

**A SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF THE USE OF AUXILIARY VERBS IN OFFICE**

**DOCUMENTS:**

**A CASE STUDY OF IBRAHIM BADAMASI BABANGIDA UNIVERSITY, LAPAI**

**BY**

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to Almighty God for seeing me through the difficult periods of both the course work and the writing of this thesis. In addition, I dedicate it to my twin brother, Hussain Aliyu, my dearwife, Shafaatu, and my lovely children, Hauwau,Muhammad Awwal,Muniratu and Fateemah. The work is equally dedicated to my parents, Alhaji Aliyu Muhammad and Hajiya Hauwau Aliyu who thought it wise to send me to school, and to my dear late sister Fateemah Aliyu who was one of my motivators but could not wait to see this stage.

## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has been written by me and that it is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. All quotations are indicated and the sources of information are specifically acknowledged by means of references.

Aliyu, Hassan

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Sign

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Date

**CERTIFICATION**

This thesis titled “A Syntactic Analysis of the Use of Auxiliary verbs in Office Documents: A Case Study of IBB University, Lapai” by Hassan Aliyu meets the standards and regulations governing the award of a Master of Arts Degree in English Language at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. It is considered satisfactory for its contribution to knowledge and, therefore, approved.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page.....	i
Dedication .....	ii
Declaration .....	iii
Certification.....	iv
Acknowledgements.....	v
Table of Contents .....	vi
Abstract .....	ix

### CHAPTER 1

1.1	Background to the study	1
1.2	Statement of the Research Problem	4
1.3	Research Question	4
1.4	Aim and Objectives of the study	5
1.5	Scope and Delimitation of the Study	5
1.6	Justification of the Study	6

### CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0	Introduction	7
2.1.1	Language Use and Writing Sills	7
2.1.2	Writing Skills	8
2.1.3	Office Documents	10
2.2.1	The study of Language/ Levels and Theories	12
2.2.2	Syntactic Analysis of Language	14

2.2.3 Theories of language	15	
2.3 Auxiliary verbs and their Classification	21	
2.4 Characteristics and syntactic roles of Auxiliaries	28	
2.5 Halliday's Perspective of Modality	57	
2.6 Modal Idioms		67
2.7 Catenatives Verbs Construction	71	
2.8 Theoretical Framework		72
<b>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY</b>		
3.0 Introduction		76
3.1 Sources of Data		76
3.2 Data Gathering Technique		77
3.3 Analytical Procedure	77	
<b>CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS</b>		
4.0 Introduction		
4.1 Presentation of Data		80
4.2 Analysis of Data		80
<b>4.2.1 Analysis of modal auxiliary verbs in selected IBB University, Lapai.</b>		
<b>Office documents</b>		
Would	81	
Can		83
Should		85

Must	87
Will	88
<b>4.2.2 Non Modal Auxiliary Verbs</b>	<b>91</b>
Be (am, are, is, was, were, being, been)	91
Have	94
4.3 Discussions	97
4.4 Findings	100
<b>CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION</b>	
5.0 Introduction	
5.1 Summary	102
5.2 Conclusion	103
5.3 Recommendations	104
5.4 Research's Contribution to knowledge	105
References	106
Appendix	111

## ABSTRACT

This study is specifically concerned with the syntactic analysis of the use of auxiliary verbs in office documents by writers of office documents using Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida (IBB) University, Lapai Niger State and the interpersonal meanings, and the various interpretations deduced from the use of the English auxiliary verbs in the office documents using as a case study from selected departments in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai, Niger State. The study aimed at identifying which auxiliary verbs are more wrongly used by writers of office documents in IBB University, Lapai and also highlighting the context to which writers of office documents misuse auxiliary verbs. The extent to which some office documents in IBB University, Lapai convey wrong information due to wrong use of auxiliary verbs were analysed in the office documents at IBB University, Lapai. The data used for this study were collected; thirty samples of office documents were obtained from the university Library, office of the Registrar, Student Affairs department as well as the following departments: Chemistry, Biology, Political Science, Public Administration, and Counselling Psychology provide the data for the study. The analytical procedure adopted for this study was based on the adoption of the systemic functional grammar and traditional grammar as the theoretical framework, those expressions that contain the use of auxiliary verbs from the office documents were analysed, and interpretations of the auxiliary verbs used to give insights into the difficulties faced by the writers in their use of auxiliary verbs in writing office documents. Their level of understanding of the interpersonal meaning of auxiliary verbs, most especially the non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs was also focused on for analysis. Eight and seven columns were provided to show non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs in the analysis table contained the serial numbers, the text for the analysis, the modality, the verb used, the verb intended, the interpersonal meaning, the writer's intention and reference in relation to the data for analysis. The data were analysed using the relevant aspects of eclectic theoretical framework of analysis, specifically, Halliday (1985) and Quirk et al (1972, 1982, 1985) interpersonal meaning of auxiliary verbs. In the course of the analysis of data, the study arrived at the following findings: The writers of office documents used for analysis seem to be selective in the application of English auxiliary verbs (modal verbs) such that they limit their choices to only those they are familiar with. There are exhibitions of indiscriminate use of some English auxiliary verbs like 'has' and 'have', 'will' and 'would' and 'can' and 'could'. The writers of the office documents use them as if they all have one meaning. The English auxiliary verbs 'may', 'might', 'shall' and 'should' have been scantily used by the writers of office documents in their writing. The writers of office documents experience difficulty in the application of English auxiliary verbs in their documents. The results of the analysis presented leads to the conclusion that all types of auxiliary verbs in English are problematic to some writers of office documents, but the modal auxiliary verbs that pose more problems to the writers of office documents than the primary auxiliary verbs. That is, they have limited knowledge on the uses and proper application of the rules guiding the auxiliary verbs usage. This study recommends that seminars, conferences and workshops should always be organized by the University for writers of office documents. Through attendance of such programmes writers of office documents could also gain more knowledge and even be exposed to those things which they do not know. In addition, writers of office documents should be encouraged to read widely so as to increase their knowledge in English language. That is, they should engage themselves with other educative materials outside their place of work, as these will improve their spoken and written English.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Language is very important to human beings. If life is to be lived to the fullest, language must be acquired, taught, learnt and studied well because life without language in modern civilization will be disastrous since each community is formed by the activity of a language (Bloomfield, 1945:13). Therefore, this research considers writing skills in the learning of language to be very essential. The ability to read and write is regarded as very important compared to the ability to speak (Stevense, 1974: 65) and writing is regarded as the most difficult of the language skills. Without writing, the human mind or thought could hardly be read or represented (Ong, 1993: 78)

The use of auxiliary verbs by the writers of office documents is what this study is concerned with. Auxiliary verbs are of two kinds: non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs. Nesbitt, (2001) Non-modal verbs are different from modal auxiliary verbs in the sense that the former can be used as lexical verbs. This means that they sometimes exist on their own, apart from functioning as helping verbs, while the latter cannot; they only perform the function of helping verbs in a sentence where they occur, which shows that they are as important as the lexical verbs. Therefore, any misuse or misinterpretation of the auxiliary verbs can bring about distortion of the meaning meant to be conveyed in office documents. It is interesting to note that proper use of these auxiliary verbs helps to make our writing faultless and to convey meaningful information.

The present researcher has observed that office documents from some offices and departments, especially at Ibrahim Badamasi University, Lapai in Niger State, are

characterized by the wrong use of auxiliary verbs. In a country such as Nigeria where English Language performs an official function, the use of English in offices should display less obvious errors and the need for proficiency is not only desirable but absolutely necessary. The English language is not only used as a medium of instruction from the pre- primary school to the university level, but it is also taught as a subject at every level of education. It is little wonder that English enjoys a prestigious position in our day-to-day activities. The need for office administrators to attain proficiency in English cannot be overemphasized as it will enable them to use the language correctly and efficiently.

Although such grammatical deviation as the wrong use of auxiliary verbs does not usually result in serious unintelligibility, it is indicative of the user's imperfect knowledge of the English Language. Crystal (2008) opines that a verb is an element which can display morphological contrast of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and number. Auxiliary verbs, as the name implies, are generally referred to as helping or supporting verbs (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English, 1995). They are so called for the fact that they help to make up the verbal phrase in a sentence and in particular, they perform the function of helping or supporting the main verbs, which could either, be transitive or intransitive, to carry out their functions meaningfully in sentences where they are used.

This work is specifically concerned with analysing interpersonal meanings, which are the various interpretations deduced from the use of the English auxiliary verbs in the office documents using as a case study documents of some selected departments from Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai. The interpersonal meanings are contained in communicative functions such as possibility, probability, necessity, ability, certainty, insistence, permission, obligation, prohibition, and doubts. These meanings are expressed via

the interpersonal metafunction which helps a speaker to take part in communicative acts with other people. The interpersonal metafunction is used to show the interpersonal relationships among the participants when they express meanings like degrees of possibility, probability, obligation, necessity, permission and certainty. This research is concerned with only letters of invitation to meetings, letters of query and letters or written documents on notice boards in some selected offices and departments of IBB University, Lapai. Below are some, among many of the difficulties that some office documents exhibit which reflect the misuse and misinterpretation of auxiliary verbs. Examples of such wrong use are as follow:

1. He would submit the proposal now.

Some of the office documents show the exchange of the modal auxiliary verb 'would' for 'will' as in the above sentence which renders the sentence faulty.

2. Contractors doesn't come for work any longer.

This sentence is an example of how some writer of office documents use the auxiliary verb form of (do) is used together with the negative particle ('n't) which is doesn't in place of don't and vice versa.

3. He have many assignments to carry out.

Many writers of office document at IBB University, Lapai sometimes use the auxiliary verb form 'have' for 'has' in their sentences, thereby making the sentences grammatically faulty.

4. I used to come for practice every day.

Writers of office documents sometimes misuse the modal auxiliary form 'used to' on most occasions in their sentences. They do not know or forget that this verb form can only be used as past tense indicating habitual behaviour, so they use it in sentences about present events. Consequently, the poor readers also have a problem of not being able to identify obvious

errors committed by the writers of office documents, except for advanced and average readers.

## **1.2 Statement of the Research Problem**

This study is a syntactic analysis of the use of auxiliary verbs in office document at IBB University, Lapai. Boadi, et al (1968), Oji, (1988), observed that most Nigerian office documents are full of grammatical errors and misinterpretation at the syntactic and semantic levels. The wrong use of main and auxiliary verbs is seen to be prominent. The way the main and auxiliary verbs are used in office documents brings to question the competence levels of the language users. Most of the offices visited, and interviews carried out showed that some officials do not have much knowledge of what the auxiliary and main verbs are and their applications. Hence, they misuse and misinterpret some verbs, most especially the auxiliary verbs. An examination of the way some of the office documents are written indicates that there are instances of misuse and misinterpretation of some verbs.

It is therefore based on the above that this study seeks to investigate the extent to which the poor performance in drafting and writing the documents which could be as a result of inadequate knowledge of the rules of grammar, ignorance and nonchalant attitudes to the subject matter. Obviously, these may be why some of the writers of office documents perform poorly with regard to the use of auxiliary verbs in their writing.

## **1.3 Research Questions**

This study seeks to answer, the following questions:

- a. Which of the auxiliary verbs (non-modal auxiliary verbs and modal auxiliary verbs) are often wrongly used by the writers of office documents in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai?

- b. In what contexts do writers of office documents in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai misuse auxiliary verbs?
- c. To what extent do office documents in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai convey wrong information due to misuse of auxiliary verbs?

#### **1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study**

The major aim of the research is to do a syntactic analysis of the use of auxiliary verbs in some selected office documents from Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai. Consequently, the specific objectives of carrying out this research are to:

- a. identify which auxiliary verbs are more wrongly used by writers of office documents in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai;
- b. highlight the contexts in which writers of office documents misuse auxiliary verbs;
- c. analyse the extent to which some office documents in Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai convey wrong information due to wrong use of auxiliary verbs.

#### **1.5 Scope and Delimitation of the Study**

The focus of this research is mainly on the use of auxiliary verbs in office documents of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai. Therefore, the study examines: 1. the primary auxiliary verbs (non-modal) 'Be', 'Have', 'Do'. 2. The modal auxiliary verbs: 'can', 'could', 'will', 'would', 'shall', 'should', 'may', 'must', 'might', 'ought', 'dare', 'need' and 'used to'. The work is also limited to interpersonal meanings of Halliday (1985) and Quirk et al (1972,1982) which they identify as 'possibility', 'necessity', 'probability', 'usuality', 'inclination', etc. The study hopes to bring out the various interpersonal meanings put across by the writers of office documents and make relevant recommendations where necessary. Thirty (30) samples of office documents were randomly selected from

the university library, office of the registrar, student affairs office, biology department, chemistry department, public administration, political science and Arabic department analysed in the study.

### **1.6 Justification of the Study**

The need for this study came up when it was observed that the rate of grammatical errors being committed by writers of office documents is on the rise. The research is anchored on the fact that it is important to master the rules guiding the application of English auxiliary verbs in office documents in order to ensure effective communication. Although other studies may have been carried out on office documents, this one is with emphasis on the use of auxiliary verbs in office documents particularly, by officials of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai.

It is hoped that this present study will throw more light on some of the errors that pertain to the use of auxiliary verbs in office documents. Rich knowledge of the uses of auxiliary verbs is needed, especially in syntactic signification and structures, in order to reduce the many errors inherent in official documents in most offices in Nigeria. It is important that the writer of office documents understand:

- a. How to use English auxiliary verbs.
- b. Which English auxiliary verbs to use.
- c. When to use English auxiliary verbs.
- d. Why it is necessary to use English auxiliary verb.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews related literature under the following sub-headings: Language use and Writing skills; Office Documents, Theories of Grammar (Traditional Grammar Approach, Structural Grammar Approach, Transformational Generative Grammar Approach and Systemic Functional Grammar Approach); Main and Auxiliary Verbs and their classification, Halliday's type of modality. The chapter also presents the Theoretical Framework on which the study is anchored.

#### 2.1 Language Use and Writing Skills

Language is the most common and probably the most vital system of communication. Without language for communication, there will be no platform for the cross pollination of ideas, education, entertainment and the achievement of man's numerous social desires. As such, scholars have made many different attempts to define and characterize the nature and function of language. Locke (1665:53) in his essay on "The significance of words" remarks that; "God having designed man for a sociable creature, made Him not only with an inclination, and under necessity, to Have fellowship with those of his kind, but furnished Him with language, which was to be the greatest instrument And common tie of society"

Strang (1970) agrees with Locke's stance on the importance of language to mankind when he observed that, "It is impossible to conceive of human societies without language, human societies, at least as composed, and would totally disintegrate."

Allerton (1979:13) viewed language as; “A tool, an instrument or machine, which performs, essentially, a communicative function”;while Gimson (1980:4) is also of the view that “A language is a system of conventional signals (symbols) used for communication”. Allerton (1979) and Gimson (1980), all viewed language as a system of symbols designed for the purpose of communication. In addition, Robins (1979:13) feels that one the feature of ‘language’ is that it is... “Adaptable and modifiable according to the ability and state of the user, the purpose to which it is put and the situation in which it is used.”

From the above views, one can say that all natural or human languages contain within them different varieties. When we talk, for example, of the English language, we do not talk of static conglomeration of lexical features which are specific in their use as regards the social context in which they may be uttered. Lexical features tend to have different circumstances, for example, a distinction could be made according to the formality level of words in which case some words tend to be more formal than others, like “Dear John” compared with “Dear Mr. John” or “Dear Sir” that one writes as salutation in letters.

As a result of such differences in the lexical features of languages, some of these features have that distinct characteristic of occurring in restricted situations only, so that their occurrence indicates a particular situation in which they are most likely to be uttered in some office documents.

### **2.1.1 Writing Skills**

Writing skills are an important part of communication; good writing skills allow you to communicate your message with clarity and ease to a far larger audience than through face to face or telephone conversations. The skills involved in writing are grammar, spelling and punctuation, which are key in written communications. The readers will form an opinion of

you, the author, based on both the content and presentation, and errors are likely to lead them to form a negative impression.

