or future. Awareness of tense patterns also strengthens reading comprehension and stylistic awareness in scholarly texts.

CHAPTER FOUR

Phrases in English Grammar

What is a Phrase?

A group of words that function as a sentence is called a phrase. A phrase lacks a subject-verb combination, in contrast to a clause. In other words, phrases do not contain finite verbs. Phrases act as building blocks within sentences, performing specific grammatical functions such as serving as a subject, object, or modifier.

Key Features of Phrases:

A phrase may consist of one or more words.

It is devoid of a finite verb and a subject..

It functions as a single part of speech.

Types of Phrases

The common varieties of English phrases are as follows: Each type is based on a head word that establishes the grammatical function of the entire phrase:

A. Noun Phrase (NP): Group of words built around a noun (the head) that functions as a subject, object, or complement. Structure: (Determiner) + (Modifiers) + Noun + (Postmodifiers)

Examples:

The tall student in the front row is answering the question.

I met a professor of linguistics.

Functions:

Subject: The old book is valuable.

Object: She read a fascinating novel.

Complement: He became a teacher.

B. Adjectival Phrase (AdjP): A phrase with an adjective as the head, possibly accompanied by modifiers or qualifiers. Structure: (Intensifier/Modifier) + Adjective + (Complement)

Examples:

The lecture was extremely boring.

She is proud of her achievement.

Functions:

Modifies a noun: The extremely tired student left early.

Subject complement: The food was delicious.

C. Adverbial Phrase (AdvP): A phrase built around an adverb, a modifier of a verb, an *adjective*, or *adverb*. Structure: (Modifier) + *Adverb* + (Complement (optional))

Examples:

She speaks very clearly.

He arrived quite late.

Functions:

Modifies verbs: She sings beautifully.

Modifies adjectives: Quite unusual behavior.

Modifies other adverbs: Very slowly.

CHAPTER FIVE

English Clauses

What is a Clause?

A clause is a group of words that includes a predicate (a verb and everything that comes after it) and a subject. Because they contain finite verbs, clauses, as opposed to phrases, can frequently stand alone as entire sentences or serve as a component of a longer sentence. Clauses are essential to sentence structure. Mastery of clauses allows writers to vary sentence length and complexity, improving clarity and sophistication in academic writing.

Types of Clauses

Independent and dependent clauses are the two basic categories into which clauses can be generally divided. (also known as subordinate clauses).

1. Independent Clauses

An independent clause can stand alone as a sentence and express a complete thought. Structure: Subject + Finite Verb (+ Object/Complement/Modifiers)

Examples:

The students revised thoroughly.

She teaches English grammar.

2. Dependent Clauses

A dependent clause is not capable of standing alone; it relies on an independent clause to provide context and complete its meaning. Usually, relative pronouns like "who," "which," and "that," or subordinating conjunctions like "because," "although," and "when," are used to introduce these clauses.

Examples:

Because she was late...

Which he had already read...

Although they disagreed...

These require attachment to an independent clause:

Because she was late, we started without her.

He discussed the article, which he had already read.

Classification of Dependent Clauses by Function

Dependent clauses can be nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, among other functions in a phrase.

A. Noun Clauses: These are clauses that function as nouns within a sentence—subjects, objects, or complements. Noun clause markers include: That, what, whatever, who, whom, whoever, whether, if, etc.

Examples:

What he said surprised everyone. (subject)

She didn't know that he had left. (object)

The truth is that she never applied. (subject complement)

Note: Noun clauses often fill roles that could be played by a noun phrase.

B. Adjective (Relative) Clauses: These are clauses that modify a noun, functioning like adjectives. Adjectival clause markers include: Who, whom, whose, which, that (relative pronouns)

Examples:

The professor who teaches syntax is retiring.

I read the book that you recommended.

C. Adverbial Clauses: These are verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs modifiers, expressing time, cause, condition, contrast, or manner. Adverbial Clauses markers include: Because, although, when, if, since, unless, while, before, after, even though, etc.

