

**CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF TENSE FORMATION IN HAUSA AND ENGLISH
WITH TEACHING AND LEARNING IMPLICATIONS**

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation entitled “Contrastive Analysis of Tense Formation Processes in Hausa and English with Teaching and Learning Implications” has been carried out by me in the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, Faculty of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. In the research, all the information derived in the review of related literature has been duly acknowledged in the list of references. This dissertation was not presented previously for the award of certificate of any kind in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, or any other institution.

Name of Student

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Date

CERTIFICATION

This dissertation entitled “Contrastive Analysis of Tense Formation in Hausa and English with Teaching Implications” by Lawal Suleiman meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of Masters in Teaching English as a Second Language at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

It is approved for its contributions to knowledge.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents: Mal. Hauwa Abdullahi and Mal. Suleiman Ibrahim. I pray that Allah (SWA) will reward them abundantly for their contribution to my moral and educational upbringing. May this be counted in their good deeds, Ameen.

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ABSTRACT

The study entitled “Contrastive Analysis of Tense Formation in Hausa and English with Teaching and Learning Implications” studies the tense systems of Hausa and English. The tenses of the two languages were studied. The major objectives are to identify similarities and differences at four levels: distribution of tense, carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes. By extension, the study was intended to identify the possible learning difficulties of Hausa-speaking students learning English tenses. While Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) was used as analytical model, the Gradman’s Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) model was used as a descriptive model for the contrast. Two texts were selected for the analysis: “Points of Disorder” and “Dana Sani Keya ce”. Out of the population of two hundred sentences: one hundred sentences from the Hausa text and another one hundred sentences from the English language text, sixty (60) sentences were used as sample as recommended by Sax (2002). Thirty-(30) sentences carrying different tenses in each language were analyzed at three levels: carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes. The findings revealed that English major forms of tenses are numerous than their Hausa counterparts. It was discovered that the two languages have common features. However, from the data collected and analyzed, differences become apparent in terms of linguistic items carrying tenses and tense markers in English and Hausa. The study recommends the use of context-related activities such as reporting and describing experiences in the teaching of English tenses. Storytelling and comparisons of the English tenses identified in speeches, stories etc. are also recommended in teaching English tenses with those of the Hausa language.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

The following terms are used in this study to mean the definitions that are attached to them:

Contrastive Analysis: refers to the comparison of any two languages at a particular level of language the objective of which is to identify similarities and differences between the two languages in contrast.

Contrastive Models: refer to the tools or grammatical models used for the description of the aspects selected for contrast in the two languages. Some of them include traditional grammar, IC analysis, systemic grammar etc. They identify the features that are interesting to the contrastive linguist.

Tense System: means the nature and characteristics of tenses in the two languages compared in this study.

Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG): refers to the model used in the study to identify the tenses of both Hausa and English, carries of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes.

Surface Structure; means the physical features that take different forms in the process of transforming one form of structure into the other.

Deep Structure: refers to the meaning component of an expression as suggested by the underlying constituents in a particular sentence.

Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) Model: refers to a model of contrastive study that involves describing the grammatical features of two languages, detection of aspects present or absent and explaining the hierarchy of difficulty. It is suitable for use in comparing the grammars of any pair of two languages.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The grammar of every language has a means of indicating the time of an action. This, in English, is known as “tense”. Every language has a tense system that is used for indicating the point in which an action takes place. Tense system is often considered a fundamental aspect of grammar in every language. Using the English tense system is a great problem among learners in second language settings. This happens especially in countries where English is used as both official and national language. In such contexts, learners transfer certain grammatical aspects of their native language into the target language. The tense system is one of the grammatical features of their language(s). Every teacher of a foreign language knows that the learner’s native language tends to interfere with their target language in some predictable ways. Therefore, there will be the need for contrastive analysis of tense formation in second language contexts to aid both language teaching and learning.

Cases of interference occur at different learning stages. They also occur on various aspects of language such as phonology, grammar (an aspect of which is tense), semantics and other areas. Interferences are noticed through learners’ attempt to acquire and use the second language for various communicative purposes. At the phonological level, interferences between Hausa and English language tenses are also be noticeable. For example, at the levels of linguistic analysis such as morphology, the differences between languages such as Hausa and English become conspicuous. However, with respect to similarities and differences of tense in terms of number, carriers of tense, tense markers and formation processes, a comprehensive and systematic research by way of contrast, has not been carried out.

The English tense system is a typical area that calls for concern in the present-day English language teaching and learning situations in Nigeria. Whether English is written or spoken, tenses need to be used if meaning must be communicated effectively. It has been observed that only tenses explain various times in which human activities are carried out. If the right tenses

are not appropriately applied, communication may be intelligible. The errors committed in tense may be embarrassing and outrageous to eloquent users of the language. Poor tense usage is part of the records of public examination bodies such as WAEC and NECO. It is also part of the teachers' assessment especially in the written English. This indicates that tense errors among learners generally are undisputed facts. English tense system therefore is a great area of difficulty to learners of English as a second language in Nigeria.

Some people attribute the problems of poor performance of students in grammar and tenses to poor reading habits, which emanate from certain factors. Some of them include lack of interest, encouragement. Other impediments to effective use of grammar include lack of reading materials written with the learner of the second language in mind. Others are lack of motivation, lack of parental support, poor academic backgrounds of the learner, learners' language(s) and so on. There is much literature concerning the inter-lingual interferences emanating from native and target language of learners. Much of the students' written English becomes a source of concern to teachers, examiners as well as parents, who spend their money on the education of their wards. In this study, an attempt will be made to undertake a contrastive study of tense formation in English and Hausa to identify similarities and differences at four levels: major forms of tenses in Hausa and English, carriers of tense, tense markers and processes of tense formation.

Based on this contrast, the English tenses that are difficult for the Hausa-speaking students of English will be identified together with teaching and learning implications. The students have problems with the English tense system. This is why stakeholders in education in Nigeria express great outcry on the persistent poor written English performance in public examinations. These include both National Examination Council Senior School Certificate Examination (NECO SSCE) and West African Senior School Certificate Examinations (WASSCE). The grave decline in the written English has a resultant effect on the teaching and learning of other school subjects. According to scholars, there is the need to declare state of emergency to surmount the predicaments in the written English. In discussing the specific areas that call for attention, the scholars identify English grammar and its tense system as crucial areas in second language teaching.

Moreover, the majority of the Nigerian elite, parents and academic communities become interested in understanding the actual percentages recorded by examination bodies for English and Mathematics every year. This happens mostly when problems of failure of students are discussed. For example, in the 2009 May/June NECO examination, the percentage of students who got credits in both English and Mathematics was 10.7%. Amazingly, the records of November/December examinations of 2009 revealed that only 1.8% percent of the students got credits in English. This situation could be largely attributed to mass failure of students in the written English, poor grammar and ineffective tense usage.

The English language paper one, which deals with the writing aspect, is allotted 50 marks. It consists of essay writing, summary and comprehension passages. The questions are often used as a test on writing and this includes use of the English tense system. The tense system is one of the fundamental components of writing. It tells the readers the actual time an action is performed. The students' conscious mastery of all categories of tense in English helps in both speaking and writing. It facilitates logical understanding of both spoken and written texts. Since students are ignorantly mixing up the English tenses, meaning in their written English in WAEC and NECO or other examinations, could not be effectively communicated. It is often argued that such cases of poor tense usage bring up communication gaps between the speaker and the hearer.