Ibibleye and Animasaun, (2004), observe that writing constitutes perhaps one of the most difficult aspects of the English Language syllabus and a difficult aspect of daily living. Writing is difficult, probable because most learners do not recognize writing for what it is worth; writing is worth quite a lot. However, practice is an essential aspect of writing, which is commonly ignored. Most people admire established writers for the beauty of their essay, while losing sight of the fact that such writers have been at the process for years. Nobody is born a writer; all writers are made through conscientious and unrelenting efforts, which result in evolving and improving their styles. Writing is an intimidating ‘director’. There is the tendency, among learners, to be intimidated and in fact, overwhelmed by their first initial efforts, which could scare them off writing. No writing evolves suddenly; it is an impromptu measure. It takes time and energy to master it. Writing is divided into three stages viz:

1. Pre-writing Stage
2. Writing Stage and
3. Re-writing Stage. (Ibibleye and Animasaun, 2004:88)

Pre-writing Stage is the preparation stage of writing, which involves two steps; brainstorming and outlining. The writing stage involves making a draft in continuous prose of ideas outlined in the pre-writing stage. To start with, you have to identify a purpose or point for your paper. A point or purpose stated directly is often called a “Thesis Statement” or “Thesis Sentence.” You can do this by asking yourself, “Why am I writing this?” “What am I trying to get across to the reader?” “Why would someone want to read this?” “The essential element of this stage is

introduction, body and conclusion. The Re-writing Stage- Is the finishing stage of writing. It is an ongoing process.

### **2.1.2 Office Documents**

A written or printed paper that bears the original, official, or legal form of something and can be used to furnish decisive or information. Office Documents include papers for adoption, authorization to conduct business, copies of passport, employment letters, police clearance, powers of attorney, transcripts, etc. (Buckland, 1998). Other types of office include, birth certificate, death certificates. The following are the groups of office documents we have: Personal papers, Memos, Letters.

**Personal papers** are defined as documentary materials, or any reasonably Segre-gable portion thereof, of a private or nonpublic character that do not relate to or have any effect upon the conduct of agency business. Three generally accepted classes of personal papers:

.Materials accumulated before joining government service that is not used subsequently in the transaction of Government business; Materials relating solely to an individual's private affairs, such as outside business pursuits, professional affiliations, or private political associations that do not relate to agency business; Diaries, journals, or other personal notes that are not prepared or used for, or circulated or communicated in the course, of transacting Government business.

**A memo** is a note sent to people in your office. You may only send it to one specific person, or it may pertain to several. Usually it is to remind or inform them of a conference date, a luncheon, etc. A Memo is also a document put out by a company representative to give instructions, make an announcement, etc. Before email was popular, memos were the primary way to communicate those messages.

**A memo**, a clip from the word “memorandum”, is a short note which is normally sent out to alert employees, students, or a group of people about an announcement, new rule change, or other important information.

**A letter** is a message that is sent by a person to another meant to convey [information](#). It can be short or long, and it has many types: thank you letters, personal letters, and business letters.

A business letter is exchanged between businesses and their clients. It contains more words and information and uses formal language. Each word in a business letter is carefully selected and planned for since it is intended for communicating with people who are vital to a business or company. It addresses a specific topic and is sent to specific individuals. It can be as long as the sender wants it to be and is meant to be read only by the intended recipient. It is usually sent through a courier or delivered by a representative of the company.

An office document which this research focuses on can also be seen as a paper form that is used to communicate facts, observations or information. An office document can be ‘classified’, meaning it provides confidential information to a restricted and authorized few ‘public’. In other words, it will provide non-sensitive material for public consumption, or in the case of professional or business structure, to all employees and staff members; and ‘research’, meaning it will provide an account of historic event. Office documents can be any number of classifications depending on the context, including ‘contract’, or ‘artifact’, such as a legal claim or notion used for litigation. The following includes the types of office documents:

1. Empirical office Documents- This is where information is obtained through observations and this includes, documents of records like newspapers, magazine , oral histories and historical documents, such as religion texts and personal essays.

2 .Factual and Verifiable Office Documents- This includes text-books, novels, recipe books and encyclopedias.

3. Web Office Documents- Includes web page, web log and wiki. A good office Document will effectively communicate a key set of objectives or provide information that answers a question. A memo is the type of office document that this work focuses on since it is a note sent to one or several persons to remind or inform them of meeting, workshop, seminars, and conference.

## **2.2 The Study of Language/Levels and Theories**

Palmer (1965) says, “Language as a means of communication among people has a sensitive aspect which is the verbs”. Therefore, speaking and writing correct and meaningful sentences could be likened to trying to operate the verbal form of the language involved. Verbal forms are the words that carry any information that one wants to pass across. Based on these observations one can deduce that verbal forms are any message meant to be passed across.

To Palmer (1982), language is one of the most complicated and important human activities. Like science, art and the humanities, everyday affairs will be impossible without language. Furthermore, what is a major purpose of our formal education is both to improve old and familiar uses of language and also give us new uses so that the various things that we want to say can be welded into a verbally consistent form. To some degree, the ways in

which we use language determine our outlook on the world, our political decisions and our relationship with people. Indeed, to be human requires language. It is our many linguistic activities that separate us from other species or beasts. To fulfil more completely our human capacities requires more and more mastery of the myriad uses of language (Palmer 1982). In general, a large part of the serious enterprises of the human race is precisely to discover how the various things that we want to say can be welded into a written and verbal consistent whole.

Linguists acknowledge the existence of grammar in the study of language. Grammar is what Yule (1997) calls linguistic etiquette and is defined by Azikiwe (1998) as rules that govern the use of language. McGregor (1971) states that grammar is nothing else but the rules and observations drawn from the speech of mankind which teach us to speak and pronounce, to speak and write properly and with exactness. Grammars vary in their coverage; they are sometimes restricted to syntax, which is the way words are combined into structures of phrases, clauses and sentences (Greenbaum, 1996). But grammar may also involve description of one or more of language components: phonetic (the possible sounds and sound patterns), morphology (the study of the internal structures of words or word formation), phonology (the descriptive sounds patterns), orthography (conventional spellings), syntax vocabulary and semantics (the meaning of words and sentences) and pragmatics (the interpretation of utterances in context). It is the syntactic level of language analysis that this research focus on using the writer of office documents of IBB University, Lapai as a case study.

### **2.2.1 Syntactic Analysis of Language**

Syntactic Analysis is the breaking down of a sentence into its component parts of speech with an explanation from the form, function and syntactic relationship of each part. However, syntactic analysis examines closely or subjects to detail analysis language elements/features, especially by breaking up into components. Typical human language users have a remarkable ability to analyse sounds and other gestures in a certain very sophisticated way. One of our main goals in studying language is to understand how this is done, and how that ability arises in the human mind. This conception defines our field of linguistics as a branch of cognitive psychology. Of course, cognition depends on neurophysiology, and neurophysiology depends on the physics of organic matter, and so linguistics is ultimately part of the scientific study of the natural world. Like these other sciences, it is experimental.

One of the ways to study language is to look first at an organism linguistic “input” and “output.” Examining the input we can explore, in the first place, the physical properties of linguistic signals. The relevant output includes our linguistics behaviour, but also all the other changes and behaviour that are caused by language: What we say, how we say it, how we react to what we hear, etc. From these, we can infer something about the distinctive contribution made by the organism and ultimately something about how the distinctive biological and cognitive properties of the organism make the acquisition and use of language possible. When we look at human language use, it is true that some utterances are repeated frequently (like How are you?, and I’m fine thank you). But when we study the matter more carefully, we find that the number of sentences that people actually produce is so large that if you count all the sentences people utter, well over half of them are sentences that will only ever be spoken or written once.

### **2.2.2 Theories of Grammar**

In this section it is important for us to carry out an assessment of some theories of language (grammar) that are relevant to this work. This is necessary because auxiliary verbs have consistently featured prominently in several textbooks on language. This assessment will enable us to come out with a model that is suitable for this work. Considering the fact that the non-native speakers of English must be competent in English grammar in order to communicate in English without errors, the term, ‘grammar’, needs to be defined for more understanding of what grammar is all about and to provide us with a focus in the present study.

Greenbaum (1988) defines grammar as a general theory of language description. In essence, grammar refers to the properties and processes that underlie the use of language. This means that speakers and writers of office documents are expected to be equipped with the knowledge of the rules of the language they intend to speak and to apply them properly when using them. The theories of language to be discussed in this section include:

- a. The Traditional Grammar Approach.
- b. The Structural Grammar Approach.
- c. Transformational Generative Grammar Approach.
- d. Systemic Functional Grammar Approach.

#### **Traditional Grammar**

Traditional grammar precedes what is now regarded as the scientific approach to the study of language. Its approach is one that is normative, definition-oriented and prescriptive in nature. It represents an attempt to prescribe the rules for language use. It prescribes rather than merely describes language. Emphasis is on correct usage, that is, what speakers should say

rather than what they actually say. Indeed, it is this attitude to correctness that has always led to prescribing what sort of language ought to be used. It is the traditional grammar that has given us most of the notions that we used today in grammatical descriptions. Such terms as 'noun', 'verb', 'adverb,' preposition, object, subject, auxiliary verbs', are due to traditional grammar. These terms are what the traditional grammarians used to analysis sentences today. However, these terms are said to be given formal and notional definitions which are sometimes inexact and in some cases, misleading, for example, 'a verb is a doing word' an 'adjective is a word that qualifies a noun and a noun is the name of person, place or thing. Taking into consideration these old definitions of part of speech, most especially that of noun, we will discovered that while the greater number of noun are covered by this definition, there are other noun like 'starvation, Love and insecurity' which do not describe the name of person, places or things. Take for instance how traditional grammar would analyze the following sentence using the feature identified above.

1. They have gone home

Subject    predicate

In this sentence, the subject is the person being talked about while the predicate is what is said about the person. The predicate is what contains the auxiliary verbs, the main verbs complements the optional objects.

Despite the inadequacies in traditional grammar it is interesting to note that the traces of these grammatical terms or features of traditional grammar are still being used in most of our schools today. However, traditional grammar, which is normative, prescriptive and definition oriented, has provided us with clear explanation on the uses of auxiliary verbs in English, this theory shall be consider as it favour our research.

## **Structural Grammar**

The structural grammar approach is one which attempts to describe the structure of grammatical sentences, and not prescribe as it is in traditional grammar. That is, it is the type of grammar that uses the scientific approach to the study of language. This is in the sense that structural grammar does not use preconceptions in dealing with a language, but uses observation. In other words. It describes language the way it is spoken and does not prescribe what people ought to say. The grammar is one that uses the function word criterion mainly to convey signals of structure. These words are technically called closed classes because they have limited members, and new items are hardly ever added. It then means that these words cannot be used to form another word. However, the category of words in the function words includes the traditional English auxiliary verbs, the prepositions, and the articles in English, etc. This then means that the structural grammarians refer to the traditional English auxiliary verbs as function words as opposed to the traditionalists' name helping verb.

We however, find structural grammar unsuitable for the present study not only because its treatment of the auxiliary verbs does not cover a wide range of the uses of auxiliaries in English, but also, as indicated above, the name given to the English auxiliaries by the structural grammarian does not agree with the many uses of the auxiliary verbs in the data for this study.

## **Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)**

Led by Noam Chomsky. T. G.G. is an attempt to employ a mathematical approach to the study of grammar of a language. This mathematical point of view helps to explain the meaning of the term 'generative grammar; which is used to describe this type of grammar, According to Chomsky (in Yule 1985:101), if you have an algebraic expression

like  $3x+2y$ , and you can give 'x' and y the value of any whole number, then that simple algebraic expression can generate an endless set of values by following the simple rules of arithmetic. When  $x = 2$  and  $y = 10$ , the result is 35. When  $x = 2$  and  $y = 1$ , the result is 8. These results follow directly from applying the policy rules. The endless set of such results is generated by the operation of the explicitly formalized rules. If the sentence of language can be seen as a comparable set, then there must be a set of explicit rules that is a generative grammar which is based on phrase structure syntax.

### **Some Properties of the Grammar**

Generative grammar generates all the well-formed syntactic structures (sentences) of the language and fails to generate any ill-formed structures. This is the all and only criteria (i.e. all the grammatical sentences and only grammatical sentences). The grammar believes that with a finite (limited) number of rules an infinite (unlimited) number of well-formed structures can be generated. In this way the productivity of language (that is the creation of totally novel, yet grammatical sentences) is being captured within the grammar. Recursion is another crucial feature of this grammar, that is, the capacity to be applied more than once in generating structure. For example, whatever rule yields the component that chased the cat in the sentence, this is the dog that chased the cat, will have to be applied again to get 'that killed the rat' and any other similar structure, which could continue the sentence. 'This is the dog that chased the cat that killed the rat...' there is, in principle, no end to the recursion which would yield ever longer versions of the sentence and the grammar must provide for this fact.

The grammar acknowledges the existence of two superficial sentences as deep and surface structures. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in

which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented while the surface structure is the overt (written or spoken) realization. In their analysis of syntactic they use the following symbols and abbreviation: ‘S’ for sentence, ‘adv’ for adverbs ‘N’ for noun, ‘pro’ for pronoun ‘V’ for verb, ‘adj’, for adjective, ‘prep’, for preposition, ‘VP’ for verb phrase, ‘P’ for phrase, ‘AT’ for article, ‘D’ for determiner, ‘PP’ for prepositional. Phrase – they equally identify the following phrase structures rules:

1 S	→	NP	AUX	VP
2 VP	→	V	ADV	PP
3 ADVP	→	DEG	ADV	
4 PP	→	P	VP	
5 NP	→	DET	V	

They recognize verbs as crucial elements in sentence structures. However, auxiliary verb is identified as an independent element outside verb phrase as can be seen from their visual representation of syntactic structure through the use of tree diagrams and labeled brackets. According to generative grammarians, the verb phrase comprises the main verb, adverb(s) and preposition. However, this theory of grammar will not be suitable for this study because of its mathematical approach, which may be too cumbersome for our purpose.

### **Systemic Functional Grammar**

The systemic functional grammar was developed from the late 1950s by the British linguistics. M.A.K Haliday and his associates (Haliday, 1985). Its immediate antecedent was J.R. Firth (1950s) whose thinking has as its basis a contextual theory of meaning usually attributed to the Anthropologist, Bronslaw Malinowski; (1923). At a point in time, Malinowski observed that an anthropologist in the field cannot understand what is mean by

in a non-European languages unless the utterance is interpreted in the light of what the speakers are doing at the time. It is based on this that Firth and Haliday developed what is today known as functional theory of linguistic form and meaning; this means that language gets its functions in the context of use. The functional perspective on language is one that reveals the structural and generative linguists as formalist who restricts linguistic descriptions to formal structures divorced from context. This is what makes the functional theory of linguistics different from the formal approach.

Bloor and Bloor (1995, 25) say ‘the functional model of grammar provides the reader with the tools for analyzing real samples of English and to offer a partial description of the language’. It is a model of grammar that takes into consideration how language is used by a speaker in a particular context of situation, in other words, this model describes the function of a language. In other words, functional grammar has to do with the way we use language with regards to the context of culture (that is, social purpose activities within the broad socio-cultural environment) and context situation (that is, field tenor and mode situations within the broader socio-cultural environment) at a particular time of use. It also sees language as an avenue for making meanings like experiential, interpersonal and textual. While experiential meanings investigate what is going on in the context of situation, textual meaning is demonstrated when a text is organized in a language being used, that is, it examines how the language has been used effectively. Interpersonal meaning is associated with the patterns of dialogue and attitude, that is, it talks about the role the participant plays as language is used in the course of interaction.

Functional grammar considers how English auxiliary expressed in the English verbal group to relate various meanings contained in them. It takes care of how each verbal

function in a verbal group and in what context it functions. Systemic Functional grammar also favours this research.