Examples:

If you study hard, you will succeed. (condition)

He left because he was tired. (cause)

Although it was raining, we went out. (contrast)

When the bell rang, they left the room. (time)

Note: These clauses answer questions like when? why? how? under what condition?

Clauses are the core units of sentence structure in English. Mastery of both independent and dependent clauses - and the ability to combine them flexibly - empowers students to write with precision, variety, and sophistication. In academic contexts, clear clause usage supports logical reasoning, clarity of expression, and syntactic elegance.

CHAPTER SIX

Structural Patterns in English Language

The teacher should emphasise the importance of recognising structural changes in word forms, as these changes convey crucial grammatical information. For instance, students should understand how singular and plural forms of nouns indicate quantity, while tense forms such as present and past reflect the timing of actions. Furthermore, comprehending the degrees of comparison for adjectives and adverbs helps students to articulate meaning, allowing them to express varying intensities or qualities.

In order to demonstrate the hierarchical aspect of language structure, educators should also emphasise how different word categories come together to produce phrases and sentences. Groups of words, such as noun phrases or verb phrases, serve as building blocks that create more complex expressions. Understanding how these groups interact and connect is fundamental for students to construct coherent and grammatically accurate sentences. Furthermore, students are to understand that structural words, including conjunctions and prepositions, play a vital role in linking ideas and establishing relationships between clauses. Consider the following:

a. NOUN + BE + NOUN

Example; Tafa + is + a teacher.

Tafa and Tunde are students.

b. NOUN + BE + ADVERB

Example; The car is fast.

The cat is quick.

c. NOUN + BE + ADJECTIVE(S)

Example; The sky is blue.

The flowers are beautiful.

The movie was exciting.

d. NOUN + TRANSITIVE VERBS

Example; The chef prepared the meal.

The student completed the assignment.

The artist made a lovely mural.

e. NOUN + INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Example; The baby cried.

The sun set.

The flowers bloomed.

Teachers are encouraged to teach the transformations in the form of statements:

Statement form in **ordinary direct** statement - *I have a book*

Statement form in **negative** statement form - *I do not have a book*

Statement form in **question** form - *Do I have a book?*

Statement form in **negative question** form - *Isn't she coming?*

Statement form in **tag question** form - *Come here, will you?*

Another important aspect to consider when teaching grammatical structures is verb forms. There are five primary verb forms in English, and it's essential for teachers to cover these due to their role in conveying tense and meaning. Each verb form has its advantages and disadvantages, which can impact how learners grasp the nuances of the language.

Base Form:

Simplest form of the verb (e.g., run, eat, play). *"I can run fast."*

Past Simple:

Indicates an action that has been completed (e.g., ran, ate, played).

"She ate lunch at noon."

Past Participle: Used in perfect tenses and passive voice (e.g., run, eaten, played).

"They have played soccer."

Present Participle:

Formed by adding -ing (e.g., running, eating, playing). *"He is running in the park."*

Third Person Singular:

The form used with he, she, and it (e.g., runs, eats, plays). *"She runs every morning."*

There is a need to also teach the comparative forms of adjective:

- Tall → Taller - *"John is taller than Mike."*
- Fast → Faster - *"The cheetah is faster than the lion."*
- Happy → Happier - *"She feels happier today than she did yesterday."*

Teachers of English may also teach the word order because by merely changing the order of the word, it may impact meaning.

- a. S V O
 The man is here

- b. S V O
 He can man the office

Word order plays a crucial role in helping English words form grammatical structures. Without the correct sequence of words, it becomes impossible to create more complex units of expression. Consequently, each part of a sentence has a designated position that contributes to its overall meaning and coherence.

- a. The standard order of the main sentence element is subject + verb + object or complement. An indirect object precedes the direct object:

"Mr Sikiru (subject) gave (verb) the students (indirect object) a lesson (direct object)."