Despite the efforts in the employment and distribution of teachers of English to schools in recent years, availability of the teaching materials in some quarters, training workshops for language teachers, students find it difficult to use the tenses of English. The majority of the students still fail to write even correct English sentences using appropriate tenses in secondary schools in Nigeria. From experience, these problems are said to be carried over to the tertiary level of education. The situation could be related to the poor knowledge of English tense system. Hausa-speaking students confuse some English tenses for others in Hausa language. This grossly hampers meaningful communication. It is against this background that a contrastive study of the English and Hausa tense formation becomes fundamental to usage of both spoken and written English. This by implication means that students of English need to know the effect of tense on composing a great variety of writings. Therefore, there is need to

make students conscious of the tenses needed in narrative, descriptive, technical, non-technical, situational, textual and functional discourse.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

More often than not, the ability to use the tense system of a foreign language such as English is an indication to sound educational upbringing. The poor usage of English tenses among Nigerian students is indicative of serious deterioration in both written and spoken English across all educational levels. This is one of the indicators to poor grammar, confusion in the use of tense and transfer. This problem affects learners seriously. Some language teachers have often thought that interferences are the serious problems associated with the use of English tenses among learners. However, this means such thoughts were not confirmed through a contrastive study of English and Hausa tense systems. There are several cases of problematic English tense usages often reported in the English of Hausa-speaking students and others in Nigeria.

Some of these include confusion. Most of the students at secondary school level confuse one tense of English for another in Hausa. They think that the Hausa tenses have one to one correspondence with their English equivalents. Other problems in the use of tense are inability to use English tenses with irregular verbs. This may be an intra-lingual problem emanating from the target language because of its subtle characteristics. Many of the students tend to overgeneralize the tense formation rules etc. The majority of second language learners do not know whether English and their language are independent of each other in terms of grammar and especially, their tense systems.

Despite the attempt to identify some of these problems as major sources of difficulty in using the tense system of English by Hausa-speaking students, no comprehensive research was carried out by way of contrast to investigate the problems. Comprehensive studies on whether or not, confusion, inter-language problems and overgeneralization of tense formation rules are the possible causes of wrong tense usage were not conducted. Therefore, it is obvious that some researchers become interested in analyzing the learners' tense errors in English. However,

attempts to diagnose the possible inter-language factors responsible for the problems were not made. Possibly, this is why the problems persist.

For example, in an attempt to solve the problems, some scholars feel that English tense errors could be studied to examine their repercussions on the written English of learners. This includes ineffective communication. Others are the sociological, serious luke-warm effect on the personality of the error maker. In second language contexts, tense errors are lamentably committed even among such Nigerians, who received higher education. The inter-language data gathered on the spoken and written English of learners across the three major tribes in Nigeria is indicative of poor tense usage. Even the English of native Hausa speakers outside the Nigerian geographical landscape indicates that problems of tense usage are an undisputed fact. Some erroneous expressions such as “I have come here yesterday”, “they have came now”, “they went to the field now” are common in the English of SSCE Hausa-speaking learners and their likes. This is equally found in the English of learners in higher institutions.

So far, no effort has been done with respect to previous studies, which identify similarities and differences in English and Hausa tenses. In those studies, the areas investigated include the major forms of tense with particular attention to only the present tense and its sub-divisions in Hausa and English. However, in this study, the areas that should be examined include distribution of all the tenses in Hausa and English, carriers of tense, tense markers and formation processes. Most of the research activities that have been carried out on English tense are often associated with the written English or some specific tenses with little or no attention to the actual sources of the tense errors. Some researchers like Abubakar (2006) investigated the general effect of bad grammar and tense errors on the written English performance of students. However, teaching and learning implications were not given. Therefore, the teaching and learning implications emanating from a contrastive study in this area will have great impact on the learners’ tense usage. It will help students, who are mostly ignorant of similarities and differences between Hausa and English tenses understand and use the tenses effectively.

A number of factors compound the confusion of learners in the use of English tense system. These include poor exposure of students to English grammar, teachers’ incompetence, death or

lack of reading culture etc. It is an undisputed fact that reading exposes the reader to practical usage of tense since the reader interacts with the written language in which tenses are used. Lack of knowledge of the tense system of English is a great problem. The errors in grammar and tense usage expose incompetent performance of the language learner. It has been observed that errors in grammar, (part of which are tense errors) have deadly consequences on the language of the writer or speaker and his individual personality. The errors reveal a person's level of education and expose more destructively, his/her linguistic competence and performance. For this reason, this study aims at studying the systems of tense in English and Hausa languages by way of contrast.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main aim of this study is to use the Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) to identify the similarities and differences between the major forms of the English language tenses and their Hausa language counterparts. This will be done at four levels: the major forms of tenses in English and Hausa, carriers of tense, tense markers and formation processes. Therefore, the specific objectives for carrying this study are to:

- a. Compare and contrast the major forms of tenses of both English and Hausa languages;
- b. Compare and contrast the carriers of tenses of English and Hausa languages;
- c. Compare and contrast the markers of tenses of English and Hausa languages;
- d. Compare and contrast the processes involved in tense formation in English and Hausa languages;

1.4 Research Questions

For carrying out this study effectively, the researcher will find answers to the following research questions:

- a. What are the major forms of tenses in English and Hausa languages?
- b. What are the carriers of tenses in both English and Hausa languages?

- c. What are the markers of tense in both English and Hausa languages?
- d. What are the processes involved in the formation of tenses in both English and Hausa languages?

1.5 Basic Assumptions

This study assumes that there are no relationships between the tenses of English and their Hausa equivalents. This is in terms of the major forms of tenses. It is also assumed that carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes are not likely to be similar in the two languages. Naturally, both English and Hausa languages are independent structures. It is true that both possess some universal features such as plurality, concord and tense system. These features are present across other world languages. However, the linguistic properties used in the realization of a particular aspect of grammar such as tenses differ from one language to the other.

Furthermore, it is assumed that linguistic items carrying tenses in Hausa and English may not likely be the same. Other assumptions concerning the differences between tenses of the two languages include tense markers and tense formation processes. In this research, after the analysis of the corpus data in Hausa and English, it may be seen if the languages have any similarity in terms of major forms of tenses, carriers of tense, markers of tense and tense formation processes. Tense systems in different languages are aspects of language universals provided by traditional grammar. Language universals are part of the legacies of traditional grammar. They are parts of the contributions of traditional grammar to modern linguistics

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is significant to Hausa-speaking students of English in nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. For example, exposing learners to tenses of Hausa and English used in narrative and expository texts will help in clarifying differences in terms of distribution of tenses between the two languages. The students especially in the Hausa speaking environment will find the study invaluable. They will be acquainted with the number of tense in Hausa and English through a comparison of tenses drawn from texts written in both languages. Through

comparison, students will learn the linguistic devices carrying the tenses in their language so that their English tense errors could be reduced significantly. Here, the language teacher analyzes sentences and demonstrates the linguistic items that carry the tense in Hausa and English.