### **2.3 Auxiliary Verbs and their Classification**

Bamgbose (1990), Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Quirk et al (1972, 1985) and Young (1980) among others, all share the same view on the English auxiliaries. Their position is that the English auxiliary verbs make up a verbal group in a given clause. Based on this function that the auxiliary verbs perform, they define auxiliary verbs as ‘helping verbs’, and each of these grammarians identified both the primary (non-modal) and modal auxiliaries. They argued that the primary auxiliaries which include ‘Be’, ‘Have’, and ‘Do’ function both as auxiliaries and lexical verbs and the modal auxiliaries: will, would, can, could, shall, should, may, might, must, ought, dare, need, and used to’. In addition to the role of auxiliaries which they perform, also reflect the (possibility, necessity, etc) the speaker. For example,

1. Annis learning Spanish.
2. They had two children.
3. A soldier can stand at attention (Quirk et al, (1985: 129)

With regard to the argument they advanced above, sentences 1 and 3 show the English auxiliaries being used as helping verbs, while sentence 2 shows the English auxiliaries verbs being used as lexical verbs. They further pointed out that, modal auxiliaries like ‘need’ and ‘dare’ occur both as ‘helping verbs’ and as main form with the use of ‘to’ infinitives. They exemplified this in the following sentences.

4. Need he go now?
5. He needs to go now.

(Quirk and Greenbaum 1973: 38).

Based on their postulation above, sentence 4 shows the use of auxiliary as helping verbs, while in sentence 5; it is used as lexical verbs. With their explanations, it is expected that our subjects will be able to use the English auxiliary verbs appropriately in their writings. Similarly, Stageberg (1981) opines that English auxiliaries are always closely associated with the main verb. This means that auxiliary verbs serve as ‘helping verbs’ as other authors have also explained. However, in his own opinion, the English auxiliaries are categorized into three kinds:

- a. Modal auxiliary (Can, could, may, might, shall, would, will, must and ought to).
- b. Primary auxiliaries (Be and have).
- c. Periphrastic auxiliary ‘Do’.

Based on the above categorization, we can see that Stageberg identified only 10 modals leaving out ‘dare’, ‘need’ and ‘used to’ as against the 13 modal auxiliaries identified by other authors already discussed. With this difference exhibited, we observed that there is an inconsistency in the argument of Stageberg which could mislead our subjects of study as regards their usage of English auxiliary verbs in their writings.

On the other hand, he opines that modals are sometimes called ‘verb markers’ because they give signal that a verb is about to follow, and that they are sometimes used to show tense in discourse as in

6. a. I think, I can help you.
- b. I thought, I could help you (Stageberg, 1981: 120).

The two sentences, A and B above which represent present and past tenses amplify his argument about tense, having discussed the modal auxiliaries above, Stageberg further explained why he separated auxiliary ‘Do’ from auxiliaries ‘Be’ and ‘Have’ and called it

periphrastic auxiliary ‘Do’. He contended that it is meant to show how periphrastic auxiliary ‘Do’ could be used to replace and inflected form of verb. For example,

7. ‘It does work’ for it works’.(Stageberg, 1981: 125).

Sledd (1959) shares a similar view with (Stageberg, 1981) in his discussion on the auxiliary verbs in English. Sledd defines auxiliaries as words that occur before the main verbs in a verb phrase. In other words, auxiliary verbs serve the purpose of helping the main verb to form a verb phrase. In the same manner that Stageberg has done, Sledd, identified 10 modals, learning out ‘need’, ‘dare’ and ‘used to’, and 3 basic non-modal auxiliaries (Be, have, Do).

This opinion of Sledd is also said to be misleading to our subjects. This is because they will be restricted to only those 10 modals mentioned by him, so that they will be confused in forms of usage of the English auxiliaries. However, Sledd pointed out that the non-modal auxiliaries have different forms that can be grouped into present, past and past participle tenses. For example:

<b>Present Tense</b>	<b>Past Tense</b>	<b>Past Participle Tense</b>
Am	Was	-
Is	Was	-
Are	Were	-
Has	Has	Had
Have	Had	Had
Do	Did	Done
Does	Did	Done

Considering this grouping by Sledd, it can be said that the exposition he has done as regards the different forms of tense in the non-modal auxiliaries will go a long way to help our subjects to use auxiliary verbs effectively and appropriately.

Other authors who share the same view on modal auxiliaries include: Boadi, et al (1968), Burtness and Clark (1980), Kensworthy (1991) and Close (1962, 1975). However, there may be slight differences considering their treatment of other aspects of English auxiliaries. Boadi et al, note that auxiliaries are words that function as modifiers of the headwords in a verbal group, while Close describes the English auxiliaries as words which appear in the first positions of the verbal groups that make up the group finite. Based on these opinions, they considered the English auxiliaries as operators and all recognized both the modals and non-modals. They argue that the English modal auxiliaries are 10, while the non-modals include 3 basic types (Be, Have, Do). In consideration of the argument they advance, these authors do not recognize words like 'need', 'dare', and 'used to' as modal auxiliaries. As we have earlier suggested, this anomaly exhibited by these authors is capable of confusing our subjects of study when they want to use auxiliary verbs in their writings.

Kenworthy (1991), discusses every other aspect of the English auxiliary verbs, but fails to discuss the auxiliary 'Do' which is part of the primary auxiliary verbs 'Be' and 'Have' that she advanced argument for. In fact, taking into consideration our subjects of study, that this anomalous opinion of Kensworthy may have adverse effect on our subjects so that they would think the auxiliary 'Do' does not exist at all. And since they would have to use the auxiliary 'Do' when speaking or writing on one occasion or the other, it means that they would be handicapped to some extent in terms of usage.

More so, on the part of Close (1962, 1975) he argued that words like ‘need’, ‘dare’ and ‘used to’ are classified as other auxiliaries in English. He contended that ‘need’ and ‘dare’ are used both as full verbs and as modals only in the negative and interrogative, while ‘used to’ functions only as an auxiliary verb to make up a past tense. He illustrated these in the following sentences;

8. You don’t need to wait.

9. We need not go yet. Need we?

10. I used to write my letters by hand, but now I type them.(Close, 1962: 119).

Sentences 8 and 9 show the use of ‘need’ as full verb and as auxiliary verb, while sentence 10 shows the use of ‘used to’ as past tense marker. However, because he has only talked about three modal auxiliary verbs, that his opinion is contrary to other authors opinions. Therefore, it is assumed that this contrary opinion of close may have become problem to office writer as regard their use of English auxiliary verbs. This is because they would be narrowed down to only those ones he has talked about.

Dabysire (1967) considers the English auxiliaries as operators used to form tenses and mood. In other words, the auxiliaries in English are operators such as (am, is, are, was, were, being, been, has, have, had, with, shall) could be used to show tenses like present or past participles. Some operators such as (am, is, are, has, were, being, been, has, have, had, with, shall) could be used to show tenses like present or pas participles. Other operators such as (do, does, did, would, can, could, should, may, might, must) are used before the infinitive without the morpheme ‘to’ and are used to express various shades of meaning that show mood. For example,

11. Tundehas written the test.

12. Aisha may come today.

13. She did come yesterday.(Dabyshire, 1967: 56).

With reference to his argument above, sentence 11 shows the use of ‘has’ as operator showing present perfect tense while sentences 12 and 13 show mood such as probability and certainty respectively. It is based on the functions which these sentences perform that Dabyshire categorized them as non-modal and modal operators. Going by the categorization of Dabyshire as regards auxiliaries (do, does, did), we argue that it is a wrong classification. This is based on the fact that majority of grammarians classified them under the primary or non-modal auxiliaries. Therefore, we can assume his classification can mislead writer of office documents who don’t have much knowledge on the use of auxiliary verbs forms.

On the other hand, grammarians who share similar opinions on modal auxiliary verbs include: Gleason (1965), Michener (1986), Nolasco (1990) and Clough (1947). These grammarians share a similar opinion as regards to the number of modal auxiliaries they recognised. Each of them recognised a modal auxiliaries, leaving out those of (need, dare and used to), in contrary to those authors who recognised 10 modals and 13 modals respectively. This view, as we have earlier pointed out, is assumed misleading to the writer of office documents when they want to use the modal auxiliary verbs in their writings. In fact, we are of the opinion that the inconsistency continuously exhibited by authors may pose difficulty to writers of office documents.

All the four authors except Gleason (1965) describe auxiliaries in English as ‘helping verbs’. That is, they help the main verbs to make meaning in a verb phrase, as pointed out by authors already reviewed. Each of them identified both the non-modal, and modal auxiliaries. According to them, the non-modals are: Be, Have, Do and the modals are can, could, may,

might, will, would, shall, should, must. However, we observed that Michener (1986) also did a confusing classification of auxiliary verbs in English by placing auxiliary 'Do' under the modal auxiliaries as done by Dabyshire (1967). This is contrary to what most of the grammarians reviewed in this work postulated. As earlier argued such varying opinion would make writers of office face the problem of how and where to use the auxiliary.

Gleason (1965) considers the English auxiliaries as elements that occur in the structure of the verb phrase. This means that he considers the auxiliaries in English as helpers of the main verbs in a verb phrase as opined by others. However, his position on modal auxiliaries is that they act as predicate introducers, that is, they come before other words in a verbal group, and non-modals as verbal auxiliaries. For example:

14. It will have been being eaten. (Gleason, 1965: 28).

In this stretch, 'will' functions as a predicate introducer. That is, it introduces 'have', been, being, which are the verbal auxiliaries used before the main verb, eaten. Gleason further argued that (need, dare, ought, used) may mean predicate introducers to some speakers. According to him, he does not consider them as neither predicate introducers nor as modal auxiliaries in the manner which others have done in their opinion.

Duffley (1992), Blumenthal (1972), Zimmer and Camp (1993), Berry (1975) and Strang (1970) are grammarians who also consider the English auxiliaries in the same manner. That is, they advanced the same argument towards the role of the English auxiliary verbs in a verbal phrase or verbal group. They opined that auxiliary verbs in English are 'helping verbs' which make it possible for the main verbs to make appropriate meaning in a verb phrase. In other words, Duffley (1992) considers them as words which do not change the meaning of a main verb; rather they help to accomplish the meaning. Duffley rightly pointed out that

‘need’ and ‘dare’ are two verbs which function both as modal auxiliaries and as lexical verbs.

For example:

15. He needn’t/daren’t escape.

16. He doesn’t need/dare to escape. Duffley (1992: 108).

With regard to his argument, the two sentences 15 and 16 show the use of ‘need’ and ‘dare’ as modal auxiliaries and as main verbs, respectively. However, this opinion of Duffley is said to be contrary to the view of Michener (1986), ‘need’ and ‘dare’ as neither lexical verb nor as modal auxiliaries which we assume may constitute problem to office writer in terms of usage. One true thing about these authors is that they also identified both the non-modals and the modal. On the whole, Strang (1970) summed up their function as of carrying the grammatical meaning of the verb phrase; while on the other hand, they also carry the lexical meaning.

#### **2.4 Characteristics and Syntactic Roles of Auxiliary Verbs**

Zandvoort (1972), Corder and Ruszkiewicz (1985), Smith (1980) and Roberts (1954) are other grammarians who also share similar views as regards the role of the English auxiliaries. They posit that auxiliaries are verbs used in a verb phrase to form tenses, moods, and voices of the principal verb. This opinion is also discussed by Dabyshire (1967). This means that when the English auxiliaries perform such a role, it could be said that they function as ‘helping verbs’ in such verb phrase where they are used. They further pointed out the roles of auxiliaries as can be seen below:

- a. Auxiliaries of tense – have, be, shall, will
- b. Auxiliaries of mood – may, should, would
- c. Auxiliaries of voice – Be

They illustrate these in the following sentences

17. I shall come tomorrow.

18. She should beglad if you come.

19. He is bitten by a snake. (Zandvoort. 1972: 72).

Based on his argument above, sentence 17 shows the use of 'shall' as future tense, that of 18 shows the mood of the speaker, while 19 shows the use of 'is' as in passive voice. Obviously, these varieties of functions of auxiliary verbs as demonstrated in those sentences will definitely guide our subjects into using the English auxiliaries appropriately in their writings.

Jacobs and Rosebaum (1968) describe the English auxiliary as one of the basic constituents of sentences, among others. In other words, they posit that without the English auxiliaries used in sentences, the sentences will not be meaningful. This means that the English auxiliaries are such important words that cannot be ignored by any user when writing, and ignoring them will definitely lead to wrong usage. They identified both the modals and non-modals like others have done in their discussions. They exemplified their point in the following sentence.

20. You canleave now.

Jacobs and Rosebaum (1968: 120).

In this sentence, the use of 'can' has made the main verb which is leave to be meaningful. This view is one that emphasizes the important of auxiliary verbs in sentence to our subjects of study.

Long (1961) and Olu Tomori (1977) share a similar view in their discussion on the English auxiliaries usage. They opine that the English auxiliaries are modifiers of the headword. That is, the modifiers are the auxiliaries in English and the headword is the main verb. They exemplified their point of argument in the following sentences:

21. Mary is watching television.

22. I shall have been seen then

|        |

modifier headword (Olu Tomori, 1997: 610).

In sentences 21 and 22, all the words before final forms of the verb are modifiers (is, shall, have, been) that come before the headword 'watching' and 'seen'. Long and Tomori both recognized the auxiliaries in English as having two categories which include the modal operators and the non-modal operators. They further pointed out that the modal operators are those words which are normally followed by infinitives. For example:

23. I may come tomorrow.

|        |

Operator    infinitives (Long. 1961:142).

They contend that the English auxiliaries are called modal and non-modal operators because they are always used as the first elements in the verbal groups as shown by them are the above examples. However, they identified all the modals and non-modals as other grammarians have done. Though they have also used terms like modifiers and headwords to argue their points, this study holds that their views still keep our subjects in focus as regards English auxiliary's usage.

Scott (1968), Like Long (1961) and Olu Tomori (1977), used the formula (M) + (H) + (Q) in sentence to describe the auxiliaries in English whereby 'M' means modifier and stands for the auxiliaries verbs and 'H' means headword and stands for the main verb. He illustrated this in the following sentence.

24. She would have been working by now

Modifier            headword

Because of this function which they perform, he defines them as verbs which usually precede other verbs in a stretch. He postulates that these English auxiliaries are used as negatives; inversion; to avoid repetition of the main verb; and in insistent assertion as Muir (1972) argued Scott (1968) exemplified his point of argument in the following sentences:

25. I am not going (negative)

26. Shall I see you tomorrow? (inversion)

27. Do you love me? Yes, I do (to avoid repetition of the main verb).

28. I must go (insistent assertion).(Scott, 1968: 108).

On the whole, Scott identified both the modal auxiliaries and non-modal auxiliaries. This study observes that his methods of explaining the use of English auxiliary verbs will help our subjects of study to have varieties in their ways of expressing themselves.

Sinclair (1972) is another author who has a similar view with Scott (1968) on the English auxiliary verbs. Sinclair defines an auxiliary verb as one which can precedes a main verb a verbal group. In our opinion, Sinclair's point of argument is that an auxiliary verb is a verb that helps the main verb to convey the appropriate meaning of a speaker. However, both Sinclair and Scott pointed out that there are those English auxiliaries which can occur as auxiliary verbs and main verbs at the same time and those English auxiliaries which cannot occur as main verbs, but must always come first in the verbal group where they occur. This is similar to Olu Tomori (1977) and Close (1962, 1975) arguments. He categorized all of them as non-modal verbs and modal verbs. The dual function of the first type of auxiliary verbs and the example of the second type the pointed out an illustrated in the following sentences:

29. He is being silly this afternoon.

30. Has the dog had his walk today?

31. She can jump too. Sinclair (1972: 178)

In line with his arguments, sentences 29 and 30 show the use of auxiliary verbs 'Be' and 'Have' as both helping verbs and lexical verbs, while sentence 31 shows the use 'can' as having only one use which is helping verbs. This knowledge which Sinclair has demonstrated in those sentences is relevant to this study because it will help our subjects of study to use two auxiliary verbs as both helping and lexical verbs in their expressions.