- b. Adverbials (How? Where? When?) usually come after the verb or after the object:

“Ayisha read the sentence quickly (How?) He waited at home (Where) till 2 pm (When?).”

- c. Single adjectives follow their headword - the word they modify.

“Bash is a nice man of his people.”

Sentence Patterns

Sentence patterns are the structure and arrangement of words in a sentence. The understanding the patterns assist in generating clear and constructive sentences. Here are some common sentence patterns with relevant examples:

1. Simple Sentence (S-V):

Structure: Subject + Verb

Example: "The lion sleeps."

2. Simple Sentence with Object (S-V-O):

Structure: Subject + Verb + Object

Example: "Tafa jumped the fence."

3. Simple Sentence with Complement (S-V-C):

Structure: Subject + Verb + Complement

Example: "The sky is blue."

4. **Compound Sentence:**

Structure: Independent Clause + Conjunction + Independent Clause

Example: "Tafa enjoys reading because it helps him relax."

5. **Complex Sentence:**

Structure: Independent Clause + Dependent Clause

Example: "Although, it was raining, we went for a walk."

6. **Compound-Complex Sentence:**

Structure: Two Independent Clauses + One Dependent Clause

Example: "While I enjoy reading, my brother prefers watching movies, and he often suggests new films."

General Rules for Sentence Construction in English:

Mastering sentence structure in English is important and very useful for effective communication when delivering a speech, engaging in discussions, or writing various forms of content. Focusing on sentence structure - which is the logical and grammatically accurate arrangement of words, phrases, and clauses - will greatly increase the clarity, coherence, and overall impact of your messaging.

Capitalisation: In a sentence, the initial letter of the first word should be capitalised.

Example: *"Ilorin is a vibrant city."*

Ending Punctuation: An exclamation point, question mark, or period must come at the end of a sentence.

Example: *"How exciting it is to visit Ilorin!"*

Presence of Verbs: A sentence should contain at least one verb or auxiliary verb.

Example: *"They enjoy hiking in the mountains."*

Basic Structure: A sentence typically follows the structure: Subject + Verb + Object.

Example: *"Maria (subject) reads (verb) books (object)."*

Complete Thought: A sentence expresses a complete thought and is known as an independent clause.

Example: *"The sun sets in the west."*

Basic Sentence Types

A sentence comprises a grammatical whole which conveys a complete idea and is structured to consist of one or more clauses, typically following the conventional order of subject, verb, and object or complement. It must contain at least a subject and a predicate, ensuring syntactical coherence. Additionally, a sentence communicates meaning through the relationships among its words, allowing for the expression of ideas, emotions, or actions. This duality

of structure and meaning ensures that a sentence adheres to grammatical rules while effectively conveying the intended message, making it a fundamental building block of language. Sentence forms can be classified into four categories: simple, compound, complex, and compound - complex. However, mastering English sentence structure requires knowing how to integrate clauses.

a. Simple Sentence Structure

One independent clause with a subject and a verb that expresses a central thought makes up a simple sentence. Represented as: Independent clause (subject + verb + object).

Examples: "Toyyeebat enjoys travelling."
"The dog barked loudly."

b. Compound Sentence Structure

A compound sentence comprises two or more independent clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions and or a semicolon. Coordinating conjunctions include the following - for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

Examples: "I wanted to go for a walk, but it started to rain."
"Ruqqeyat loves to cook; her sister prefers dining out."

c. Complex Sentence Structure

There is at least one dependent clause and one independent clause in a complex sentence. Dependent clauses do not convey a complete idea and often preceded by subordinating conjunctions. A comma is used

before the independent clause if the dependent clause appears first; if the independent clause comes first, there is no need for a comma.

Examples: "Although it was raining, they decided to continue their Durbar."

"She will join us if she finishes her work on time."

d. Compound - Complex Sentence Structure

Compound and complicated sentence elements are combined in a compound-complex sentence. Using both coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, it must have a minimum of two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

Examples: "While I enjoy hiking, my brother prefers cycling, and he often invites me along."