Again, exposing Hausa-speaking students to the markers of tense and formation processes in English and Hausa in terms of their similarities and differences will enhance effectiveness of communication. This need to be done in the classroom through comparison of English and Hausa tenses. By so doing, the learners will be acquainted with such English tenses that are absent in their language; the tenses they need to pay serious attention to in their learning.

This study helps in designing the needed learners' materials that will address problematic tense usage. The curriculum developers will benefit from the study as well. It will guide them in introducing such English language curriculum package that addresses problem areas of tense system in English. This will include the major forms of tenses, carriers and markers of tense in both Hausa and English. The study will provide curriculum experts with specific English language tenses that need sound teaching and learning. The English language textbooks' writers will benefit as well, especially those that belong to the Hausa-speaking community. Textbooks' writers will need to emphasize the teaching of English tenses to Hausa-speaking students learning English by comparing and contrasting the tenses of the two languages.

Others such as students of Hausa language in tertiary campuses will equally benefit from the findings of the study. It will help in exposing the differences between Hausa and English tenses and processes of tense formation in both. Based on that, they will be able to identify specific English tenses that are absent in their language. This helps to explain what is expected of students of Hausa language in the process of learning and using the tense system of the English language. The Hausa language board and Hausa development associations will benefit as well. These may consider the usefulness of contrastive linguistics in advancing scholarship and generating intellectual discussions on English and Hausa languages in terms of grammar and particularly, the tense system.

Above all, the study will help in establishing the principles and usefulness of the Transformational-Generative Grammatical (TGG) as a model for contrasting Hausa and English grammar. This study will serve as a guide for others that will be interested in examining any aspects of grammar between Hausa and English. Hence, this opens up further opportunities for learning some of the principles and methods of contrastive linguistics. Others like educational planners will greatly benefit from the study. It will guide them in understanding problematic English tenses to Hausa-speaking students. The study will explain how differences and similarities in tense systems of Hausa and English at the four levels can positively improve second language teaching and learning.

1.7 Scope and Delimitation

This study is delimited to the Contrastive Linguistic Analysis of Tense Formation in Hausa and English and Teaching as well as Learning Implications. The selection of tense system of both Hausa and English in this study is for a purpose: it will allow the researcher to carry out a deep analysis/investigation. Therefore, the study will not touch on other related areas of grammar in both languages. The areas include contrastive analysis of plurality in English and Hausa; contrastive analysis of negation process in Hausa and English; contrastive analysis of English and Hausa nominal system; contrastive analysis of Hausa and English declarative constructions; contrastive analysis of English and Hausa vocabulary system; contrastive analysis of English and Hausa demonstratives, etc. Subsequent researchers interested in the use of contrastive linguistics may consider the areas above. This will help in the analysis of the systems of any aspects of grammar common to both English and Hausa languages.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The major aim of this chapter is to review the existing stock of literature related to the present work. The chapter reviews related literature on the concept of Contrastive Linguistics and contrastive models. Other areas reviewed include meaning and definitions of tense, tense and time. Ensuring consistency in the use of tense, distribution of English and Hausa tenses, carriers of tenses, tense markers and processes of tense formation in both English and Hausa are also reviewed. The chapter also reviews previous studies and finally, the theoretical framework relevant to the study.

2.2 Conceptual Framework: Contrastive Linguistic Analysis

The term, ‘Contrastive Linguistic Analysis’ (CLA),’ has for many years attracted the attention of language teachers, who deal with heterogeneity and homogeneity of cross-linguistic features. The concept of CLA evolved from the notion that languages all over the world have some common characteristics as well as differences. The characteristics are found at particular levels. According to James (1998), any pair of languages can be compared to determine their similar characteristics. They can also be contrasted in terms of their peculiar phonological, morphological, lexical, grammatical, tense and syntactic differences.

The major objective of the constructivists is to find out areas of differences between the native languages of learners (NL) and their target language (TL). This is done so that based on the difficulties identified; learning materials could be developed to adequately address inter-language and transfer-related problems. According to Lapinska (1974), a pedagogically oriented CA needs to define the processes of realizing the features of the two languages in contrast clearly. Therefore, the rationale behind CA is to help learners of a second language improve in their use of the language in diverse practical communicative contexts.

A contrastive linguist is anyone, who is interested in contrasting any two or more languages. The linguist is at liberty to compare any two given languages. This rationale is to investigate why learners of a particular language transfer the features of their linguistic forms into the target language. Some of the features include phonology, lexis, vocabulary, grammar an aspect of which is tense. Although there have been serious debates on the branch of linguistics from which CLA originates, there have been many gains in the use of the linguistic theory for exposing learners to similarities and differences between the native language and the target one. This will go a long way in improving the performance of learners in learning the aspects studied by way of contrast. Some linguists argue that CLA does not qualify to be a segment of Pure Linguistics as posited by James (1998). The reason is that linguistics is the scientific study of human language. Every language could only be investigated in its own rights. However, when a contrastive analysis is conducted on particular aspects in any pair of languages, the findings/gains of the contrast may be applied for the teaching and learning purposes (Mathew 2012).

2.3 Contrastive Linguistics and Applied Linguistics

As established earlier, there have been controversies concerning the origin of Contrastive Linguistic Analysis. It was thought that CLA, by virtue of its principles and orientation, belongs to a branch of linguistics known as ‘Applied Linguistics’. This is the opinion of James (1998). James (1998) argues, “Applied Linguistics is not a science in its own rights, it is rather a mere technology that was born out of pure linguistics.” From this assertion, it could be concluded that CLA is a child of pedagogical necessity. It originated from long years of language teaching and learning experiences. It concerns itself with availing the researchers with copious linguistic data for making comparison between the learners’ native language and the target language. The analysis conducted between any two given systems opens up features that could be identified as difficulties to learners. Based on that, effective learning materials could be developed for addressing the problems.

Lado’s (1957) ‘Linguistics Across Cultures’ is accepted as the foundation of a more organized approach to CLA. James (1998:8) accepted this position, when he says, “for me, modern

contrastive analysis starts with Lado's 'Linguistics Across Cultures'. James (1998) posits that Lado himself was motivated by two earlier works compiled for linguistic integration of certain people that immigrated to the United States of America. Weinreich (1965) and Haugen (1856) contributed to the existing stoke of the earlier books on Contrastive Linguistics. In these books, attempts were made to fish out features of English and those of the peoples' native languages to see both similarities and differences. The differences were considered the major sources of errors in the English of immigrants. Lado's (1957) masterpiece explicates the levels of contrastive linguistic analysis such as vocabulary and grammar as common to all languages and the feasibility of using any two languages for investigation.

As a way of tracing the line of development of contrastive linguistic theory, it could be noted that in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the works of scholars on the subject received global recognition. Some of these include Agard and di Pietro (1966), Coder (1975), Coder (1977), and Coder (1978) who wrote on the contrastive linguistic theory and demonstrated its strengths and weaknesses. Derwing (1973), Hatmann (1978), Wardhaugh (1970), Weinreich (1965), Whitman (1970) and Whitman (1972) illustrate that contrastive analysis is a facility that can be used to account for certain errors committed by leaners of a foreign language. Others such as Widowson (1974), Zimmermann (1972) and Haugen (1956) consider the possibility of contrasting pragmatic elements from any two languages to establish difficulties. These and other scholars have contributed greatly to the development of the field even in the twenty-first century.