Paul and Author (1969) have a similar view with Young (1980) and Oluwole and Rose (1996) on what the English auxiliaries look like and where they are used. They describe auxiliaries in English as words that occur with verbs to form verbal groups or verbal phrases. However, they asserted that it is not any word that can occur with a verb in such a verbal group that will be called an auxiliary verb. They exemplified this view in the following sentence:

32. The man kept hitting the boy.

|

a word that behaves like auxiliary verb.

33. The teacher wants to help the boy.

|

a word that behaves like an auxiliary verb in a sentence. (Paul and Arthur, 1969:73).

Based on their arguments above, sentence 32 and 33 contain the words 'kept' and 'wants to' and have been used as auxiliary verbs whereas they are not. Their view in this discussion will

keep our subjects in focus as regards using their ability to differentiate those words that behave like auxiliaries themselves.

Burton-Roberts (1986) consider auxiliary verbs as word that is found in the complex verbal group. In other words, he described auxiliary verbs as ‘helpers’ of the main verbs in complex group. He identified two kinds of auxiliaries as modal auxiliaries and primary (non-modal) auxiliaries as others have done. He contended, like others, that the words, ‘need’ and ‘dare’ do not only function as auxiliary verbs but also as lexical verbs. For example:

34. He doesn't need to go. (Main verb).

35. He needn't go. (Modal auxiliary). (Burton-Roberts, 1986: 68).

The fact that Burton-Roberts have similar view with others on the use of auxiliary verbs shows that our subjects of study are still in focus as regards the appropriate use of English auxiliary verbs.

Gramley and Patzold (1992) point out the noticeable disparities that exist within the traditional open classes and those words that have to do with the lexical items, while the closed sets are those words that include, among them, the auxiliary verbs. Like other grammarians, they identified both non-modal and modal auxiliaries. Because of the meaning which they indicate is grammatical. Gramley and Patzold referred to them as function, grammatical or structure words. Based on these descriptions, they defined auxiliary verbs as a closed set of function words. They contended that modal auxiliaries are defective in the sense that they do not have the ‘S’ inflection of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense. This defectiveness can be seen in the following sentence:

36. He will come today.

37. He will come today. (Gramley and Patzold, 1992: 154).

Though their arguments look structural, they still make sense to our subjects of study in terms of English auxiliaries' usage.

Like Muir (1992), they argued that the English auxiliaries differ from the lexical verbs syntactically. It is because of this difference which they show that made Gramley and Patzold, referred to them as operators. They have pointed out the various uses of English auxiliaries as Muir did; particularly the defectiveness of modal auxiliary verbs which they illustrated will definitely make our subjects to know whether they are to inflect any auxiliary verbs or not which is contrary to other authors we have discussed. This is because Houseman and Bentley discussed only two auxiliaries (Be and Have) and their forms and they refer to them as 'helping verbs' as illustrated in the following sentences:

38. He was eating when I saw him.

39. She has gone to school. (Houseman and Bentley, 1960: 27).

Considering the discussion of Houseman and Bentley on the auxiliary verbs in English we assumed that our subjects will be misled in the sense that their knowledge of English auxiliaries usage will be restricted to only those two which they have discussed. And so their expressions will be affected to some extent.

Houseman and Bentley fail to discuss the English auxiliaries extensively as others have done. In their own discussion, they identify only the auxiliary verb 'to be' and their forms (am, is, are, was, more) as words which sometimes do not express an action plainly or directly. However, when they are used in this way, they function as full verbs of the sentence where they occur. The forms of verbs, discussed by them are those verbs which are used in this way and they take an adjective after them. They illustrated this in the following sentence:

40. The woodman was sad.

Ogundipe et al's opinion is contrary to the opinion of this study as regards the number of auxiliary verbs in English. They have failed to mention others like 'be', 'being' and 'been'. Even modal auxiliaries too are not mentioned in their examples. Indeed their treatment of only the auxiliary verbs 'to be' is tantamount to creating problems for the subjects of this study as they would be handicapped when it comes to using English auxiliaries in their expression. In other words, the knowledge will be narrowed down to only auxiliary verb 'to be'.

Reid (1991) is another writer who discussed only the auxiliary verbs 'Do' as a verb that is used to show emphasis, to ask questions and to make denials about the sentence. He illustrated these in the following sentences.

41. The boys do not play soccer. (Emphasis).

42. Do the boys play soccer? (Interrogation).

43. The boys do not play soccer. (Making denials). (Reid, 1991: 18).

Also, Reid's treatment of only auxiliary 'Do' may become a problem to writers of office documents. This is in the sense that when it comes to usage, they would be restricted to only the knowledge of auxiliary 'Do' and would be ignorant of other auxiliary verbs in English.

Other grammarians who fail to discuss all the English auxiliaries that we have covered in this study include Joos (1964), Lyons (1968), James and Lesly (1993) and Declerk (1991). They all share similar view in their discussions in the sense that they discussed only the modal auxiliary verbs in English, leaving out other English auxiliaries. However, James and Lesley opine that in Standard English, only one modal verb can occur in a given clause that is in a single verb phrase as in

44. He must do it. (James and Lesly, 1993: 194).

Joos (1964) in his discussion, considers the modal auxiliaries as being divided into two categories such as the casual modals (with, shall, can, may) and stable modals (must,ought to, dare, need). He argued that the casual modals are so called because they have their forms like (would, should, could, might), while those of the stable modals do not have other forms, and that is why they do not change in any sentence where they are used.

Instead of classifying the English auxiliaries as other authors have done previously, Paul and Arthur (1920) decided to sub-group the auxiliary verbs in English according to the form of verb with which the auxiliary verb occurs. That is, through this method of classification of theirs, we will know all the auxiliary verbs in English and their various uses. They illustrated this in the following:

a. Auxiliaries which are used with the base form of the verb often called the ‘plain infinitive’ are exemplified in the following sentences:

45. The men can/could remember the boy.

46. The man does/did remember the boy.

47. Auxiliaries used with the ‘ing’ form of the verb for example:

48. I am/was going.

49. Auxiliaries which are used with the past participle of the verb can be seen in the following sentence:

50. He has/had gone.

51. Auxiliaries used with the infinitive preceded by the function word ‘to’.

For example:

52. I ought to go.

53. He has to go.

54. They used to go. (Paul and Arthur, 1969: 78).

As we have earlier pointed out, such an extensive discussion also made by Paul and Arthur demonstrated in various sentences will surely help our subjects to know when and use the auxiliaries' verbs in English.

Muir (1972) describes the English auxiliaries as element of structure which may precede the lexical element in any construction. He categorized all the auxiliary verbs as having eleven members, and they include: be, have, do, with, can, shall, may, must, ought, dare, and need. He divided them into two categories such as non-modal and modal auxiliaries. He pointed out that the morphology of auxiliary verbs differs from that of lexical verbs in that the auxiliary verbs have either more or less forms than the lexical verbs.

Muir, like Scott (1968), discussed four main criteria by which the auxiliary verbs are classified. They include: Negation, inversion, substitution and marked positive element. He illustrated these in the following sentences.

55. I can't come. (Negation)

56. Is the boy coming? (Inversion)

57. I scored and so did John. (Substitution)

58. He did hit the boy. (Marked positive) (Muir, 1972: 45).

The fact that Muir identified all the non-modals and the modals with the exception of 'used to' which other authors did identify in their discussions, shows that subjects will be faced with a little problem. This is due to the reason that they would be confused as to whether 'used to' exist or not. So, their expressions will be affected to some extent.

Meanwhile, Declerk and Lyons have similar opinions as regards the use of modal auxiliaries 'will' and 'shall' in English. Lyons in his own discussion asserted that modal auxiliaries

'will' and 'shall' are words used to describe the future time as contained in the argument of Declerk (1991). According to Lyons, other modal auxiliaries cannot function in this way. Declerk; on the other hand, argued that modal meaning is usually expressed by the means of 'will', and not 'shall'. He opined that 'will' expresses modality rather than future time. However, their arguments are illustrated in the following sentences:

59. He will come tomorrow (Lyons, 1968: 306).

60. John will have come home tomorrow. (Declerk, 1991: 88).

With reference for their arguments, sentence 55 shows that Lyons has used 'will' to refer to action that will take place in future, while Declerk, in sentence 61. Shows that Lyon has used 'will' to refer to action that will take place in future. While Declerk, in sentence 56, uses 'will' to show the mood of the action by the subject of the sentence. Really, their discussion of only the modal auxiliaries 'will' and shall will make our subjects of study to have shallow knowledge as regards the English auxiliaries. Jespersen (1961) in his book discussed the modal auxiliaries in English as substitutive verbs that take objects (infinitives without 'to' after them). He exemplified this in the following sentence:

62. I cansing

Substitutive object verb (Jespersen, 1961: 249).

Jespersen (1961), like Paul and Arthur (1969) did, that words like 'get' and 'become' are being increasingly commonly used as auxiliaries whereas they are not. He illustrated this point as shown below:

63 He got married in his real name, Benson.

(Jespersen 1961: 99). Based on his argument, the word 'got' in his sentence functions like an auxiliary verb whereas it is not. However, he discussed other auxiliaries (Be, Have, Do) in his book as others have as earlier reviewed in this work.

In the same manner which Paul and Arthur have done, Jespersen has also made our subjects to know the difference between those words which behave like auxiliary verbs in sentences and the English auxiliaries themselves.

Mackin (1966) in his discussion of the English auxiliaries agrees with the opinions of other authors as regards the auxiliary verbs which they referred to as 'syntactic operators', 'pre-verbs', and so on. Mackin, like others, identified both the three basic non-modals and the thirteen modals in English. He contended, like Grimley and Patzold (1992) did in their discussions, that the modal verbs are defective in their various uses because of the following:

- a. Absence of 's' form of verb
- b. No base form as found with auxiliaries
- c. No-ing form in them.

However, he further pointed out that the modal auxiliary verbs way of forming their negative is by the addition of 'n't', except some in which changes occur in them as in shan't (shall not), won't (will not), etc. He illustrated this in the following sentence:

64. He mustn't eat that food. (Mackin, 1966: 30)

Mackin's point of argument which revealed those things that the modal verbs lack is assumed will help our subjects to be able to use them properly in their expressions.

Palmer (1965, 1984) considers auxiliary verbs in English from the point of view of a simple phrase which contains only one (form of a) full verb, all other (forms of) verbs within the simple phrase must be (forms of) auxiliaries verbs. He recognized both the primary and

secondary or modal auxiliaries, and also discussed the syntactic difference between auxiliary verbs and lexical verbs as others have done.

Palmer further points out that the auxiliary verb 'Do' does not occur where there is an auxiliary verb already. He illustrated this in the following forms which do not exist.

65. He doesn't can go?

66. Does he will come? (Palmer, 1965: 23).

The only exception according to him is of the pattern of:

67. Do be quick.

Palmer's argument on the English auxiliaries, most especially, on the auxiliary 'Do' will make writer of officedocuments at IBB University, Lapai to understand how to apply this knowledge in their writings.

Quirk et al (1985), like other works reviewed, recognized auxiliary verbs as helping verbs. They identify three primary auxiliary verbs (do, have, be), nine central modal auxiliary verbs (can, may, will, shall, could, might, would, should and must) and four marginal modal (dare, need, ought to, used to). They also identify the following: 'had better', 'would rather', 'sooner' 'be to', 'have got to' etc, as modal idioms. In the same vein, they identify 'be able to', 'be about to', 'be apt to', 'be due to', 'be going to', 'be supposed to', 'be willing to', and 'have to' as semi auxiliaries. According to them the boundaries of this category (i.e. semi auxiliary) are not clear as they may include such negatives as 'be unable to', 'be unwilling to', 'be unlikely to' etc. Also, 'appear to', 'happen to', 'seem to' are identified as alternatives.

Although auxiliaries have different function in the verb phrase, they have one important syntactic function in common, and that is, their ability to act as operator when they

occur as the first verb of a finite verb phrase. For example in the formation of ‘yes/no’ question.

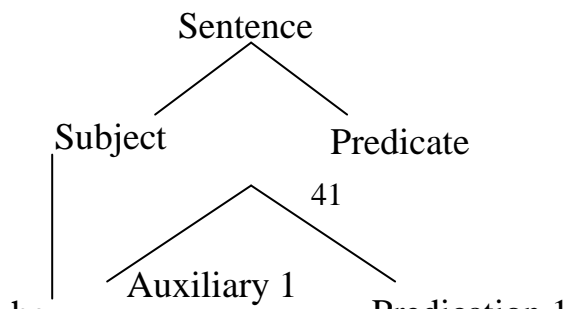
68. (i) Is he asking any question?  
 (ii) Has he been asking any question?  
 (iii) Was he asked any question?  
 (iv) Will he be asked any question?  
 (v) Has he asked any question?  
 (iv) Does he ask any question?

Here the operator or first auxiliary of the verb phrase is isolated no matter how complex the verb phrases are. Since ‘be’ and ‘have’ also have this function as main verbs the term operator will be used for them in sentences like:

- 69.(i) Is she a tall girl?  
 (ii) Has he any money?
- } Quirk et al (1985: 120)

The complex verb phrase of:

‘He might have been being questioned by the police’ is this analyzed within this sentence as shown below:



Operator

Might |

Many of the criteria for the syntactic function of the auxiliary have to do with their status as operators and therefore apply also to 'be' and 'have' as main verbs.

***Criteria for auxiliary verbs***

Quirk et al (1985) use the following criteria to identify auxiliary verbs.

**(A) Operator in Negation with 'Not'**

In forming negative finite clauses, the first auxiliary is placed before negative word 'not', see the contrast in the following sentences:

70. (i) She can do it

} Quirk et al (1985: 120)

(ii) She cannot do it

71. (i) She saw the play

(ii) She saw not the play

As the example shows, full verbs like 'see' are distinguished from auxiliary verbs by their inability to form negation in this way. Current English has no negative sentence such as:

(71)(ii) \*She saw not the play

However, there is an acceptable negative sentence of the following form.

72. (i) He decided not see the play.

(ii) I like not working on Fridays.

In these cases, however, negation is associated with the second, non finite verb phrases 'to see' and 'working' rather than with the initial finite phrases decided and 'like' as is obvious from the following paraphrases:

73. (i) He decided that he would not see the play.

(ii) I like it not working on Fridays.

In archaic usage, we can also see negative consultation in which 'not' follows a full verb not an operator. e.g,

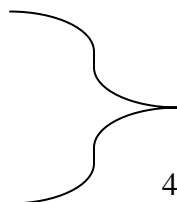
74.(i) I care not who knows it

(ii) If I mistake not, you were at party?

(b) Negative contraction of the auxiliary

Every auxiliary except the 'am' form of 'Be' has a contracted negative form. Although 'mayn't' and 'shan't' are now virtually non-existent especially in American English. In addition, many operators have contracted non-negative form for example:

Be: am-m, is-'s, are-'re



Have: have-‘ve, has-‘s, had-‘d

Quirk et al (1985: 129)

Modals: will-‘ll, would-‘d

Notice that the contraction ‘s’ and ‘d’ are ambiguous, the former representing ‘is’ or ‘has’ (occasionally ‘doer) and the latter ‘had’ or ‘would’. The above verb contractions are called non negative because they cannot combine with negative contraction to form double contracted forms.

(c) Inversion of subject and operator

Auxiliaries, as operators, admit inversion, i.e., the subject noun phrase and the auxiliary (the first auxiliary if there are two or more) change places, especially in interrogative clauses for example. Compare:

75. (a) She will come (b) Will she come?

(a) She plans to come (b) Plans she to come?

As with ‘not’ negation, main verbs here require the use of ‘do’, e.g.

76. Does she plan to come?

(d) Emphatic positive

Auxiliaries as operators can carry nuclear stress to make a finite clause as positive rather than negative. For example:

77. (a) Won’t you try again (b) Yes, I will try again.

(a) You must speak to the teacher

(b) I have spoken to her.

The function of this emphatic positive use of operator is to deny a negative, which has been stated or implied on the use of ‘do’ here in assertive contexts. E.g.

78. (a) You did speak to her?

- (b) I though you didn't
- (a) You should listen to your mother
- (b) But I do listen to her.