"The teacher explained the lesson, but the students, who were tired, struggled to pay attention."

CHAPTER SEVEN

Common Errors and Correct Usage

Common grammatical mistakes are a frequent hurdle for many when constructing sentences. These mistakes, known as **common errors**, can arise from various factors, such as the incorrect use of *articles, numbers, gender, nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, and tenses*. For example, misusing articles can obscure specificity, while erroneous pronoun usage can create ambiguity about the subject. Additionally, verb tense errors can disrupt the timeline of a narrative, making it challenging for readers or listeners to grasp the intended meaning.

It is essential to recognise these common errors and understand their correct forms. This knowledge is not merely beneficial; it is imperative for anyone who wishes to enhance their language skills. By identifying patterns in our mistakes, learners can effectively avoid them in the future. This understanding will significantly improve learners' grammatical accuracy and, in turn, boost their confidence when speaking and writing in English. As students become more proficient, they will communicate their thoughts and ideas with greater clarity and effectiveness, leading to improved interactions in both personal and professional contexts. Acknowledging and correcting these common errors is a crucial step toward mastering the language and achieving effective communication

Articles

Incorrect Use of Articles

She saw *a* elephant at the zoo.

He wants *the* banana for breakfast.

Correct Use of Articles

She saw *an* elephant at the zoo.

He wants *a* banana for breakfast.

Explanation:

"Elephant" begins with a vowel sound, so it should include "an" instead of "a."

If referring to any banana, "a" should be used. "The" implies a specific banana, which may not be intended.

Numbers

She has three *apple* in her bag.

He received five *dollar* from his friend.

She has three *apples* in her bag.

He received five *dollars* from his friend.

Explanation

In English, nouns must be appropriately pluralized to match the quantity being indicated. For instance, in the sentence "She has three *apple* in her bag," the word "apple" should be changed to "apples," resulting in: "She has three apples in her bag." Similarly, in "He received *five dollar* from his friend," the term "dollar" needs to be pluralised to "dollars," leading to: "He received five dollars from his friend." Therefore, the correct plural forms "apples" and "dollars" align with the quantities three and five, respectively.

Nouns

She has a lot of *informations* to share. She has a lot of *information* to share.

I need two *advices* on this topic. I need two *advice* on this topic.

Explanation:

Certain nouns are uncountable and should not be pluralised. For example, in the sentence "She has a lot of *informations* to share," the term "informations" is incorrect because "information" should be used in its singular form. The correct phrasing is: "She has a lot of information to share." Similarly, in "I need two *advices* on this topic," "advices" is inaccurate since "advice" is also an uncountable noun and does not take a plural form. The proper version is: "I need two pieces of advice on this topic." Therefore, using "information" and "pieces of advice" correctly demonstrates the proper treatment of uncountable nouns.

Verbs

She *go* to the store every Saturday. She *goes* to the store every Saturday.

They *was* excited about the trip. They *were* excited about the trip.

Explanation:

Verbs must match their subjects in both tense and number. For example, in the sentence "She *go* to the store every Saturday," the verb "go" is incorrectly paired with the singular subject "she." The correct version is "She *goes* to the store every Saturday." Similarly, in

"They *was* excited about the trip," the verb "was" is not appropriate for the plural subject "they." The correct form is "They *were* excited about the trip." Therefore, using "goes" and "were" correctly illustrates the significance of subject-verb agreement.

Adverbs

She sings *beautiful*.

She sings *beautifully*.

He runs *quick*.

He runs *quickly*.

Explanation:

It's important to use adverbs in their proper forms to effectively modify verbs. For instance, in the sentence "*She sings beautiful*," the word "*beautiful*" is incorrect; the correct adverb is "beautifully," which makes the accurate sentence: "She sings beautifully." Similarly, in "He runs quick," the term "quick" is inappropriate; the right adverb is "quickly," resulting in the correct phrase: "He runs quickly." Therefore, using "beautifully" and "quickly" demonstrates how adverbs should properly enhance verbs.