It is imperative to note that internationally acclaimed academic institutions have for many years, championed the field of Contrastive Linguistics. They contributed in the field significantly before its emergence and development in Africa, in general and in Nigeria, in particular. For example, the University of Michigan, the Indiana University as well as the George Town University have contributed in no small scale to the development of the field. They provided the parameters that are used for the actual contrast. Their contributions to the field open up wider interest from other countries. Nigeria is one of those countries, where leaners of English as a second language face grave difficulties. As a result, some Nigerian

teachers of English such as Yaro (2008), Adeyanju (1972) and Olaofe (1982) become interested in using the theory to study English and some Nigerian languages at particular sub skills.

Between 1960 and 1965, the Center of Applied Linguistics of the Washington D.C. (CAL), signed a contract with the United States' Office of Education. The objective of the contract was to produce a great deal of contrastive studies of English with five commonly taught languages in the United States. These languages were French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish (Di Pietro 1989:xiv). Teams of linguists were inaugurated for each set of languages. Subsequently, other east European countries began to establish centres, where contrastive studies could be carried out. These include Romania, Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. In each case, English is one of the languages involved in contrast (Di Pietro:1989:xiv).

The major concerns of these institutes were and still are comparing and contrasting the features of the native languages of immigrants and those of the English language. This was and still is done to see if cross-linguistic differences could be the major sources of errors in the English utterances of the immigrants. The earlier studies justified the interferences that occur because of two or more linguistic systems in contact. The adoption of the English language in Nigeria as both national and official language necessitates the occurrence of errors in the English of Nigerians. It is because of the persistent errors that specialists among the native-English speaking people and Nigerian teachers of English compile volumes of literature on various aspects of language. This includes the grammar of the English language. The aim is to respond to the pedagogical and communicative needs of learners particularly in the grammar and of course the tense system of English.

Another objective is to acquaint learners with skills in grammar part of which is tense, necessary for effective oral and written communication. For instance, if learners of English in the Hausa-speaking communities do not understand the basic differences in the English and Hausa tenses in terms of distribution, carriers of tense, tense markers etc. they will continue to use the English tenses very poorly (Mathew 2012). They cannot escape from gross tense error commission. Their English may not be comparable to the standard British dialect, the polity that colonized their country in the last 66 years. Therefore, there is the need for contrastive

linguistics in both Hausa and English tense systems to aid second language teaching and learning. Two major hypotheses exist in contrastive analysis. These are strong and weak hypotheses.

2.4 The Strong and Weak Hypotheses of CLA

The validity of the contrastive linguistic theory suffers much opposition from linguists and language teachers. These are as a result of the findings generated from CA studies, which are said to be purely predictive. However, Mathew (2012) maintains that since linguistics is in itself scientific, contrastive studies that could be validated need to undergo a scientific description of the corpus data in any two languages, before the actual contrast is done. This could help in making CA statements concrete and reliable. It will facilitate an understanding of both similarities and differences. However, other problems associated with the strong theory include over inclusion of errors never realized in actual classroom situation. CA statements are said to be dubious in quality and lack of a unified theory of analysis.

Olaofe (2010) identifies both the strong and the weak hypotheses. The strong hypothesis maintains that Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) could predict most, if not all the problems of second language learners. It is based on the predictions that learning materials could be developed more or less to respond to learning difficulties. The difficulties predicted may be due to interferences between native language and target language. Similarities and differences could account for such abnormalities. Part of the task of the contrastive linguist is to grade such interferences in the order in which they appear. The supporters of the above school of thought include Fries (1945) and Lado (1957).

However, some of the limitations of the strong hypothesis/theory include predicting errors that are never heard in the actual classroom situation. Others are doubts on the validity of the contrast as well as the hierarchy of difficulties established. The predictive validity of contrastive studies conducted on the strong hypothesis shows that difficulties are always as a result of cross linguistic differences. This seems questionable and unreliable as similarities on some occasions become fundamental sources of difficulties too. However, transfer of grammatical elements from native language to the target language is true among learners of a

second language. This position is confirmed by empirical studies (Mathew 2012). In relation to this, Olaofe (2010:5) says:

Evidence from empirical studies shows possibility of transfer from source (native) language to the goal (target) language. Such studies are Ebrahim (1975) of Afghan students, Peters (1974) of Hungarian students, Oller and Readings (1971) of international students in California, Doumergue's and Lane (1976) of French adult students. In Nigeria, some contrastive analyses have been completed in support of strong predictive CLA. Adeyanju (1971) for example, finds CLA capable of predicting global and local errors of the Hausa students learning the sentence patterns of English. Banjo (1969), used CLA to predict some problems that Yoruba students may encounter in learning the lexical and syntactic rules of English and, Olaofe (1982), justifies the use of CLA for predicting the verbal errors of Yoruba students learning the English verbal system (Olaofe 2010:5.)

The above shows that CLA could be used to identify possible areas where learners of a second language may have problems in the target language. This is justified by some of the studies conducted by some Nigerian language teachers as given in the foregoing. Hence, in contrast to the strong hypothesis, the weak hypothesis has the view that transfer is possible in second language acquisition. It believes that the selection of the learning materials in second language teaching can be done based on the difficulties noticed in the language of learners. Consequently, CLA could be used to account for the errors found in the language of learners after they are introduced to the new system. In this way, Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) relates to, or more precisely, becomes an offshoot of error analysis. Both error analysis and weak hypotheses fall under serious criticisms (Olaofe 2010).

However, the descriptive and not predictive power of CLA has been accepted (Mathew 2012). Mathew (2012) observes that CLA could provide scientific description to the systems of two languages in contrast. It could establish both similarities and differences between the languages in contrast. It can also invigorate the teaching of grammar or other language features in both lower and advanced ESL classroom situations. Mathew (2012) posits that it is useful to show the students how some aspects of grammar (such as tense of English) differ from those of their language (such as Hausa). This can be done through simple analysis of sentences (Olaofe 2010).

The above means if findings from contrastive studies are used to draw the attention of learners of a second language to similarities, differences etc. they could easily adapt to cognitive code learning. The cognitive code learning theories are where learning of rules in second language starts after the learners are exposed to the language. Therefore, CLA, regardless of the hypothesis, could be seen as a strategy that can enliven the teaching of grammar. It can clarify to Hausa-speaking students how the structure, tense system, verbal system etc. of the English language for instance, differ from that of their indigenous language through simple sentence analysis (Mathew 2012:64).

2.5 Contrastive Analysis in the 21st Century Nigeria

In recent years, the theory of CLA has continued to gain acceptance among teachers of English in Nigeria. This is necessitated by the increasing need for competence in second language for effective performance. Just like other teachers in the diaspora, Nigerian teachers are faced with challenges of confusion and interferences in English language teaching/learning situations. Such interferences are often suspected as problems of inter-language transfer. The diversity of Nigerian languages calls for studies in contrastive linguistics in order to investigate the sources of difficulties of learners by way of contrast. Abdullahi (2014), demonstrates this when he opines that CLA is capable of identifying cross-linguistic similarities and differences between any two elements from two or more languages. To him, CLA helps in making students learn better. It also guides teachers in designing effective learning materials and activities that can promote English language teaching and learning in Nigerian classrooms. Others are Ndukwe (2013) and Olaofe (2010).