Sometimes the emphatic operator has no contractive meaning, but is used purely for emotive force. E.g:

- 79. (i) I am glad!, I do wish you would listen.
- (ii) You have done well.
- (e) The operator in reduced clauses.

The reply to a question such as:

Won't you try again? Can you drive a car?

Yes, I will try again, No, I can't drive a car.

On the other hand, a more likely reply would be the elliptical construction

Yes, I will. No, I can't

Auxiliaries can function as operators in a range of such reduced constructions where the main verb is omitted either by ellipsis or by preformed substitution and the clause is understood to repeat the content of an earlier clause. The nature of this type of operator function has been captured by various labels such as 'code' or 'stranding', Quirk et al (1985: 125).

Four types of reduced clauses containing an operator without a main verb of which two are the most important can be identified:

- (1) So/Neither/Nor+operator

Positive examples

- 80. (i) Musa will stay and so will Ado
- (ii) Kabiru stayed and so did Mohammed

Negative: examples.

81. (i) Musa won't stay and neither will Ado  
(ii) Kabiru didn't stay, nor did Mohammed

(2) Operator + Too/Either

Positive: examples:

82. (i) Musa will stay late and Ado will too.  
(ii) Kabiru broke his promise and Mohammed did too.

Negative

83. (i) Musa won't each much and Ado won't either.  
(ii) Kabiru didn't break his promise and Mohammed didn't either.

(3) Predication fronting

Examples:

84. (i) Musa said he would be late and late he was.  
(ii) Ado said he would win the match and win the match he did.

(4) Relativized predication

Examples:

85. (i) Ann said she would late, which she was.  
(ii) Musa said he would win the match. When he did.

The criteria (a-c) discussed so far help to define auxiliary as a function also but it must be remembered that all of them apply to operators in general and therefore apply also to be and (sometimes) 'Have' as main verbs. These criteria identify and recognize auxiliaries without difficulty anytime they come across them.

Quirk et al (1985) in addition include the following morphological and syntactic criteria, which apply specifically to modal auxiliary verbs as distinct from the primary auxiliary verbs (Have, Be, and Do).

(f) Construction with the bare infinitive

Modal auxiliaries are normally followed by the infinitive which is bare (i.e the base form of the verb alone) except with ‘used’ and (usually) ought, verbs which for this reason as well as for others, are some what marginal to the class of modals. Examples:

86.(i) You will comb your hair

(ii) You ought to comb your hair

(g) Finite functions only (no non-finite forms)

Modal auxiliaries can only occur as the first (operator) element of the verb phrase they cannot occur in non finite functions i.e as infinitive or participles and as a consequence of this can occur only as a first verb in the verb phrase.

Modal verb	Primary verb	Full verb
*To many	to have	to eat
*(is) maying	(is) being	(is) eating
*(has) mayed	(has) been	(has) eaten

The primary verbs have the full range of non-finite forms, but not all of these forms can be used in auxiliary function. For ‘Be’ all three non-finite forms can be auxiliaries: be, being, been, ‘have’ has no-edparticiple is auxiliary function, but only ‘have’ and ‘having’. Dummy auxiliary ‘Do’ like the modal auxiliaries can of ‘Do’ (to) do, doing and done, are constructed only as main verbs.

(h) No third person inflection (i.e no-s form)

Modal auxiliaries are not inflected in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular of the present tense i.e they have no-s form. For example:

You must }  
She must } Write

In contrast. The primary verbs do have an-s form, but it is irregular. (Quirk et al 1985: 128).

#### (I) Abnormal Time Reference

Not only the present form, but the past forms of the modal auxiliaries can be used to refer to present and future time (often with hypothetical or tentative meaning) for example:

87.(i) I think he may/might retire next December

(ii) Will/would you phone tomorrow?

In contrast;

\*I think he retired next December.

\*Did you phone him tomorrow?

Also modal auxiliaries which do not have distinct past form (e.g., must, need, ought) can be used to refer to the past in direct speech.

88.E.g I told him he must be home early.

The features of auxiliaries discussed generally and modal auxiliaries in particular by Quirk et al (1985) will go a long way to assist writers of office documents in identifying auxiliary verbs.

Morphological and syntactic characteristics of verbs which can function as auxiliaries.

Semantically, the primary verbs as auxiliaries share an association with the basic grammatical verb categories of tense, aspect and voice. In this, they are broadly distinguished

from the modal verbs which are associated mainly with the expression of modal meaning such as possibility, obligation and volition (Quirk et al 1985: 129).

Quirk et al (1985) assert that verb 'Be' is a main verb with a copular function as exemplified in the following sentences:

89. (i) Lamiis a happy girl.

(ii) Is that building a hotel?

They further say 'Be' also has two auxiliary functions; as an aspect auxiliary. For example:

90.(i) Hauwais learning English.

(ii) The weather has been improving.

'Be' can equally function as a passive auxiliary. For example:

91. (i) Hauwa was awarded a prize.

(ii) Our team as never beaten.

'BE' is said to be unique in having a full set of both finite and non-finite forms in auxiliary function; it is also unique among English verbs in having as many as eight different forms ('is', 'are', 'am', 'was', 'were', 'being', 'be', and 'been'), 'Be' is the only verb in English to have a special form for the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular of the present tense (am) and two distinct forms of the past tense (was, were) even though in the subjunctive 'was' form does not occur. 'Aint' is a non standard contraction commonly used, especially in American English, in place of 'am not', 'is not', 'are not', 'has not', and 'have not'.

Have

According to Quirk et al (1985) the primary auxiliary 'have' functions both as an auxiliary and as a main verb. As an auxiliary for the perfective aspect, 'Have' combines with-ed participle to form complex verb phrases. For example;

92. (i) I have finished.

(ii) What has she bought?

(iii) They may have been eaten.

As a main verb, it normally takes a direct object and has various meanings such as possession. For example;

93. (i) I have no money.

(ii) They had three children.

In negative constructions, Quirk et al identify three variants as follows:

(iii) I have not seen her (typical of written discourse.

(iv) I haven't see her

(v) I've not seen her

} typical of spoken discourse

Of the constructed form, the haven't type is generally more common than the've not type. As an-ed participle 'had' is restricted to use as a main verb as in:94. (i) Have you had lunch?

(ii) They have had to sell their car.

When 'Have' is used as a main verb with stative meaning, it shows syntactic variation in that it not only combines with Do-support in forming constructions with an operator. For example:

95. (i) We don't have any money.

(ii) DO you have any money?

But also act as an operator itself in construction such as:

96. (i) We haven't any money.

(ii) Have you any money?

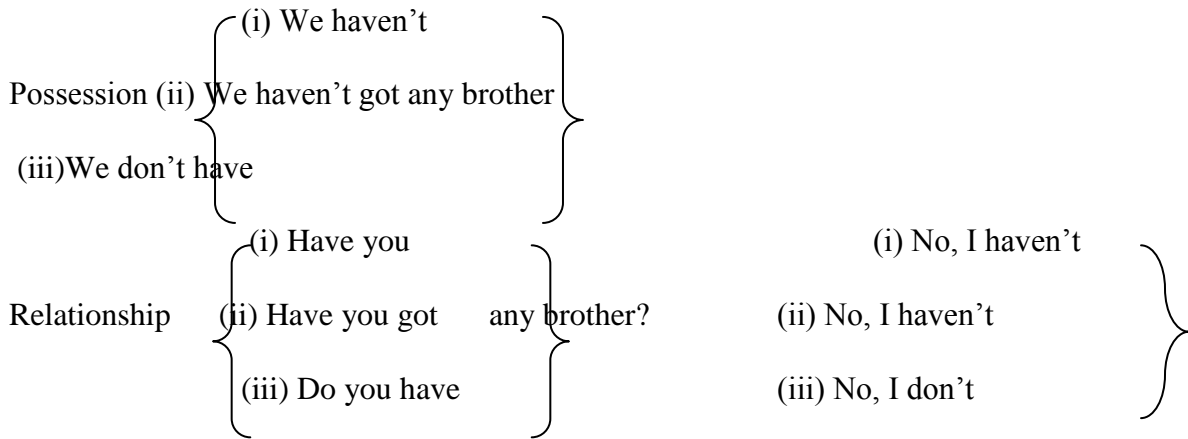
There is also the informal 'Have got' construction, which, although perfective in form, is non-perfective in meaning and is frequently preferred in British English as an alternative to stative 'Have',

'HAVE' for example:

97. (i) John has courage.

(ii) John as got courage.

It is particularly common in negative and interrogative clauses. To express some stative senses, we can thus have three alternatives:



Of these alternatives. (i) is specially British English (more formal); (ii) is also British English (informal); (iii) Is American English and also common in British English nowadays.

According to Quirk et al, 'Have' can be used in dynamic series equivalent to:

'Receive: take 'experience' etc. For example:

98. (i) A: does she have coffee with her breakfast?

B: Yes she does

(ii) A: Did you have any difficulty getting here?

B: No I didn't

(iii) A: Did you have good time in Abuja?

(iv) B: Yes certainly we did.

Do.

Quirk et al (1985) opines that 'Do' like 'BE' and 'HAVE' can be used both as an auxiliary and main verb. As an auxiliary, 'Do' has no nonfinite form, but only present and past forms.

Do-support

The term Do-support (or Do-phrases) applies to the use of 'Do' as an 'Empty' or dummy operator in condition where the construction requires an operator, but where there is no semantic reason for any other operator to be present. Quirk et al (1985: 133). Quirk et al classify all uses of 'Do' as an auxiliary under the following:

(1) In indicative clauses

Negated by 'not' where the verb is simple-present or simple past. For example:

99. (i) She doesn't want to stay.

(ii) I didn't like English at school.

Negative imperative clauses introduced by 'Do not' or 'Don't' may with some reservation be placed in the same category.

(2) In questions and other constructions involving subject operator inversion, where the verb is in the simple present or past tense. For example:

100. (i) Did he stay late?

(ii) What do they say?

(iii) Does it matter?

This category includes tag questions and other reduced questions where a dummy operator is not accompanied by a main verb. Examples:

101.(i) He knows how to drive a car, doesn't he?

(ii) They didn't make any mistakes, didn't they?

(vi) I don't like him, do you?

It also includes inversion after an initial negative element. Example:

102. Never did he think the book would be finished so soon.

(1) In Emphatic construction where the verb is simple present or simple past (emphatic positive construction). For example:

103. (i) They do want you to come.

(ii) Michael did say he would be here at nine, didn't he?

Here we may also include the persuasive imperative introduced by 'do' for example:

104. (i) Do sit down.

(ii) Do be quiet.

(4) In reduced clauses, where 'Do' acts as a dummy operator preceding ellipsis of a predication.

For example:

105.(i) Awwal reads books faster than I do ('do' is equivalent to 'read books').

(ii) Did you watch the game on television/No, but my brother did ('did' is equivalent to watch the game on television).

### **'Do' as main verbs.**

Quirk et al assert that when 'Do' is used as a main verb has the full range of forms, including the ing participle 'doing' and the ed participle 'done'. For example:

106. (i) A: What have you been doing today?

(ii) B: I haven't done much. I'm afraid.

As a main verb 'Do' can combine with a pronoun object to act as a pro-predication referring to some unspecified actions). The pronoun object may be personal (it), demonstrative (this/that) interrogative (what) or indefinite (nothing/anything etc).

Examples:

107.(i) A: I am throwing these books away.

B: Why are you doing that?

(ii) A: What have they been doing to the road?

B: widening it.

(iii) A: What have you done with my pen?

B: I've put it in the desk.

(iv) A: What did you do on holiday?

B: We didn't do anything.

Apart from these uses as a pro-form, the main verb 'Do' has a wide range of uses as a general purpose agentive transitive verb especially in informal speech. Examples:

108.(i) Lets do the dishes you wash and I'll dry

(ii) She is done some really good essays and she always hands them as time.

'Do' in such sentences is often replaceable by a verb of more exact meaning. For example she's mitted some really good essays and she always hand them in on time.

Droga, Humphrey and Afolayan, Longman's Dictionary of Language teaching and Applied Linguistics(1992:85), says modals 'as any of the auxiliary verbs which indicate attitudes of the speaker/writer towards the state or event expressed by another verb, i.e. which indicate

different types of modality. It specifies two forms of modals: the modal auxiliary verbs and semi-modals auxiliary verbs. Modals, ads change the way the verbs are formed within the verb phrase. It specifies this verbs phrase rule: VP=(Modal)+(tense)+(perfect)+(progressive)+Verb. Using this verb phrase rule reveals how modal expression is formed with different verb patterns.

In the same vain, there is no doubt that the Longman's dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics description of modality is relevant to this research based on the fact that it talks about two things:attitude of the speaker and the writer when applying the modals and how different verb pattern are used along with modals.

However, modals verbs may affect the formation of verbs patterns, but the verb patterns do not affect the meanings contained in the modal verbs. The attitude of both speaker/writer is shown via the use of modal auxiliary verbs which can be seen in the example below:

The seals must eat a lot of fish during a performance.

(Modal+ simple present+verb)

This sentence has the interpersonal meanings of obligation and compulsion. This means that the actor has a compulsive duty to carry out if the performance must be sustained.

The seals must have eaten all the fish while I was gone

(Modal+perfect+verb)

The sentence expresses the interpersonal meaning of probable and logical certainty. Since the speaker was not on ground to witness the events, he assumes that the actor carried out the event.

I must be loosing my mind; I just found a full bucket of fish.

(Modal+progressive+verb)

The interpersonal meaning inherent here are those of possibility and logical uncertainty which reveals that the speaker could not believe his eyes.

I must have eaten day dreaming; I just found two more buckets of fish.

(Modal+perfect+progressive+verb)

It contains the meaning of uncertainty which reveals that the speaker was not sure of himself from the beginning.

Unlike Droga and Humphrey (2002) and Afolayan (1979), Thompson (2003:82) sees modal auxiliary verbs as being divided into two main parts: Modalization which refers to the validation of information on the basis of probability and usuality, and modulation which refers to the amount of obligation or inclination of the people involved in the exchange. According to Thompson, the interpersonal relationships of people are indicated based on whether the information given is valid or adequate. The validity and adequacy are used as tools to bring about attitudes such as probability/usuality and obligation/inclination. Here, Thompson's categories of modality into two are also helpful to this work such that they help to ascertain whether information is adequate enough to produce attitudes like probability, usuality, obligation, and inclination.

Thus, Thompson exemplifies this fact in the following:

Mary may be with her friends. (Probability)

Mary must be with her friends (Obligation)

1. The interpersonal relationship inherent here is that of probability. It is not certain whether the subject is with her friends. Seeing her here is based on probability.

2. Here, the interpersonal relationship is that of obligation, the expression of modality in this sentence simply reveals that this act has been in practice before now. Thus, it is a duty for the subject to be with her friends.

### 2.5 Halliday's Perspective of Modality

Halliday's (1985) sees modality as a way of expressing some intermediate degrees like 'sometimes' or 'maybe'. Since modality as a means whereby speakers and writers can take a stand in relation to numerous assessments like statement/questions and offers/commands, it is not, however, out of place to say modality represent act of ascertain the speakers validity of a preposition, he makes in relation to what is likely or what is usually the case. On the other hand, in case of a proposal, an offer or command modality shows the speaker assessment of the obligations involved or the hearer's inclination or ability to carry out the proposal.

Based on the above exposition, Halliday has divided modality into two: modalization and modulation which further divided into:

Modalization- degrees of probability and usuality

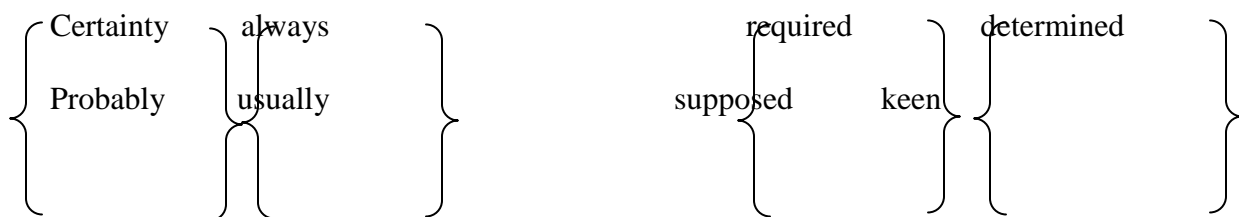
Modulation- degrees of obligation/ readiness.