Adjectives

She is *more smarter* than her brother.

Sheo is *smarter* than her
brther.

He has a *redest* car in the neighborhood.

He has the *reddest* car in
the neighborhood.

Explanation:

Using adjectives correctly is essential for clear communication in English. For instance, in the phrase "She is *more smarter* than her brother," the adjective "smarter" is already comparative, so "more" is unnecessary; the accurate version is "She is smarter than her brother." Similarly, in "He has *a redest* car in the neighborhood," the adjective "redest" is incorrect, and the appropriate form is "reddest," resulting in "He has the reddest car in the neighborhood." Therefore, precise use of adjectives enhances clarity in comparisons and descriptions.

Prepositions

She is good *in* math.

She is good *at* math.

He walked to the store *with* his dog.

He walked to the store *without* his dog.

Explanation:

Using prepositions accurately is essential for clear communication in English. For example, in the phrase "She is good in math," the correct preposition should be "at," resulting in "She is good at math." Furthermore, while "He walked to the store with his dog" is grammatically acceptable, it should be phrased as "He walked to the store without his dog" if the intention was to indicate that the dog was not accompanying him. Therefore, proper preposition usage is crucial for conveying precise meanings.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Agreement in Grammar

Agreement in grammar refers to the correspondence in form between words in a sentence. Subject-verb agreement and pronoun-antecedent agreement are the two primary categories.

Subject - Verb Agreement

The requirement that the verb in a sentence match the subject in number is known as subject-verb agreement. The verb must be plural if the subject is numerous, and it must be singular if the subject is singular.

Examples:

Singular: The cat *sits* on the mat.

Plural: The cats *sit* on the mat.

Rules and Examples:

1. **Compound Subjects:** Subjects joined by "and" usually houses take a plural verb.

Example: Tafa and Amoke *are* often in the news.

2. **Collective Nouns:** Depending on whether a noun (such as squad, committee, or family) functions as a single entity or as distinct individuals, it can be either singular or plural.

Example (unit): The team *is* celebrating its victory.

Example (individuals): The team members *are* signing autographs.

3. **Indefinite Pronouns:** Singular indefinite pronouns such as everyone, each, nobody, anyone, someone, require singular verbs.

Example: Everyone *is* excited about the Durbar celebration.

4. **"Or" and "Nor":** If two subjects are joined by "or" or "nor," the verb must agree with the closest subject.

Example: Either the manager *or* the employees *are* responsible.

Example: Either the employees *or* the manager *is* responsible.

5. **Uncountable Nouns:** Abstract nouns and uncountable nouns are considered singular subjects.

Example: Honesty *is* the best policy.

6. **Titles:** Titles of scripts, movies, and other works are considered as singular.

Example: "Big Brother Naija" *is* a popular series in Nigeria National Television.

Pronoun -Antecedent Agreement

A pronoun must have the same number, person, and gender as its antecedent, or the word it refers to, in order for there to be pronoun-antecedent agreement.

Basic Examples:

Singular: The dog wagged *its* tail.

Plural: The students completed *their* homework.

Rules and Examples:

1. **Compound Antecedents:** Antecedents connected by "and" normally take a plural pronoun.

Example: Toy and Faruq donated *their* money to charity.

2. **Singular Indefinite Pronouns:** Use singular pronouns and singular indefinite pronouns.

Example: Everyone should come with his or her own lunch.

3. **"Or" and "Nor":** When antecedents are connected by "or" or "nor," the pronoun agrees with the antecedent nearest to it.

Example: Either the director or the actors will present *their* ideas.

4. **Collective Nouns:** Collective nouns can be singular or plural based on whether they relate to the group as a whole or as individuals.

Example (unit): The jury reached *its* verdict.

Example (individuals): The jury members expressed *their* opinions.

5. **Company Names:** Company names generally take singular pronouns.

Example: Cobra announced *its* new product line.