At the moment, part of the recent contrastive studies that are successfully completed include Sadiq (2012), who demonstrates the differences in Colour Adjectives in both Hausa and English and their semantic implications. This was done to clarify colour adjectives to the speakers of the Hausa language learning English. Yaro (2008) undertakes a contrastive analysis of tense formation in Jaba and English language. She examines the similarities and differences between English tenses and their Jaba counterparts. The aim of that study was to help Jaba-speaking students in the acquisition of English tenses for correct usage.

The major problem of that study is the use of Traditional Grammar as a model of analysis. The validity of Traditional grammar has been challenged in contrastive linguistics (Andrew 2014). The challenges labeled against traditional grammar are not unconnected to its prescriptive orientations and its Greek and Latin origin. Others, who conducted similar studies include Olaofe (1982), Yusuf (2014) and Adeyanju (1971). They contrasted Yoruba and English verbal systems, English and Hausa proverbs as well as Hausa and English sentence structures. None of them has, however, conducted a contrastive analysis on English and Hausa tenses.

2.6 Transfer in Second Language Learning

The fact that learners of a foreign language transfer in some predictable ways, the features of their native language into those of the target language is true. This happens in second language contexts. For example, Benson (2002) believes that “it is generally accepted that transfer does occur, but is far more complex than it is hitherto believed”. In the same vein, Odlin (1982) posits, “transfer covers the influence of any other language that has been previously acquired”. This evidence as demonstrated by earlier studies such as Lado (1952) shows the possibility of transfer of linguistic elements of a previously learnt system into the system of the target language. The volume of works on transfer and its various dimensions is a confirmation to its existence. It is indicative of the need for its consideration in second language teaching and learning. Transfer occurs between the grammar of native language and that of a foreign one (Lado 1952). This includes the tense system (Mathew 2013).

Others such as Kohn (1989), Kraif and Tutin (2006), Lake (2004), Mauranen (2003) and Mollin (2006) believe that transfer is a typical characteristic of second language teaching and learning. They argue that cases of transfer may be detected through a contrastive study of learners’ language and their target language. Muherejee (2005), Nickel (1989) Paquot (2005) Paquot and Fairon (2006) as well as Pavlenko and Jarvis (2002) believe that transfer is a cross-linguistic reality. They posit that transfer can be detected through a contrastive study to examine how it features itself in the second language of learners. Petch-tyson (1998) and Prat (2001) show that transfer could be studied from different perspectives. This includes comparison of Italian language data and that of English to examine how transfer could be

detected. Upon all the studies above, it could be pointed out that transfer from an African language into English was not referred to. Most, if not all the studies above may only be relevant to learners of English in foreign countries, whose languages were compared at one level of language or the other. The purpose of the comparison was to map out cases of transfer from non-African languages into English.

Therefore, part of the purpose of contrastive studies is to examine transfer and determine its role in learning English as a second language. Therefore, in this study, the corpus data analysis may become an indicator of transfer and other related problems associated with the tenses of English and Hausa languages. The study of the tense systems of both languages to identify possible cases of transfer of Hausa tenses into English is therefore indispensable. Fitikides (2004) has demonstrated samples of tense errors committed by learners of English especially in Africa. It is true that a great percentage of such errors are transfer-related cases. They are often detected in the English utterances of various Africans who use English as a second language. This indicates the necessity for an investigation to determine whether transfer has any contribution to the difficulties faced by Hausa-speaking learners of English.

2.7 Contrastive Models and their Implications on CA

According to Andrew (2014), studies in contrastive linguistics need to review the existing models, justify their strengths and weaknesses and finally, select a particular model that is reliable. Olaofe (2009) and Yusuf (2014), show that these analytical models are supposed to be reviewed so that other researchers may be acquainted with the best of the analytical models. The researcher adopts a particular model as a basis for establishing the ground for the actual contrast. These models are crucial in the description of the common characteristics/aspects of any two given languages. Below are the models with a brief account of their principles to language description:

2.7.1 Traditional Grammar

The traditional grammar, according to Olusegun and Adebayo (2012), dates back to classical antiquity. This is what Lyons (1968) and Tomori (1997) refer to as “Classical Moulds”, or,

what Mathew (2012) calls “Classical Period”. Palmer (1971), Allen and Widowson (1975) as well as Brown (1996) maintain that there has not been any coherent body of the entire formulations concerning the model of traditional grammar. These scholars argue that the traditional grammatical theory has been able to establish the existence of a set of general linguistic characteristics in all human languages (linguistic universals). This includes the concept of tense. Although the grammar has enjoyed recognition among teachers of English for some time, Osisanwo (2000), Olaofe (2010) and Zaku (2011) describe the grammar as classical, inadequate and prescriptive in nature. This, as established earlier, may not be unconnected to its traditional orientation and its Greek and Latin origin.

2.7.2 Advantages of Traditional Grammar

Many scholars like Dinnen (1979), Lamidi (2010), Bulter (1734) and Lowith (1763) agree that traditional grammar has contributed immensely in describing the nature of human language. Olusegun and Adebayo (2012) as well as Mathiesien (2004) believe the grammar discovers the parts of speech. Similarly, the submissions of Brown (1996), Remsjidk and William (1986), Ndmels (2002) and Olusegun and Adebayo (2012), are indicative of the fact that the modern grammatical concepts such as gender, inflection, voice, mood, person, number and tense, are universal. They are features of human languages discovered by traditional grammar. For this reason, Adeyanju (1971), Olaofe (1982) and Yaro (2008) demonstrate that the traditional grammar could be used to describe any two languages under contrast. According them, other grammars, such as transformational generative grammar, x-bar grammars etc. are offshoots of traditional grammar. They could be used in contrastive studies to examine similarities and differences between any two linguistic systems.

2.7.3 Disadvantages of Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammarians have been challenged for the inadequacy that greeted their theory. However, this does not make the theory to be completely inadequate or useless (Mathew 2012). Palmer (1971), Tomori (1977) and Olaofe (2009) observe that traditional grammar as a descriptive model in linguistics has some fundamental limitations. It is because of those limitations that Zaku (2011), Lamidi (2010) and Osisanwo (2000) describe the grammar as

inadequate, subjective, vague, prescriptive and unreliable. The major accusations labeled against the traditional grammar are in its definitions and prescriptions. Therefore, the grammar has its breakthroughs. For example, it helps in the analysis of sentences based on their subject-verb order and other constituents that are combined with subjects and verbs to make sentences. Notwithstanding, the grammar has its imperfections from antiquity as demonstrated in the foregoing. However, it may not be adequate in contrastive linguistics (Lapinska 1974).

2.7.4 Structural Grammar

The analysis of the physical properties of language based on their structure/order is the crux of the matter in structural grammar. 'Structures', being the term from which the grammar takes its name, are more fundamental than the semantic component of language. Zaku (2011) posits that Ferdinand de Saussure and other American linguists such as Franz Boas, Edward Sapir and Bloomfield are the founding fathers of this Grammar. He explains that the school of linguistics known as Structuralism flourished during the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries. The school developed the theory greatly. Structural grammar is a reaction to the traditional grammar, whose descriptions to language were inadequate and unreliable. The structural grammarians believe that language is supposed to be described in its own right. Therefore, the description of any pair of languages has to be based on the physically observable features of the languages in contrast.