The above is represented in the following tree diagrams:

Modalization Modulation

Probability usuality

obligation inclination





2. The painting will definitely be sold. (modal finite+ modal adjunct)
3. Her paintings usually sell. (modal adjunct)
4. There was absolutely no escape. (modal adjunct)
5. By all means get the money for the poor man. (modal adjunct)
6. He readily agreed to join the firm. (modal adjunct)
7. He seldom travels out of the country. (modal adjunct)
8. Possibly they just haven't yet arrived. (modal adjunct)
9. Celebration can sometimes go on a bit too long. (modal finite+modal adjunct)
10. My wife would gladly do the morning school run. (modal finite+ modal adjunct)

(Source: Droga and Humphrey, 2002:73)

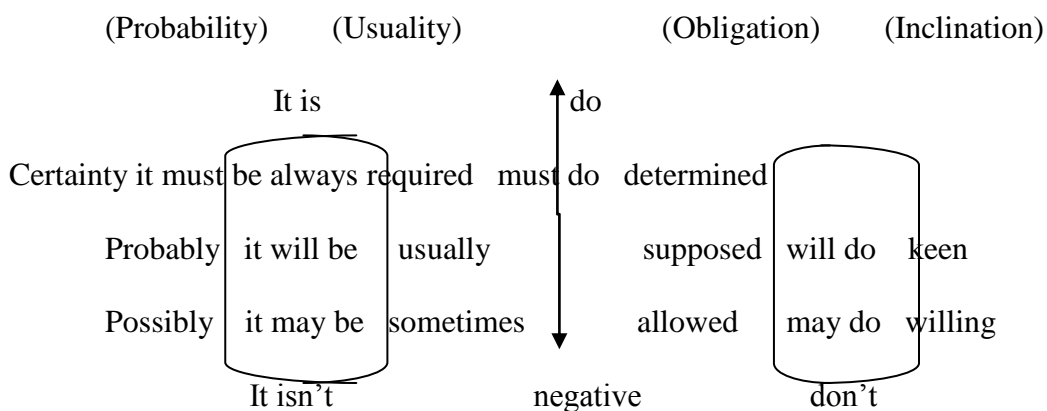
Ibibley (2002:33), explains that certain modal auxiliary verbs will typically be categorized as being indicative of 'modalization' in which case they are indicative of 'probability' and 'usuality' and 'modulation' which indicates 'obligation'- that which the speaker wants to do. According to Ibibley (2002:34), what the speaker wants done is compulsive on the addressee while that which the speaker wants to do is mandatory on his part. Ibibley (2002) further says Halliday's categories can broadly matched

With analyses by other scholars who have divided the modals into the 'epistemic' and 'deontic' categories. Ibibley says 'modalization' will correspond fairly to 'epistemic' modals while 'modulation' will correspond to the 'deontic' type.

According to Ibibley (2002), Halliday further explicates his explanation of the two sub-categories of modals: modalization and modulation through this table.

Modalization modulation

(Indicative type)	positive	(imperative type)
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**The functional categories of modal**

Since the modal verbs modify the main verb in any verbal group by indicating a range of attitudes and influences concerning a particular process or state concerned, we could say that they express a wide range of possible meanings, which grammarians like Quirk et al (1985) divide into two broad functional categories:

- 1) Intrinsic or influence modality
- 2) Extrinsic or knowledge modality

**Intrinsic or influence modality**

The meanings in this category include permission, duty, compulsion, ability and volition; and they are actions that direct human behaviour. This intervention and influence over the events or actions are such that generally signify the expression of commands, warnings, advice, permission, etc. All these functions are meant to influence someones else's behaviour. While the speaker may be involved in an interactive way, the speech function forms part of that behaviour.

**Extrinsic or knowledge modality**

The meanings embedded in this category are typically concerned with the expression of certainty, probability or possibility, of an event occurring, or concerning the truth content of

a proposition. This essentially expresses speaker's assessment of likelihoods, and is primarily cognitive in nature. It is typically a cognitive act, that is, an expression of the speaker's expectation or intuition. It is not necessarily or inherently concerned with human control or influence.

Based on these communicative functions, the modal verbs themselves are said to cut across the aforementioned functional categories, and because of the way these diverse communicative functions may be expressed by the same modal verbs, the distinctions are not always clear cut, but tend to overlap. Example of these contrasts can be seen in the following sentences:

1. She may leave the class early.
2. You must be mad.
3. You must be careful.
4. We shall finish now.
5. It can get very cold in the winter.
6. He can speak Yoruba.

Based on the intrinsic and extrinsic functional categories, the true meaning of example (1) can only be interpreted in the context in which it occurs. However, it can be interpreted as either meaning that permission has been granted, or that there is a possibility of the event occurring. Example (2) expresses the assessment of the speaker, and signifies certainty. Example (3) signifies obligation and necessity. Example (4) signifies volition and not futurity. Example (5) indicates the possibility of an event occurring. Example (6) signifies ability.

On the other hand, a close observation of extrinsic modality reveals that there is a link between the signification of future time and the use of the modal verbs to express the degrees of probability, extending from uncertainty at one extreme towards certainty at the other. This assertion can be illustrated in the following ways:

- 1) He might win the fight.
- 2) He could win the fight.
- 3) He should win the fight.
- 4) He ought to win the fight.
- 5) He will win the fight.

Example (1) and (2) express the possibility of the event occurring, but the speaker indicates uncertainty. Example (3) and (4) similarly express the possibility of the event occurring, but the speaker assesses this as probable. Example (5) shows the speaker asserting that this event will occur, and also expresses certainty of this outcome. It is expedient to say that statements like example (5) which refer to events in the future involve prediction at the certainty end of the semantic continuum.

It is significant to say that assessments of probability are not restricted to future events, based on the meanings embedded in the following sentences:

- 1) They may be there now.
- 2) They should be there now.
- 3) They will be there now.
- 4) They must be there now.

Example (1) means it is possible but uncertain.

Example (2) means it is probable.

Example (3) means it is certain.

Example (4) expresses logical necessity.

Thus we can say that because of the overlap between the intrinsic and extrinsic meanings, it is very difficult to mention which communicative function is predominant in any sentence. For instance, 'will' can express both intention and prediction in different sentences.

E.g.

1). I will finish this later. (Intention)

2). It will rain tomorrow. (Prediction)

Generally speaking, three broad categories of meaning for modal verbs, which may be seen to be related systematically, have been identified. These categories include:

- (a) Intrinsic modality- influences concerning degree of obligation, duty, necessity, permission and responsibility.
- (b) Extrinsic modality- knowledge as to the likelihood of an event occurring.
- (c) Time modality- time reference from the moment of speaking.

Although the three categories of meaning are shown as distinct, the above shows that in practice, there are areas of overlap where particular instances of use may combine more than one meaning or all of these aspects of meaning in a sentence.

The table below shows the classification summary of modal auxiliaries as presented by Quirk et al (1985: 137).

**Table 1:**

a. Central modals	Can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, and must.
b. Marginal modals	Dare, need, ought to and used to

c. Modal idioms	Had better to would rather/sooner, be to, have got, etc.
d. Semi auxiliaries	Have to, be about to, be able to, be bound to, be going to, be willing to, be obliged to, be supposed to etc.
e. Cat natives	Appear to, happen to, seem to, getted participle, kept-ing participle.
f. Main Verb + non finité clause	Hope + to – infinite, begin + ing participle.

From the review of the modal auxiliaries so far, it is obvious that much has been said about the central auxiliaries. Attention now is on what Quirk et al (1985) called verbs of intermediate. They include marginal modals, Modals idioms, semi auxiliaries and catenatives.

**Marginal modals** (dare, need, ought to, used to).

According to Quirk et al (1985: 139). The marginal modals are verbs which closely resemble the central modal auxiliaries. They argue that ‘dare’ and ‘need’ are rather proper modals as they can sometimes function as main verbs. ‘Ought to’ may be treated as a central modal if speakers construct it with the bare infinitive. ‘Dare’ and ‘Need’ can be used either as main verbs (with to-infinitive and with inflected -’s’, -ing and past forms) or, under restricted conditions as modal auxiliaries with the bare infinitive and without the inflected forms). The table below illustrates that.

**Table 2**

	<b>Modal Construction</b>	<b>Auxiliaries</b>	<b>Main Verb Construction</b>

Positive		He needed/dared to escape
Negative	He needn't/daren't escape	He doesn't need/ dare to escape
Interrogative	Need/dare we escape?	He doesn't need/ dare to escape.
Negative interrogative	Needn't be escape afterall? Dare he not escape	Doesn't he need to escape after all? Doesn't he dare to escape?

The modal construction is restricted to nonassertive contexts that is mainly negative and interrogative sentences. Whereas the main verb construction can always be used and in fact more common. The auxiliary construction with 'dare' and 'need' is rare in AME than in BRE where it is quite rare. As a modal 'dare' exhibits abnormal time reference in that it can be used, without inflection, for past as well as present time. For example:

109. The Father was so hot tempered that no one dare tell him the news.

### **Ought to**

'Oughtto' has the uncontracted negative 'ought not to' and the contracted negative 'oughtn't to', it normally has the to-infinitive (although occasionally in familiar style the bare infinitive occurs in nonassertive infinitive contexts). For example:

110.(i) You ought to stop smoking (positive)

(ii) You oughtn't to stop smoke so much (negative)

(iii) Ought you to smoke so much? (Interrogative)

The 'to' is also optional following ought in ellipsis. E.g. I think I ought (to)

### Used to

'Used to' denotes a habit or a state that existed in the past and is therefore semantically not so much a modal auxiliary as an auxiliary of tense and aspect. In normal terms however, it fits the marginal modal category. It always takes the 'to' for example:

111.(i) She used to attend regularly (was in the habit of attending)

(ii) I used to be interested in bird watching (I was formally.....) 'Used to' occurs both as an operator and with Do-support. In the later case, the spelling 'used to' and 'use to' both occur, reflecting speaker's uncertainty of the status of this verb: an uncertainty that is as to be treated as an invariable form like a modal auxiliary or as a form with an infinitive like a full verb. The pronunciation of the verb does not allow discrimination between these possibilities. In the negative, the operator construction, which avoids this dilemma, is preferred by many in BRE. For example:

112. (i) He usen't to smoke. BrE
- (ii) He used to not smoke.
- (iii) He didn't used to smoke.
- (iv) He didn't used to smoke. AmE
-

The construction ‘didn’t used to’ is preferred to other constructions in both AME and BRE ‘didn’t’ ‘used to’ is however regarded as nonstandard.

## **2.6 Modal Idioms**

According to Quirk et al (1985: 141), this category contains the following four multi-word verbs, as well as some less common verbal constructions: ‘had better’, ‘would rather’, ‘have to go’, and ‘be to’. They all begin with an auxiliary verb and are followed by an infinitive sometimes preceded by to. For example:

113.(i) I’d rather not say anything.

(ii) They’ve got to leave immediately.

(iii) The conference is to take place in Lagos.

(iv) We had better leave soon.

None of these idiomatic verbs has nonfinite forms: They cannot therefore follow other verbs in the verb phrase. The following sentences are therefore odd.

114. (i) I will have got to leave soon.

(ii)The conference has been to take place in Kano.

In this respect they are not like main verbs. They are not, however, entirely like auxiliaries, since they do not behave as operator. It is normally the first word alone which acts as operator in (for example) negative and interrogative sentences.

115. (i) Hadn’t we better lock the door?

(ii) Would you rather eat in a hotel?

(iii) We haven’t got to pay already, have we?

(iv) I wasn’t to know that you were waiting.

However, 'had better' and 'would rather' have two kinds of negation. First, there is a negation in which not follows the whole expressions. For example:

116.(i) I'd rather not stay here alone.

(ii) You'd better not lock the door.

A second type of negation, in which do not follows the first word, is typically used in second instance contexts (especially in negative question) where an earlier statement assumption is being challenged. For example:

117.(i) A: Wouldn't you rather live in the city?

B: No, I would not I'd rather live here.

'Have got to' and 'Be to' are more like main verbs in that they have an-s form and normal present past tense contrast. For example:

118.(i) The committee is to meet today.

(ii) The committee was to meet yesterday.

(iii) She has got to leave by tomorrow.

(iv) She had got to leave by the next week.

The past tense construction 'had got to' however, does not occur in AME, and is rare in BRE, especially in question.

### **Semi-auxiliaries**

According to Quirk et al (1985) the semi-auxiliaries consist of a set idioms which express modal or aspectual meaning and which are introduced by one of the primary verbs 'HAVE and 'BE'; for example, 'be able to', 'be about to', 'be apt to', 'be bound to', 'be due to', 'be going to', 'be likely to', 'be meant to', 'obliged to', 'be supposed to', 'be willing to', and 'have to'. As mentioned earlier the boundaries of this category are not clean as they may

be extended to include the negative such as ‘be unable to’, ‘be unwilling to’, ‘be unlikely to’ etc.

All these enumerated semi-auxiliaries satisfy the criteria for auxiliary verbs which were earlier discussed in the sense that for instance, ‘be going to’, has ‘be’ as an operator in negation and inversion rather than having ‘Do-support’, for example:

119.(i) Adamu isn’t going to win.

(ii) Adamu doesn’t be going to win.

(iii) Is Adamu going to win?

(iv) Does Adamu be going to win?

However, this follows from the fact that the first word of the semi-auxiliary construction is the primary verb ‘be’, to be strictly comparable to an auxiliary in its entirety, ‘be going to’ would have to form its negation by adding ‘not’ to the second or third word. It is therefore only by special interpretation of the operator criteria (a-e earlier examined) that these semi-auxiliaries can be described as auxiliary-like.

### **Have to**

‘Have to’ is the only semi-auxiliary beginning with ‘have’ rather than with ‘BE’ but its inclusion in this category. According to Quirk et al (1985), is partly justified by its occurrence in the full range of non-finite form, a respect in which it differs from the semantically parallel ‘have got to’ for example:

120.(i) I may have to leave early.

(ii) I may have got to leave early.

(iii) People have to boil their drinking water during this emergency.

(iv) The administration has had to make unpopular decision.

As these examples have shown, ‘have to’, can occur in modal perfective, and progressive construction it would be impossible to substitute ‘have got to’ for ‘have to’ in these cases.

In meaning, ‘have to’ is similar to ‘must’ and can stand in for ‘must’ in past constructions where ‘must’ cannot occur. For example:

121.(i) These days you must work hard if you want to succeed (‘have to’ can substitute ‘must’ here).

(ii) In those days you had to work hard if you want to succeed (‘must’ cannot be used here).

‘Have to’ patterns whether as a main verb or as an auxiliary with respect to operator constructions. For example:

122. (i) Do we have to get up early tomorrow?

(ii) Have we to get up early tomorrow?

Although ‘have got to’ has the same meanings ‘obligation’ and ‘logical’ necessity’ as are expressed by ‘Have to’, ‘Have got to’ tends not have habitual meaning and when combined with a verb of dynamic meaning, tends to refer to the future. There is thus a potential difference between the following sentences:

123. (i) Sam’s got to check the temperature every 12 hours.

(ii) Sam has to check the temperature every 12 hours.

Whereas sentence (i) is likely to have the force directive, stipulating what Sam’s duties will be in future, sentence (ii) is more likely to indicate a habitual action (this is what Sam’s present duties consist of).

## **2.7 Catenative Verbs Constructions**



Of the problem        got

Seemed

These criteria, however, applies somewhat marginally to agentive verb like fail and manage, and does not apply at all to get. Unlike main verb constructions are in no way syntactically related to transitive construction in which the verb is followed a direct object or prepositional object. Compare the following sentences:

126.

Sani { Appeared }  
      { Attempted } } to attack the burglar.

But: Sani { Appeared }  
          { Attempted } } an attack on the burglar.