6. **Singular Subjects with "each" or "every":** When singular subjects are preceded by "each" or "every," the pronoun is singular.

Example: Every student and teacher must bring *their* ID.

CHAPTER NINE

Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks are essential symbols that increase the clarity, strength and efficacy of written communication. They help structure sentences, indicate pauses, and convey specific meanings. Below are some common punctuation marks, their symbols, and their functions:

| Name | Mark | What they stand for |
|-------------------|-------------|---|
| The full - stop | (.) | It is a symbol that is represented with a tiny dot. A terminal punctuation mark that signifies the conclusion of a declarative statement, indicating a complete thought. |
| The comma | (,) | A symbol that is represented with a sharp curve to the left. A mark used to denote a pause between elements within a sentence, facilitating the separation of items in a series or clauses for clarity. |
| The question mark | (?) | A mark that indicates an interrogative sentence, signaling that a response or information is being sought. |
| The colon | (:) | A mark employed to introduce a list, a quotation, or a further |

| | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------|---|
| | | elaboration, often following an independent clause. |
| The semi-colon | (;) | A mark that suggests a stronger relationship than a period but a weaker one than a conjunction, it is used to connect closely related independent sentences. |
| The dash | (--) | A mark that introduces an abrupt change in thought or adds emphasis, often indicating an afterthought or clarification. |
| The hyphen | (-) | Is used to form compound words (must not be confused with the dash) i.e. Mother-in-law. |
| The exclamation mark | (!) | A mark that conveys strong emotion or emphasis, typically found in exclamatory sentences |
| The brackets | () | Symbols used to enclose supplementary information or clarifications within a sentence, often indicating that the enclosed content is not part of the main text. |
| Quotation marks or (inverted commas) | (“ ”) | Punctuation marks that enclose direct speech, quotations, or titles of |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| | | short works, indicating the exact words spoken or written by another. |
|--|--|---|

Abbreviations

Abbreviations are condensed forms of words or phrases created to facilitate brevity in writing and communication. They serve to simplify complex terminology, enhance efficiency, and improve readability, particularly in contexts where space is limited, such as in technical writing, note-taking, or digital communication.

Types:

Initialisms: Created by combining the initial letters of a collection of phrase, with each letter pronounced separately (e.g., CID for “Criminal Investigation Department”).

Acronyms: Similar to initialisms, but these are labeled and pronounced a single word (e.g., NEPA for "National Electric Power Authority").

Shortened Words: Portions of a word are used to represent the whole (e.g., "info" for "information").

Contractions: Words shortened by omitting certain letters, often indicated by an apostrophe (e.g., "don't" for "do not").

Usage: Abbreviations are commonly employed in various fields, including academia, medicine, technology, and business, to streamline communication and reduce redundancy. They are particularly useful in

contexts where rapid communication is essential, such as in emails, text messages, and technical documentation.

Standards: The use of abbreviations often follows specific conventions and style guides (e.g., APA, MLA) that dictate when and how to use them, ensuring clarity and consistency within the text.

Importance: Abbreviations enhance the efficiency of written communication by allowing for quicker expression of ideas while maintaining clarity. However, it is crucial to ensure that the intended audience is familiar with the abbreviations used to prevent misunderstandings. In sum, abbreviations are an integral part of language that contributes to effective communication by balancing brevity with clarity.

CHAPTER TEN

Essay Writing

The word "essay" emanated from the French lexicon "essai," which means "attempt" or "trial." An essay is a way to share ideas or thoughts with others. Writing an essay is the act of creating a well-structured essay that argues or tells a story about a certain subject or topic, usually in prose. To the Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL), "An essay is a discourse that presents an argument or story supported by verified evidence". An essay is an attempt to reflect the writer's own thoughts and feelings. It generally consists of an introduction outlining the main idea, body paragraphs that provide supporting evidence or examples, and a conclusion summarising the key points. Effective essay writing requires clarity, coherence, and logical flow, alongside proper grammar and style. This resource emphasises the importance of structure and clarity in crafting effective essays.