Structural grammarians posit that speech is the primary function of language. They maintain that the synchronic study of language is more important than the diachronic one. Furthermore, structural grammarians have confidence in the fact that each language has its unique structure. In every language, some elements are said to be associated with phonemes at level of phonology and morphemes at the level of grammar (Zaku 2011). According to Olaofe (2010), the major tenets of structural grammar are linguistic relativity, avoidance of generalizations, inner form, linguistic description and not prescription. Others include rejection of language universals, meaning cannot be tested and that writing is not language. These are some of the key tenets of structural grammar.

2.7.6 Advantages of Structural Grammar

Discussing the contribution of structural grammar, Lamidi (2010) posits that the grammar is capable of solving structural problems in the system of English sentences. Therefore, to some extent, the structural grammar could be used for solving problems of structure that emanate from faulty arrangements of structures in grammatical sentences. However, the great shortcomings of the theory lie in its emphasis on structure rather than the semantic component, which communicates the intended thoughts.

2.7.7 Disadvantages of Structural Grammar

The major problem of this grammar is in the area of meaning. According to Olaofe (2010), meaning, to most of the structural grammarians, is not that important, but the structures that are put together to make up constructions. Therefore, formal organization of grammatical elements and not meaning is the focal point of Structural Grammar. Olaofe (2010) cites examples of weaknesses of structural grammar from the work of Fries (1952). He demonstrates that some of the shortcomings of the Fries' model include limiting test frames to frames of words, rather than frames of meaningful constructions that express thoughts. Fries (1952), argues that words that fill the test frames function meaningfully in the same way. Another defect of the grammar is inability to notice the possibility of unfilled positions in sentences. Finally, treating sentences as strings of words, rather than smaller constructions within larger constructions is another defect of the grammar.

2.7.8 Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC)

The grammar, Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA) is, according to Osisanwo (2000), associated with the work of Bloomfield (1933). Leonard Bloomfield introduced the term "Immediate Constituents". The purpose was to show that grammatical sentences are not just linear sequences of elements, rather, they are layers of constituents that follow one another side by side. Based on this notion, the name 'immediate constituents', becomes popular in grammar. In the IC analytical model, each lower level constituent is part of a higher level constituent. Osisanwo (2000) posits that Wells and Harris were followers of Bloomfield. They worked

greatly to advance the theory. Chomsky (1957) eventually took up the grammar from Wells and Harris. He subjected the undeveloped theory into a more formalized and mathematical treatment (Lyons 1968:212).

The work of Wells on the theory is still accepted as the best in the area (Osisanwo 2000:11). Wells divided a text into two parts and named the constituents as actor and action parts. Based on the ordinary sentence structure, the linear sentences are regarded as expansions. Therefore, the need for economy and explicitness in meaning helps since it facilitates analysis. The sequences arrived at have to fulfill three conditions usually:

- preserving the same grammatical meaning
- fitting in the greatest number of the environment
- belonging to a form-class with the greatest variety of control.

In IC analysis, the analysis of a sentence can be represented in a number of ways. To Osisanwo (2000), these ways include the use of bracket, tree diagram and cuts.

2.7.9 Advantages of Immediate Constituent Analysis (IC)

According to Osisanwo (2000), this grammar has made some contributions to the development of grammatical/linguistic analysis. The theory can therefore be said to have enjoyed some recognition in the description of languages such as English. It helps learners identify exactly how constituents work together to express the meaning of an expression. It also clarifies how relationships could be established between and among elements of the sentence. This is based on the way they stand side by side within a given construction.

2.7.10 Disadvantages of Immediate Constituent Analysis

Osisanwo (2000) notes that the IC analysis has not been greatly developed into a dependable theory of linguistic analysis for describing the nature of human language. Lamidi (2010) demonstrates that the grammar has not been able to identify instances of ambiguity in sentences. On this note, Zaku (2011) posits that the various sheds of meanings that can be

generated from an ambiguous sentence are not analyzable in the IC. Grammar. For example, the meanings of “flying plane can be dangerous” are not analyzable. Others such as ‘Sam is easy to flatter’ and ‘Sam is eager to flatter’ are different in meaning. The analysis of their meanings too cannot be guaranteed within the domain of IC grammar. The IC analysis fails to account for the differences using the constituents as basis for analysis.

Other inadequacies of the theory include lack of bases for differentiating statements from questions, passive from active constructions, affirmative from negative sentences, surface structures from their deep structure equivalents etc. To Olaofe (2010), some of the shortcomings of the IC analytical model are possibility of crisscrossing of elements, word boundary conflict. This also includes lack of concern for meaning and failure to recognize the fact sentences are combinations of smaller constructions with larger ones.

2.7.11 Transformational Generative Grammar

The fact that this grammar is transformational and generative entails two functions performed by speakers of a language in communicative interactions. The grammar is transformational because it establishes the basis for conversion of active constructions into passive ones and changing declarative sentences into interrogative expressions. Chomsky (1957), first in his Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG), developed the Transformational-Generative Grammar. His book ‘Syntactic Structures’ was published in 1957.

The model was later transformed in his ‘Aspects of the Theory of Syntax’ (1965), which marks the metamorphosis of the theory from a Phrase Structure Grammar (PSG) to a Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). The grammar identifies three fundamental levels of grammatical analysis. These are deep structure, transformation structure and the surface structure. The basic tenet of the grammar is that speakers of any language are naturally endowed with language acquisition device (LAD) to enable them acquire language naturally and communicate effectively. This makes speakers of any language capable of producing an infinite number of sentences in their language using a finite set of rules.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (2002) explain that without grammatical descriptions that make empirical claims about the native speaker's knowledge of his/her language, it is completely impossible to test the correctness of the universal attributes of human language. Based on the theory, speakers of any language have background knowledge of their language before the language is reduced to writing. They know what is grammatically correct in their language and what is not. Every native speaker of a language is capable of distinguishing the actual sentences of his/her language from aberrant grammatical constructions.

The aberrant constructions are made often by the learners of that language. Chomsky (1957), as well as Jacobs and Rosenbaum (2002) argue that not all sentences that follow the formal sequencing of elements are correct in meaning. They cite example with "colourless green plants sleep furiously". This sentence follows the perfect order of S+V+A structure, where 'colourless green plants' is the subject, 'sleep' is the verb and 'furiously' functions as an adjunct or adverb. However, the sentence is meaningless since plants do not sleep. This is abnormal and does not appeal to the common sense.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (2002) examine the surface and deep structures of language. They posit that deep structures are sometimes converted into surface structures by transformations that preserve meaning. For example, "John gave Simeon the book" is an active construction. It could be converted to a passive sentence such "the book was given to Simeon by John". The surface structure of the two sentences refers to the physical elements of the sentences, which are arranged differently. For example, the position of 'John' seems to provide for mobility from the beginning of the sentence (in active sentence) to the end of the sentence (in the passive sentence).