Finally, Quirk et al (1985) comprehensive work on auxiliary verbs both modals and non-modals which have been reviewed by the researcher if effectively taught and learnt will definitely help writers of office documents to have an in-depth knowledge of these verbs, and use them appropriately.

## 2.8 Theoretical Framework

The wide coverage which traditional linguistics and the systemic functional grammar give the auxiliary verbs in English makes them suitable theories on which this study is anchored. The fundamental difference between systemic functional grammar and traditional grammar is that while the former emphasis on context and the latter is more concerned with the formal structure of language. The systemic model was developed from the late 1950s by the British linguist, M.A.k. Halliday and his associates (Halliday, 1985). Its immediate antecedent was J.R. Firth (1950) whose thinking has as its basis a contextual

theory of meaning usually attributed to the anthropologist in the field cannot understand what is meant by in a non-European language unless the utterances are interpreted in the light of what the speakers are doing at the time. It is based on this that Firth and Halliday developed what is today known as systemic functional Grammars.

The systemic functional theory provides the reader with the tools for analysing real samples of English and help to offer a partial description of the language. Systemic functional grammar takes into consideration how language is used by a speaker in a particular context of situation. In other words, the theory describes the functions of a language. Functional grammar has to do with the way we use language with regards to the context of culture (that is, social, purpose activities, within the broad socio-cultural environment) and context situation (that is, field, tenor and mode situations within the broader socio-cultural environment) at a particular time of use. It also sees language as an avenue for making meaning like experiential, interpersonal, and textual. While experiential meaning investigates what is going on in the context situation, textual meaning is demonstrated when a text is organized in a language being used, that is; it examines how the language is being used effectively, and interpersonal meaning is associated with the patterns of dialogue and attitude, that is, it talks about the role the participants play as language is used in the course of interaction (Bloor and Bloor, 1995).

The Traditional theory of grammar is regarded as the scientific approach to the study of language. The approach is one that is normative, definition oriented and prescriptive in nature. It represents an attempt to prescribe the rules for language use. It prescribes rather than merely describes language. Emphasis is on correct usage, that is, what speaker should say rather than what they actually say. Indeed, it is this attitude to correctness that has always

led to prescribing what sort of language thought to be used. Quirk et al (1985), like other works reviewed, recognized auxiliary verbs as helping verbs. They identify three primary auxiliary verbs (do, have, be), nine central modal auxiliary verbs (can, may, will, shall, could, might, would, should and must). Semantically, the primary verbs as auxiliaries share an association with the basic grammatical verb categories of tense, aspect and voice. In this, they are broadly distinguished from the modal verbs which are associated mainly with the expression of modal meaning such as possibility, obligation, necessity and volition (Quirk et al 1985: 129). Interpersonal meaning is associated with the patterns of dialogue and attitude, that is, it talks about the role the participants play as language is used in the course of interaction. Auxiliary verbs are used to bring out interpersonal meanings in a text. These meanings are made possible with the help of the participants- writer/reader or speaker/listener and the nature of their relationship. In other words, it is evident in the way their opinions are expressed and the display of their attitude towards the meanings. This means that participants take a stand whether strong, weak or middle ground to judge or assess events. When they do this, they make use of auxiliary verbs along with the main verbs to express interpersonal relationships like permission, probability, possibility, certainty, etc.

In this work, the interpersonal metafunction which is one of the functions of language postulated by Halliday (1985) and Quirk et al (1985) is adopted. Interpersonal metafunction is a function of language that enables a speaker to participate in communicative acts with other people, and to also take on roles to express and understand feelings, attitudes and judgments (Bloor and Bloor, 1985). To analyse the data for this research work, the Quirk et al (1972, 1982, 1985,) interpersonal meanings shall be used along with, Halliday's (1985) Interpersonal meaning provides us with the interpersonal relationships among the participant

as they express opinions like, probability, Usuality, obligation, inclination, permission, ability, readiness, possibility, politeness, necessity, intensity, obviousness, etc.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the sources of data, data gathering technique, and the data analytical procedure used for this work.

### **3.1 Sources of Data**

The data used for this study were collected from IBB University, Lapai, which is located in the Lapai Local Government Council in Niger State. It has many departments catering for the award of degree and also provides other services to the community. Thirty samples of office documents from the university Library, Office of the Registrar, student affairs and the following departments: chemistry, biology, political science, public administration, and counselling psychology provide the data for the study. These samples of the office document have something in common; they have the same pattern of writing documents of all kinds.

The samples of office documents that were chosen for the analysis were all written by people who must have attained higher certificates, diploma, higher national diploma or first degree from different institutions. The selection of this category was informed by the fact that at this level of their education, they should have had adequate knowledge of the grammatical items, most especially, 'the English main verbs and auxiliary verbs' which is the main focus of this research work.

The Thirty samples of office documents were considered adequate enough as data for the present study.

### **3.2 Data Gathering Technique**

The data used for this study were collected from IBB University, Lapai. Thirty samples of office documents were randomly chosen from the university Library, Office of the Registrar, Student Affairs office, and with the following departments: Biology, Chemistry, political Science, Public Admin, Counselling psychology. All relevant sentences and clauses

containing auxiliary verbs were subsequently identified. These were then isolated and grouped according to the type of auxiliary verbs that they contain and the type of functions the each auxiliary verb performs. This procedure is important and significant to avoid undue-repetition of illustrations. It also makes it possible for the researcher to come to a representative judgment about the meaning and possible outcome of the use of auxiliary verbs in office documents at IBB University, Lapai.

### **3-3 Analytical Procedure**

Based on the adoption of the systemic functional grammar and traditional grammar as the theoretical framework, those expressions that contain the use of auxiliary verbs from the office documents were analysed. This is in order to bring out the various possible interpretations of the auxiliary verbs used, and to give an insight into the difficulties faced by the writers in their use of auxiliary verbs in writing office documents. Their level of understanding of the interpersonal meaning of auxiliary verbs, most especially the non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs was also focused on for analysis. Eight and seven columns were provided to non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs in the analysis table to contain the serial numbers, the text for the analysis, the modality, the verb used, the verb intended, the interpersonal meaning, what the writer said and what the writer intended to say, meaning and reference in the data for analysis. The data were analysed using the relevant aspects of our eclectic theoretical framework of analysis, specifically, Halliday (1985) and Quirk et al (1972, 1982, 1985) interpersonal meaning of auxiliary verbs.



### Sample Analysis

S/N0	Text	Type of modality	Auxiliary Verb Used	Auxiliary Verb Intended	Interpersonal meaning	Possible Interpretation
1	To achieve any desire, there <u>must</u> be determination	Modalization/probability	Must	Should	Certainly	If any desire must be achieved, determination must be displayed
2	You <u>should</u> be sure of bringing the exams question papers	Modalization/Probability	Should	Must	Probably	The person involved should probably know that is expected to submit the exams questions

The table above contains sample analysis of the data collected from the office documents from IBB University, Lapai. Seven columns is used for the samples of analysis table to contain the serial numbers, the text for analysis, the type of modality, the auxiliary verb used, the auxiliary verb intended, the interpersonal meaning and possible interpretation of the text. The table affords us the opportunity to view the texts, know the types of auxiliary verbs used, suggest the intended auxiliary verbs, bring out the interpersonal meanings and write out what the speaker intend to say. By so doing we will be able to identify the problems faced by the writers of office documents being investigated

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter comprises the data presentation and analysis of office documents from Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai.

#### 4.1 Presentation of Data

Thirty (30) samples of office documents provide the data used to analyse the use of auxiliary verbs in IBB University, Lapai. The documents numbered 1-30 are presented in the appendix.

#### 4.2 Analysis of Data

The analysis of English non-modal and modal auxiliary verbs is the focus of this study. However, only the English non-modal and modals auxiliary verbs that the writers of office documents used in their documents or writings are analysed. This is done by applying the systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Traditional Linguistics (TL) theoretical model for the analysis of the data extracted from the office documents. The analysis of the auxiliary verbs in this work is limited to the three non-modal and the nine common modal of English: 'be', 'have', 'do', 'can', 'could', 'will', 'would', 'shall', 'should', 'may', 'might', and 'must'. Each of these auxiliary verbs constitutes a different heading in the process of analysis. The analysis which is presented in tables contextualizes the meaning such that the writer's ability to the use of auxiliary verbs is revealed.

#### 4.2.1: Analysis of modal auxiliary verbs in selected IBB University, Lapai office documents

**Table 1: Analysis of the use of ‘Would’.**

S/N	TEXT	MODALITY	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
1.	There <u>would</u> be a training for the departmental staffs	Extrinsic	Would	Will/Shell	Willingness (weak volition)	The writer is telling them about training coming up for staff.	There <u>will</u> be training for the departmental staff. ‘Will’ or ‘shall’ will be appropriate
2.	This is to inform you that there <u>would</u> be a crucial meeting	Modalization/ Extrinsic	Would	Will/Shell	Willingness	The writer here also passes information the meeting scheduled to hold.	The use of ‘will’ or ‘shall’ will be appropriate
3.	...It <u>would</u> be holding its fourth departmental meeting	Modalization/ Extrinsic	Would	Will/shall	Willingness	A meeting will hold in the department	The use Of ‘will’ or ‘shall’ will also be appropriate for the context.
4.	Any payment made before clearance <u>would</u> not be entertain henceforth	Modalization/ Extrinsic	Would	Will/Shell	Willingness/co mpulsion	The writer is making a compulsion and expected an obligation from the respondent.	The use of ‘will’ or ‘shall’ will also be appropriate for this context.

**‘Would’** has interpersonal meaning of willingness, (weak volition), insistence (strong volition), characteristic/habitual activity, hypothetical meaning in main clauses and probability. ‘Would’ as used in Text 1 does not portray the intention of the writer to have a departmental training in the near future; rather it makes it look more of a past hypothetical auxiliary verb which does not agree with the context where it occurs. The intended auxiliary verbs ‘will’ or ‘shall’ in that context are more appropriate since it is all about prediction, insistence and intention. The use of ‘would’ in Text 2 has been misapplied such that it reveals the meaning of past hypothetical auxiliary verb and does not agree with the context where it occurs. Like with Text 1 the use of ‘will’ or ‘shall’ is the intended auxiliary verb since it is all about intention, prediction and insistence. Similarly, the auxiliary ‘would’ in Text 3 has been wrongly used where ‘will’ or ‘shall’ is more appropriate in that context. Text 4 has also been misapplied. The use of ‘will’ or ‘shall’ is the intended auxiliary verbs in that context.

**Table 2: Analysis of the use of ‘can’**

S/No	TEXT	MODALITY	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	THE INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
5	With these you <u>can</u> also add two elective courses.	Modulation/intrinsic modalization/ Extrinsic	Can	Can	Ability and possibility	The writer is advising them to pick an elective course	The writer used the appropriate modal ‘can’
6	There are so many organizations you <u>can</u> choose to join any	Modalization extrinsic	Can	Could	Ability and possibility	The writer feels is possible to join any organization	The writer could also use verb ‘could’
7	No student <u>can</u> use the toilet except the staff.	Modalization/ extrinsic	Can	Should/Must	Obligation	The writer feels it is possible for student not to use the toilet	‘Should’ or ‘must’ is the appropriate modal
8	....You <u>can</u> pick two elective courses and perform well in your course.	Modalization/ Extrinsic	Can	Should	Possibility and Ability	The writer thinks of the possibility of succeeding when taking the elective courses.	The speaker is expected to express some kind of logical certainty. Thus, the speaker could use modal verb ‘Should’

**‘Can’** is used to express interpersonal meanings of ability, permission and possibility. **‘Can’** is also used to make reference to present time. ‘Can’ as used in Text 5 agrees with the context of situation. Since ‘can’ has the interpersonal meanings of ability, permission and possibility. In Text 6 both ‘can’ and ‘could’ agree with context of situation, but, ‘could’ is more appropriate because the statement is expressed in a less assertive case and more politely. It should also be noted that ‘could’ does not always refer to past time; it can also be applicable to present tense contexts when used to express a more polite statement. In Texts 7 and 8 ‘can’ was also wrongly used with regard to the context of situation. ‘Should or must’ is more appropriate auxiliary verb in text 7 so that it will talk more of compulsion of the speaker. ‘Should’ is suggested as the intended auxiliary verb to be used in Text 8, which will reveal the interpersonal meaning of obligation and logical necessity of the speaker.

**Table 3: Analysis of the use of ‘Should’**

S/No	TEXT	TYPE OF VERB OR MODAL	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
9.	You are advice to pick the use of English which you <u>should</u> pass	Modulation/intrinsic	Should	Must	Obligation and probability	The use of should reveals hope, but contains hypothetical meaning	‘Must’ is the appropriate auxiliary verbs.
10.	I will like to advice that you <u>should</u> be very careful on choosing elective courses	Modulation/intrinsic	Should	must	Obligation inform of advice	The writer seems to have assumed the role of an adviser	The modal ‘must’ fits into the context since it expresses necessity
11.	You should understand that before someone <u>should</u> pick a course	Modulation/intrinsic	Should	Can	Obligation inform of advice	The writer expresses an obligation of giving an advise which is necessary	Modal ‘can’ is appropriate because it expresses the ability of one another in a choice of course
12	While writing the examination you <u>should</u> not communicate with one another	Modulation/intrinsic	Should	Must	Probability/expectation	To some extent the writer is expecting the student not to communicate while writing examination.	Must is the appropriate because it shows compulsion

**‘Should’** is mostly used to relate the interpersonal meanings of obligation and logical necessity, putative, hypothetical and tentative condition in conditional clauses. The use of auxiliary verb ‘must’ in Text 9 is more appropriate since it has the interpersonal meaning like compulsion and the writer is seen as imposing an action to the people involved. The use of ‘must’ in Text 10 fits into the context where it was used because it has the interpersonal meaning of logical necessity. The use of ‘should’ in Text 11 reveals the interpersonal meaning like obligation and logical necessity, so the use of ‘can’ is appropriate so that it will express the ability of the people involved. The use of the auxiliary verbs ‘must’ in Text 12 fits into the context since it has the interpersonal meaning of compulsion.

**Table 4: Analysis of the use of ‘must’.**

S/No	TEXT	MODALITY	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
13.	You <u>must</u> not forget that in achieving success, hard work is require	Modalization/Extrinsic	Must	Should/Can	Logical/ Necessity/ compulsion	Mandatory not to forget that success is the product of hard work.	The modal ‘should’ and ‘can’ to express necessary and ability in the same context.

**‘Must’**this auxiliary verb like **‘should’** is used to express the interpersonal meaning of obligation or compulsion and logical necessity even in the present tense context. In this case, the speaker usually imposes the action on the listener. ‘Must’ as used in the above statement has been wrongly used such that it reveals the interpersonal meaning of compulsion, logical necessity and obligation and making it inappropriate in the context where it occurs. ‘Should’ or ‘Can’ is the intended auxiliary verb in that context so that it expresses the speaker ability, possibility, and logical necessity.

**Table 5: Analysis of the use of ‘will’.**

S/No	TEXT	MODALITY	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	THE INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
14.	Reading different books from authors <u>will</u> broaden ones knowledge and make one to know....	Modulation/ Intrinsic	Will	Should	Volition/ Prediction	The writer believes the reading of books will make one to have a broad knowledge or experience.	The use of ‘should’ is also appropriate
15.	I <u>will</u> be grateful if the department could be of help.	Modulation/ Intrinsic	Will	Would	Prediction/ logicality	The writer expresses intention of being grateful should his department come to his aid	The modal ‘would’ is also appropriate if he is to be certain in his prediction.
16.	The commencement of the first semester exams comes up next week Monday, and I pray that God <u>will</u> see you through	Modulation/ Intrinsic	Will	Should	Volition and prediction (speaker’s intention Willingness)	The speaker expresses his intention through a prayer	His expression is expected to carry some certainty in it. Thus ‘should’ can go too.
17.	.... It is expected that others <u>will</u> emulate from you.	Modulation/ Intrinsic	Will	Should	Volition and prediction (speaker’s intention and certainty)	The speaker is certain of showing good example as a responsible student.	Since the speaker is certain of showing good example through his dressing, the modal ‘should’ can be applied.
18.	....It is our prayers that your dreams <u>will</u> come true	Modulation/ Intrinsic	Will	Should	Prediction (speakers Certainty and Necessity)	The speaker shows some level of certainty in his expression.	His expression also carries the necessity meaning, since it is a desire.