While there are no strict rules for writing an essay, there are some helpful steps to follow. First, consider who will read your essay and why you are writing it. After you have your main idea, gather relevant facts and generate an outline. An outline is a basic blueprint of your writing intentions. Keep in mind that the objective is to engage the reader. To do this, your writing should be clear and organised. Start with a captivating opening that draws the reader in and piques their interest. Develop each paragraph in the essay's body carefully, paying attention to coherence, clarity, and logical flow. And finally, the reader should be left with a lasting impression by your conclusion, which should also provide a summary of the key themes.

Structure of an Essay

1. Title:

The title should be concise and engaging, reflecting the central idea or direction of the essay

2. Introduction

- *Hook*: An captivating opening statement or interrogation designed to catch the reader's attention.
- *Context*: Background knowledge that provides context for the topic. This may include definitions, historical context, or a brief overview of the subject.
- *Thesis Statement*: A concise and precise statement that indicates the essay's primary focus. It typically outlines the key points that will be discussed.

3. Body Paragraphs

- The body paragraph should focus on one main idea that supports the thesis statement. The distinctive structure of a body paragraph includes the following:
- *Topic Sentence*: A sentence that presents the central thought of the paragraph.
- *Evidence and Examples*: Supporting details, constructs, quotes, or illustrations that substantiate the topic sentence. This is where you provide research or personal observations that back up your claims.
- *Analysis*: Explanation of how the evidence supports the topic sentence and links back to the thesis statement. This is crucial for demonstrating critical thinking.

- *Transition*: A sentence which smoothly connects the current paragraph to the next, maintaining the flow of the essay.

-

4. Conclusion

- **Restate Thesis**: A reconstruction of the thesis statement, reminding the reader of the actual argument.
- **Summary of Major Points**: A brief overview of the main points discussed in the body paragraphs, reinforcing how they support the thesis.
- **Final Thoughts**: A conclusion that might contain the argument's ramifications, a call to action, or an intriguing query to get the reader to think.

Here is an example of an *introductory paragraph* on the title **“The Food I Like Best”**

Food is not merely sustenance; it is a reflection of culture, tradition, and personal experiences. Among the myriad of dishes that grace the tables of the Yoruba people of Nigeria, one particular food stands out as my favorite: Eba and Ewedu. This beloved dish, rooted in the rich culinary heritage of Western Nigeria, embodies the essence of Yoruba culture and has become a staple in homes and celebrations alike. What draws me to Eba and Ewedu is not just their delightful textures and flavors, but also the deep connection to my inheritance that they represent. Eba, made from cassava flour, offers a unique, stretchy consistency that pairs perfectly with the savory, thick Ewedu soup, made from jute leaves. This combination is not only satisfying but also showcases the versatility of Yoruba cuisine. Each meal evokes cherished memories of family gatherings, where stories are shared, and laughter fills the air, making it more than just a meal; it is an experience steeped in love and tradition. Whether enjoyed during

festive occasions or as a comforting everyday meal, Eba and Ewedu symbolize togetherness and cultural pride. As I reflect on my fondness for this dish, I realize it encompasses not only flavors but also the values and connections that shape my identity as a Yoruba person.

The Body

Eba and Ewedu hold a special place in my heart, not just for their flavors, but for the rich cultural significance they embody. Eba is made by mixing cassava flour with hot water until it transforms into a smooth, stretchy dough. This process is often accompanied by the chatter and laughter of family members working together in the kitchen, making it a communal activity that strengthens bonds. The preparation of Ewedu, on the other hand, involves cooking jute leaves with spices and blending them into a thick, flavorful soup. This dish is a testament to the Yoruba people's resourcefulness, as it utilizes local ingredients to create something truly special. The combination of Eba and Ewedu represents the heart of Yoruba culinary tradition, celebrating both the flavors and the cultural practices that accompany them.