The deep structure is the component of meaning expressed by the constructions. The two sentences above have the same deep structure, that is, their meaning is the same. The change in the position of "John", as the subject of the sentence from the beginning of sentence 1 to the end of sentence 2, is informed by passive transformations: changing active constructions to passive ones. For example, both sentences agree that John is the 'giver' and Simeon the

'receiver' of the object (the book). According to Osisanwo (2000), the transformational generative grammar is characterized by the following:

- The grammar sets out to account for the native speaker's intuitive knowledge and ability to produce, identify and interpret correct sentences in his language:
- It considers the syntactic component of grammar as central, while the semantic and phonological components as interpretive:
- It makes a clear distinction between the surface structure and the deep structure. The semantic component interpret the deep structure while the phonological components interpret the surface structure:
- The grammar recognizes the sentences as theoretical category, while other units like the clause, are used merely as some descriptive labels:
- During analysis, the transformational generative grammar derives all exponents from the initial sentence by a set of rules of two categories. The first set of the rules determines structures to produce known as basic or kernel items, while the second set uses the transformation processes to produce the reminder of the formal items.

2.7.12 Advantages of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)

Many scholars posit that this grammar is relevant in second language teaching and learning. For instance, Zaku (2011), notes that transformational generative grammar is both transformational and generative in nature. It is an offshoot of structural grammar. It does not only analyzes sentences but also, divides them into parts. It demonstrates how the functions of the various parts occur. It rearranges the parts to depict their relationships in sentences. The grammar also facilitates clarity in communication by disambiguating vague constructions, which are transformations from different kernels. According to Jacobs and Rosenbaum (2002), the transformational grammar is relevant in second language teaching and learning. It paves the way for understanding how languages work at both surface and deep structure levels.

For Tomori (2005), Agbedo (2003), Chomsky (1957) and Szabo (2013), the transformational grammar is a highly reliable analytical model of contrastive studies. It examines both the surface elements and their deep structure counterparts. They explain that the grammar establishes the fact on surface realizations of elements. It justifies their existences and grammatical roles in sentences. According to Konin (2010), Odlins (1971), Sdarone, (1970) and Prasad (2008), transformational grammar is capable of establishing relationships between the surface structures of two or more languages. Mathew (2013) believes that transformational generative grammar could account for features of tense. This includes carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes. He maintains that the grammar helps in analyzing utterances in terms of syntactic constituencies such as subject-verb order, tense formation etc. These support the fact that transformational grammar is a great model. It could be employed in comparing any two languages to establish properties that are similar or different in the domains of both the surface and deep structures.

In this study, the transformational generative grammar is considered an appropriate contrastive model for analyses of tense formation in Hausa and English. Although there are several theories of grammar that could be adopted in contrastive studies, the use of TGG is defended by many scholars such as Abubakar (2006), Lapinska (1974) and others given in the foregoing. These scholars provide the reasons for the adoption of the theory. For example, it accounts for native speakers' intuitions about their language(s). This includes sentence structures and tenses. It believes that language is what the native speakers say. The grammar believes that each language is described in its own rights. The idea of describing each language in its own right is truly a matter of science in linguistics. Therefore, in this study and other related ones that may be carried out in the area of grammar, scholars such as Lapinska (1974) observe that TGG is the best of all the analytical models in contrast. Lapinska (1974:7) says:

If CA is to serve not only as a basis for language teaching, but also, as a general theory of what human language is. If languages are viewed as surface realizations of one common universal language, whose properties are in strict correlation with the properties of the human mind, then the analysis has to be performed within the framework of transformational grammar (Lapinska1974:7).

Both Hausa and English languages are used for communication. For each of the two languages, there are grammatical rules that determine the expression of human concepts and thoughts. This includes the tense systems that are commonly found in languages to indicate time of an action. The tenses of any pair of languages could be studied by way of contrast using the transformational grammar as model of analysis. This will help in examining both the surface structures such as carriers of tense, tense markers, tense formation processes etc. For all these are elements of the surface structure. The grammar also examines the deep structure/meaning components between any two given languages. In this study, the theory will be used for its efficacy in the description of both Hausa tenses and their English equivalents.

2.7.13 Disadvantages of the Transformational Generative Grammar

Martins (2012) explains that the limitations of the theory of transformational generative grammar may be in the area of analysis. The procedure of analysis may pose a problem since the analyst needs to have a firm grasp of the basic concepts and steps of analysis. He/she must also be acquainted with the components of a grammatical construction. For example, analyzing the constituents of the noun phrase, cases of inflections, the verb phrase part of which are the tenses, and other components could be both difficult and time-consuming. In addition, if the constructions are wrongly analyzed, the analysis will be faulty. Therefore, it takes the learners time to have a firm understanding of the framework of analysis especially if they are already rooted in traditional grammar (Mathew 2012:12).

2.7.14 Systemic-Functional Grammar

Osisanwo (2000) and Zaku (2011) attribute the development of Systemic-Functional Grammar (SFG) to Michael Halliday (1961). Halliday (1961) owes great allegiance to his former teacher, J. F. Firth. It is because of this, some people refer to the grammar as Neo-Firthian Grammar (NFG). In the first place, Halliday (1961) insists on the definite ranking of units thereby providing a categorical rank scale in the name: Scale and Category Grammar. The grammar according to Halliday (1966) has since developed to a more objective dimension. It is generally known with the following fundamental characteristics:

- a- The grammar identifies four theoretical categories/levels, which include unit, structure, class and system. These are used to account for the grammatical patterns operating in any language:
- b- The unit category applies to surface structure while the class to the deep planes of the grammar. The grammar believes that structures operate only in the surface grammar while the system in the deep grammar:
- c- At the surface level, the grammar deals with how any given system is realized in grammatical structures and their elements. At the deep level, it account for how semantic features are organized into networks clearly stated:
- d- In systemic grammar, classes are defined by their role in structure. For example, the class ‘nominal group’ is defined in its role as subject and complement of a clause.
- e- There are differences in the delicacy of analysis of items that are analyzed. Some items seem to be more delicate in analysis than others are.

2.7.15 Advantages of Systemic-Functional Grammar

Lamidi (2010:16) notes, “within the systemic grammatical framework, there is hardly any native speaker that uses language perfectly”. Therefore, what the grammar emphasizes more are the communicative functions of language (the functional aspects) and the perfect arrangement of words (the systemic aspects) in a systematic order for analysis. However, the most important thing in this theory is communication. This is because the basic function of language is communication. To the functional grammarians, the notion of acceptability and not grammaticality is the crux of the matter in language use (Mathew 2012).

This grammar, according to Lamidi (2010) emphasizes that language becomes meaningful in the context of use. They believe that meaning is context-based. It is therefore wrong to give a particular expression any meaning if the context is not understood. It is often argued that in this connection, particular attention is paid to Semantics and Pragmatics. In Semantics and Pragmatics, context is a non-linguistic entity the existence of which is formidable. This means

the grammar is interested in making the learner use language for various communicative purposes. Of course, apart from context, the grammar also spells out the role of speakers' cultural background in communication. Halliday (1966) and others among his contemporaries did not demonstrate how the systemic aspect of the grammar account for surface realizations such as carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes. Illustrating this will be fundamental in the determination of meaning of sentences.