**‘Will’** it is mostly used to express interpersonal meanings like willingness, intention, insistence and prediction. The use of ‘will’ in Text 14 is appropriate, but ‘should’ is more appropriate since it has interpersonal meaning like logical necessity. The used of ‘would’ in Text 15 will also be appropriate if the writer is to be certain in his prediction. The used of ‘should’ in Text 16 will also be appropriate since the expression of the writer carry some certainty in it.

#### 4.2.2: Analysis of non-modal auxiliary verbs of some selected IBB University office documents.

**Table 6: Analysis of the use of ‘Be’ (be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been).**

S/No	TEXT	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	THE INTENDED MEANING AND REFERENCE
19.	This <u>is</u> to inform members of the senate Business committee that a meeting is scheduled to consider the first Semester Examination Results for 2010/2011 Academic Session.	Is	Is	Obligation, Simple present (this is an advice and duty to be performed).	The writer gave a notice of meeting to be held.	The writer gave a notice of meeting to be held in the near future.
20.	The Deans <u>are</u> advised to make ten (10) copies of their submission for members of the committee please.	Are	Are	Obligation, Present action/ Simple present (speaker expresses advice and duty to be performed)	The speaker expresses an obligation to be performed by those concerned.	The speaker should also be seen expressing insistence for the submissions
21.	This <u>is</u> to inform members of staff who indicated interest to patronize university staff bus service that the bus service will commence operation as follows:...	Is	Is	Probability, Simple present (writer expresses tentative expectation)	The writer gave a notice to staff who are interested to patronize the school bus.	The writer also expresses it from the point of expectation.
22.	Please, <u>be</u> punctual.	Be	Be	Logical necessity, Go with all persons	Writer gave advice to be prompt.	The writer gave advice for the participant to be at the venue on time.
23.	Please, <u>be</u> informed that there will be an emergency meeting of the faculty standing committee as follows:	Be	Be	Obligation (this is in the sense of advice and expression of necessity).	The writers pass information of a meeting schedule to hold by the faculty standing committee.	The writer also sees it from a point of obligation and necessity.

'Be' (be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been). is used in progressive sentences, also used in passive sentence. 'Is', 'Are', 'Is', 'Be', 'Be' as used respectively in Texts 19, 20, 21, 22 and 23 in the tables agree with the contexts where it occurred. The auxiliaries talk more on the simple present, present tense with interpersonal meanings of obligation, probability, tentative expectation, and logical necessity respectively.

**Table 7:** Analysis of the use of ‘Have’ (Has, Have, Had).

S/No	TEXT	VERB USED	VERB INTENDED	INTER-PERSONAL MEANING	WHAT THE WRITER HAS SAID	INTENDED MEANING REFERENCE
24.	... the library furniture(Table and chairs) used during matriculation exercise <u>have</u> been returned to their various places	Have	Have	Certainty	The writer expresses the certainty of the return of furniture used for examination.	The writer is certain for the return of the library furniture used for the examination, and the auxiliary verb ‘Have’ used do not agreed with the context because of the subject which is singular. ‘Has’ is the appropriate verb.
25.	Please, note that it is only the staff that <u>have</u> first degree and above should attend the congregation.	Have	Have	Logical necessity, Expression of certainty	The writer emphasis on attendance, should be graduate and above who should attend the congregation.	The writer use of auxiliary verb ‘Have’ agree with the context because the subject is a plural form.
26.	This <u>has</u> been your habitual attitude to work despite repeated advises and verbal warning	Has	Has	Logical necessity and Certainty	The writer is certain of the attitude of the defaulter to work	The auxiliary verb ‘Has’ agree with the context.
27.	I write to bring to your notice that two (2) set of desktop, Laptop and stabilizer of the department <u>has</u> been faulty for some time.	Has	Have	Certainty	The writer is certain about the fault of the desk top, laptop in the department.	The auxiliary verb ‘has’ does not agree with the context, because the subject is a plural. Auxiliary verb ‘have’ is the right auxiliary verbs.
28.	It <u>has</u> been observed that you absented yourself from duty on Friday 30/03/2012	Has	Has	Logical Necessity, Expression of Certainty	The writer expresses the defaulter absents at the place of work.	There is certainty in what the writer has said about the defaulter.
29.	Departmental board meeting <u>have</u> been schedule to hold	Have	Has	Expression of Certainty	The writer expresses certainty for the meeting to hold in the department.	The use of ‘has’ is the appropriate for this context since the subject is in singular form.
30.	Your date <u>have</u> been fixed	Have	Has	Certainty	The writer expresses that a date for a sen forth has been fixed.	The use of ‘has’ is the appropriate for this context since the subject is in a singular form.

‘Have’ (Has, Have, Had) is used in the formation of perfect tenses. The auxiliary verb ‘have’ will change its forms depending on the number and person of the subject and the tense of the verb. ‘Have’ and ‘Has’ as used in texts 24-30 respectively were correctly used. In Texts 24,25,26,28 and 30 their use agrees with the contexts where it all occurred with present tense respectively. ‘Have’ and ‘has’ as used in Text 27 and 29 are wrongly used. ‘Have’ is the intended auxiliary verb for Text 27 because the context is in plural verb and ‘Has’ is the correct verb for 29 since the context is with a singular verb.

### 4.3 Discussion

The analysis of the datashows that the writers of office documents exhibited indiscriminate use of some English auxiliary verbs ‘will’ and ‘would’, ‘can’ and ‘could’ and ‘has’ and ‘have’ in their documents. In other words, they used them as if they all have one and the same meaning. The way they use them reveals only the past tense meaning. Where they intend to use the modal ‘could’ to give the inter-personal meaning of possibility, they used the modal ‘can’ which gives the meaning of ability or permission; for instance, in the following example: “There are so many organizations one can choose to join any.”

The word ‘can’ as used in the above example does not agree with the context where it has been used. This is because of the inter-personal meanings it carries ‘could’ is more appropriate in the context. As for the English auxiliary verbs ‘will’ and ‘would’, the writers of office documents used them in their documents such that they portrayed same meaning and as present and past tense forms. For instance, in the following statement: “There would be a training section for the department staffs.”

The modal ‘would’ as in the above statement has been wrongly used such that it reveals the meaning of past tense and making it not to agree with the context where it occurred. The

modal 'will' is the appropriate auxiliary verb in that context so that it will talk more of the intention of the writer. As for the English auxiliaries 'has' and 'have', the writer of office documents used them in their writing to portray same meaning and as present and past tense forms. For instance, in the following statement: "The departmental meetinghavebeen scheduled to hold."

The word 'have' as used in the above statement has been misused such that 'have' has a plural subject and making it not to agree with the context where it occurs. The word 'has' is the intended auxiliary verb in that context so that it will talk more of the singular subject of the writer. Another example of indiscriminate use of 'has': "Yourdate have been fixed..."

Again, 'have' as used in this statement does not agree with the context. Thus 'has' is suggested as the auxiliary verbs that agree with above context, because the subject of discussion is in a singular form.

The writers of office documents seemed to be selective in the application of the English auxiliary verbs in their writings. This act actually limited their choices to just a few of the English auxiliary verbs. This could mean that they are not comfortable with some other auxiliary verbs. The English auxiliary verbs they tremendously used are 'can', 'could', 'has', 'have', 'will', 'would', 'must'. One may say they have used them due to the simplicity of the auxiliary verbs.

The analysis shows us that the English auxiliary verbs 'may', 'might', 'shall', have been scantily used by the writers of office documents. In the course of analysis it was found that the English auxiliary verbs, 'do', 'ought to', 'used to' were not used in the documents collected.

Also, in the course of analysis of the data, it was observed that most of the users of English auxiliary verbs and the meaning they reveal indicates that the writer of office documents had memorized the English auxiliary verbs with their accompanying meanings without the idea of the subtle, social cultural information each choice is likely to convey in a particular context. This is evident in their documents such that the auxiliary verbs ‘may’, ‘might’, ‘shall’, ‘must’, ‘used to’ were not used tremendously like the auxiliary verbs ‘can’, ‘could’, ‘will’, ‘would’ which were frequently used. This could be associated to the fact that they may not be aware that each auxiliary verb is capable of having more than one meaning and that each meaning is a member of an inter-related system. Indeed, this attitude could affect whatever speakers intend to communicate to the reader or listener.

The analysis also reveals that writers of office documents lacked the ability to form the negative forms of the English auxiliary verbs in a verbal group of a clause structure. The use of negative forms of the English auxiliary verbs is found in not more than two contexts in their documents. This study shows that probably they are not knowledgeable in the construction of negative forms of English auxiliaries. For instance, they may not know that adding not after some auxiliaries does not always give the opposite meaning. It will be interesting to note that the negative of ‘must’ is sometimes ‘cannot’, while that of ‘should’ is sometimes ‘need not’ etc. Based on this, it can be concluded that they could not use the negative forms because of the difficulty involved in the formation of the negative forms.

The analysis also shows that the writers of office documents faced difficulties in the application of both past conditional of auxiliary verbs or past hypothetical found in their writings or documents. This could be that the context of situation did not give room for that

or that the writers of office document are not knowledgeable in the expression of this type of auxiliaries.

#### **4.4 Findings**

There is no doubt that the difficulties of teaching the English auxiliary verbs go hand in hand with the difficulties in understanding the English auxiliary verbs and can be compared to a walking tightrope. In order to facilitate understanding of the English auxiliary verbs by the writers of office document, the writer of office document is required to frequently read and use sentences that contain extremely complex system with enough intricacy to illustrate the relationship of the auxiliary verbs most especially the modal auxiliary, to each other and their place in a semantic system. It is also worthy of mention that interculturalism has a role in both the teaching and understanding of the English modal system.

Of a truth, writers of office documents use the English auxiliary verbs, and it is important for them to know that English auxiliary verbs have meaning. Therefore, there is needed to be very comfortable not only with grammatical properties of auxiliary verbs, but their semantic properties as well. This is necessary in order to avoid wrong application of the numerous meanings since the semantic properties show that there is more than one category of meaning and the same auxiliary verbs (auxiliary verbs) in more than one.

In the course of the analysis of data, the study arrived at the following findings:

1. The writers of office documents used for analysis seem to be selective in the application of English auxiliary verbs (modal verbs) such that they limit their choices to only those they are familiar with.

2. There are exhibitions of indiscriminate use of some English auxiliary verbs like 'has' and 'have', 'will' and 'would' and 'can' and 'could'. The writers of the office documents use them as if they all have one meaning.
3. The English auxiliary verbs 'may', 'might', 'shall' and 'should' have been scantily used by the writers of office documents in their writing.
4. The writers of office documents experience difficulty in the application of both the past condition of English auxiliary in their documents.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of all that have been done in the research with regard to the analysis of the use of auxiliary verbs in the non-native setting, specifically in the documents of writers of office documents of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai. This chapter also makes concluding remarks and gives recommendations based on the analysis carried and the findings of the research.

#### 5.1 Summary

This study examined the use of English auxiliary verbs in office documents of Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University, Lapai. The study observed the causes of the inability of the office documents writers to use the auxiliary verbs in English appropriately and noted, after interacting with some staff of few offices and departments of the institution, that such officers lack the knowledge of the proper use of the English auxiliary verbs and as such misuse the auxiliary verbs. This study which is an attempt to assess the writers of office documents performance in the use of the English auxiliary verbs, obtained data from the documents written in various offices. The data collected were analysed to find out the extent to which the writers of office documents understand the English auxiliary verbs, the general semantic meanings applicable in the expression of English auxiliary verbs and how well they understand the meaning of some auxiliary verbs when placed in different context of situations.

In order to achieve the aim of this study, the study reviewed literature to point out the meaning, function, and the importance of the English auxiliary verbs. Because the English auxiliary

are divided into two types, the data were put in two categories and used for the investigation.

The data collected for the study were samples of office documents used by the writers of office documents. Thirty samples of office documents from four selected schools and few offices of the institution were collected, through faculty clerical staffs and faculty officers. The analysis was of the two types of auxiliary verbs: Primary and Modal auxiliary verbs. The data analyses were carried out based on Halliday's and Quirk's et al in different tables used to examine on each item as used in the different sample documents.

The results of the analysis showed that the writers of office documents in the data used for analysis seem to be selective in the application of English auxiliary verbs (modal verbs) such that they limit their choices to only those they are familiar with. There are instances of indiscriminate use of some English auxiliary verbs like 'has' and 'have', 'will' and 'would' and 'can' and 'could'. The writers of the office documents used them as if they all have one meaning. The English auxiliary verbs 'may', 'might', 'shall' and 'should' were scantily used by the writers of office documents in their writing. The writers of office documents experience difficulty in the application of English auxiliary verbs in their document. This study deems it necessary that the writers of office document who are our subject still need to improve in the use of the English auxiliary verbs at all levels of education in Nigeria.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

The results of the analysis presented leads to the conclusion that all types of auxiliary verbs in English are problematic to some office writers, but the modal auxiliary verbs that pose more problems to the writers of office documents than the primary auxiliary verbs. That is, they have limited knowledge on the uses and proper application of the rules guiding the

auxiliary verbs usage. Therefore, it could be asserted that the inadequate exposure to language use and probably poor learning background could be the factors that contribute to the problems they have with the use of auxiliary verbs in English.

Though it is a fact that the learners of English and even English lecturers cannot be perfect like the nativespeakers, efforts should be made to strive for the Standard English since it is language used in our educational system. The study also conclude that the English lecturers would endeavour to give their best to learners, that is teach them the basics of language use in all situations, the problems the writers of office documents have with the use of English auxiliary verbs in their writings would reduce.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

This study recommends that seminars, conferences and workshops should always be organized by the University for writers of office documents. Through attendance of such programmes writers of office documents could also gain more knowledge and even be exposed to those things which they do not know.

In addition, writers of office documents should be encouraged to read widely so as to increase their knowledge in English language. That is, they should engage themselves with other educative materials outside their place of work, as these will improve their spoken and written English. If these are taken care of, errors involving the use of auxiliary verbs in English as discussed above would reduce. Thus, effective communication would be realized and even greater competence in the use of English Language would be enhanced.

In order for writers of office documents to be encouraged to read widely the institution and others relevant bodies should endeavour to equip the school library, teach such officers

how to use different kinds of expression, and to learn how to make meanings out of whatever they write or speak in the course their various writings.

#### **5.4 Research's Contribution to Knowledge**

This study has contributed the following to knowledge:

1. Use of English auxiliary verbs can be very simple, if not carefully monitored, the information intended to be passed across could be written wrongly by writers of office documents.
2. Over generalization of the use of English auxiliary verbs may also affect the meaning of what is intended to be passed across. For example the use of "and"
3. It will facilitate the understanding of English auxiliary verbs to the writers of office documents; learners as well as teachers since they will be exposed to frequent reading and use of sentences that contain extremely complex systems with enough intricacy to illustrate the relationship of the auxiliary verbs most especially the modal auxiliary verbs, to each other and their place in a semantic system.
4. The study will also facilitate the writers of office documents use the English auxiliary verbs understand the meaning and differences and be very comfortable not only with grammatical properties of auxiliary verbs, but their semantic properties as well. This is necessary in order to avoid wrong application of the numerous meanings since the semantic properties show that there is more than one category of meaning and the same auxiliary verbs (auxiliary verbs) in more than one. Therefore, the writers of office documents shall not be selective in the application of English auxiliary verbs such that limiting their choices to only those they are familiar with. There shall also be less obvious errors in some office documents.

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## **APPENDIX**

Below are the documents written by the writers of office documents of IBB University Lapai which have served as our source of data for the analysis. In order for us to make reference to them easily, we have numbered, identify and underlined the auxiliary verbs written by the writer of office documents.