The experience of enjoying Eba and Ewedu goes beyond mere taste; it is deeply intertwined with memories of family gatherings and celebrations. I remember festive occasions, where the aroma of Ewedu wafted through the air, inviting everyone to the table. As we sat together, sharing stories and laughter, each bite of Eba dipped into the rich Ewedu brought us closer. This dish is often served during significant events, such as weddings and birthdays, where it symbolizes unity and togetherness. The act of sharing food is an important aspect of Yoruba culture, and Eba and Ewedu serve as a

centerpiece for these cherished moments, reminding us of our roots and the importance of family.

Moreover, Eba and Ewedu reflect the values and traditions that shape my identity as a Yoruba person. They represent not only a meal but a celebration of heritage and community. Eating this dish instills a sense of pride in my cultural background, as it connects me to generations before me who have enjoyed the same flavors. It serves as a reminder of the resilience of our culinary traditions, passed down through the years despite changing times. As I savor each bite, I feel a profound appreciation for my heritage and the stories that accompany this beloved dish. Eba and Ewedu are more than just food; they embody the spirit of the Yoruba culture, celebrating love, family, and the rich tapestry of our shared history.

The Conclusion

In conclusion, Eba and Ewedu are not just my favorite foods; they represent the heart of Yoruba culture and family. Every meal reminds me of the love and togetherness we share during gatherings. The tasty combination of stretchy Eba and flavorful Ewedu brings back happy memories and helps me feel proud of my Yoruba identity. As I think about this beloved dish, I see how it reflects our values of community and tradition passed down through generations. Eba and Ewedu will always be special to me, symbolizing what it means to be part of a rich and vibrant culture.

Types of Essays

Essays consist of four main types: Narrative, Descriptive, Argumentative, and Expository. Each type has its own style, language, and structure.

1. **Narrative Essays:** These tell a story or recount personal experiences.
 - Examples:
 - "A Day That Changed My Life"
 - "The Journey to My Hometown"
 - "Overcoming My Greatest Fear"
2. **Descriptive Essays:** These types of essay focus on detailing a person, place, or event, using vivid language to produce a strong imagination in the mind of the readers.

Examples:

- "The Beauty of the African Savannah"
- "My Grandmother's Kitchen"
- "A Rainy Day in the City"

3. **Argumentative Essays:** These present a clear argument or position on a topic, supported by evidence and reasoning.

Examples:

- "Should Hijab be Mandatory in Schools?"
- "Should College Education Be Free? "
- "Is Climate Change: The Greatest Threat to Humanity?"

4. **Expository Essays:** This aim to explain, inform, or clarify a topic, relying on facts and logical reasoning.

Examples:

- "The Process of Photosynthesis"
- "How to Prepare for a Job Interview"
- "Importance of Recycling"

REFERENCES

- Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course*. Heinle & Heinle.
- Das, P. C. *Applied English grammar and composition for high school students and aspiring professionals*. New Current Book Agency (P) Ltd.
- Ergasheva, M., & Murodova, M. (2024). Sentence structure and its types. *International Scientific and Practical E-Conference: Modern Tendencies of Digital Education and Ways of Implementing Them in the Educational Process*, Brno, Czech Republic. Retrieved from file:///C:/Users/user/Downloads/100-103.pdf
- Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2002). *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lawal, M. B. (2004). *Essay and letter writing in English language: A comprehensive approach*. Haytee Press and Publishing Co. Nig. Ltd.
- Ellis, M. (2023). Sentence structure: Learn the rules for every sentence type. *Grammarly*. <https://www.grammarly.com/blog/sentence-structure/> ([grammarly.com](https://www.grammarly.com) in Bing)
- Olasehinde, O. (1997). *English for vocational students*. Department of English, Institute of General Studies, Kwara State Polytechnic.

- Purdue Online Writing Lab. (2023). Essay writing. *Purdue OWL*.
https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/general_writing/academic_writing/essay_writing/index.html (owl.purdue.edu in Bing)
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Longman.
- Yule, G. (2010). *The study of language* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.