2.7.16 Disadvantages of Systemic-Functional Grammar

That Systemic Grammar considers meaning as an aspect of context is true from the point of view of sociolinguistic functions of language. Although culture is relevant in human interactions and facilitates the understanding of the functions of language, it has less concern with the formal arrangement of the elements in a sentence. With or without reference to culture, it is possible to identify whether expressions are grammatically correct or not. This depends on whether or not the arrangement of constituents is acceptable. Context is formidable in establishing the meaning of an expression (Mathew 2012). However, the way words and sequences are carefully arranged in a sentence equally facilitates the generation of meaning. This and other problems are considered the principal shortcomings of the systemic grammar as a model for the description of system of languages (Martins 2012).

2.7.17 Sector Analysis Grammar

Allen (1976), who worked for the Teachers' College, Columbia University, developed this model of grammar in 1976. He found the use of letters and mathematical symbols useful in demonstrating the contents of various layers found in a sentence. He clearly identifies how the learners of English grammar can meaningfully separate the various layers or parts. The first major sectors possible in a grammatical construction in the Sector Analytical Grammar are the E sector (end adverbials), T sector (the base sentence) and the F sector (initial adverbials). The position of the F sector is determined by the presence of an adverbial in the beginning of an expression. The T sector, otherwise known as the Trunk layer, refers to the actual sentence when all the beginning and end adverbials are removed. The E sector refers to the end adverbials in the end of an expression.

A sentence, according to Allen (1976), must start with a capital letter and end with a punctuation mark. The subject of the sentence in functional speech is implied. However, in the written language, the subject has a slot and this slot can be occupied by nominal phrases, or what Allen (1976) calls 'Noun Clusters'. Other elements that can go into the subject slots include verb phrase, prepositional phrase, and clause. Some letters such as O, M, G, Q, X, Y, PP etc. are used to label some functional positions in a sentence. The grammar depicts a method of analysis where larger layers are first considered before the smaller ones.

2.7.18 Advantages of Sector Analysis

According to Olaofe, (1982), Sector Analysis (SA) is a grammatical model that is highly strong. The model recognizes the component of meaning. This recognition of meaning is true since it is exclusively based on meaning that sentences are analyzed from a larger layer to a lower layer. This fact makes analysis successful. Olaofe (1982) posits that using the theory to analyze the Yoruba verbal system is clear evidence that the theory can be used to describe the grammar of language. The possibility of using the grammar to analyze the written English is an indication that written English is a language. Therefore, the theory could be used to test the ability of the writer and analyzing the written language generally. This will help meaningfully in effective communication. According to Olaofe (1982), the grammar can be used to enhance both reading and writing. This position is actually indicated by Allen (1976).

2.7.19 Disadvantages of Sector Analysis

Scholars such as Olaofe (1982) explain that the symbols and letters employed by Allen (1976) in the grammar are too many to be understood by the learners of English as second language. Others such as Mathew (2012) believe that even teachers of the English language at the lower level could take long time before they can adequately assimilate the theory for analysis. Hence, the grammar can become a mystery to some learners of English. This difficulty here may be as a result of the teachers' and learners' inclination to traditional grammar. From all indication, those who are addicted to the traditional grammar may have difficulty in using the grammar for sentence analysis in the classrooms.

2.7.20 Communicative Model

Olaofe (1997) develops this model. The purpose was, and still is to make communication faster and easier to students of English in a second language setting. The model recommends the use of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) strategy. The model emphasizes that communication is the central component of all human interactions. Linguists, who came before Olaofe (1997), propounded this approach. It was developed for helping the learner to communicate effectively. This idea is fundamental. It emanates from the belief that communicative function of language is the foundation for using the second language.

2.7.21 Advantages and Disadvantages of the Communicative Model

Although the communicative language teaching flourished in some time in the past and of course, at the moment, the model does not underscore the need for adequate mastery of the tenets of the formal grammar (Mathew 2012). No communicative interaction will be completely successful when the learner in speech and in writing uses grammar wrongly. Therefore, emphasizing communicative function of language is vital, however, considering the grammar of the language is equally important in both language teaching and learning (Mathew 2012). Therefore, this grammar may not be used in contrastive studies. This is because it has little to do with the formal properties and rules used for describing how a particular language works at the level of grammar part of which is the tense system of language.

2.7.22 The Granger's Contrastive Model

According to Guilquin (2006), this model is relevant in modern contrastive studies. He explains that Granger (1998) introduced the model for making statements of CA concrete rather than predictive. He observes that CA statements will no longer be predictive, but concrete explanations that could influence the development of language syllabuses. It could also establish the grounds for new methods of second language teaching and learning. The model is interested in combining the actual forms of the language and the learners' inter-language. The purpose of this integration is for the contrastive linguist to identify the possible problem areas in the target language of the learner.

The learners' output will be compared with the predictions made in the contrast. The essence is to provide confirmations as to whether or not the predicted difficulties are the problem areas that need attention in the development of learning materials and teaching. The second language corpora provides the characteristics of learners' language. This may be in turn related to the areas described in the contrast. It expatiates how corpora analysis should become an obligatory step in second language teaching and learning, rather than a theoretical orientation dependent on mere predictions.

Some studies label criticisms on the Granger's model. These include Mathew (2012), Andrew (2014) and John (2012). They believe that in corpora analysis, there is no need to compare learners' inter-language with the errors predicted after the contrast. They explain that contrastive analysis and error analysis are of different orientations, methodology and principles. According to them, in contrastive analysis, the researcher's concern is to use the existing corpora in both languages. The data will be used to establish the similarities and differences for identifying possible learning difficulties. Therefore, any study that involves using learners' inter-language is best regarded as error analysis (Andrew 2014). In error analysis, students must be given tasks by the researcher to assess the level of the learners' performance in an aspect of the target language.

However, what is needed in contrastive analysis is the corpus data from the chosen languages and scientific description of the aspects selected for contrast (John 2012). The features described are used to identify possible difficulties in learning. This includes studying the aspects present or absent in each of the two languages. The results of the study are used to point out possible difficulties that may be encountered by learners, whose language is involved in the contrast (John 2012). The scholars posit that any study that aims at comparing learners' inter-language with errors predicted after contrast is best described as "error analysis" since the learners' practical errors are collected for analysis. Therefore, in this study, the concern is to use the corpora available in English and Hausa concerning their tense systems. The major aim is to compare the tense systems of the two languages to see both similarities and differences. Finally, the study sets out to detect possible learning difficulties that may be encountered by Hausa-speaking learners of the English language.

2.7.23 Banathy's Model

According to Banathy (1969), cited in Olaofe (2009), the model that used for describing any two languages contains some procedures. These are as follows:

- Establishing the rational for the contrast of the two languages
- Outlining the scope and the depth of the coverage of the analysis
- Describing the two languages using the same descriptive model
- Selecting the elements for the actual contrast
- Contrasting the elements using the same contrastive model
- Predicting the areas of interference based on the actual contrast, and
- Establishing the hierarchy of difficulties

2.7.24 The Gradman's Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) Model

According to Guth (2014), The Gradman's Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) model is suitable for contrastive studies dealing with the area of grammar in any two languages. Guth (2014) explains that Gradman (2010) invented the model. The model was used by Gradman (2010) for comparing the French nominal phrases with those of English to determine the difficulties that French learners of English will encounter. Guth (2013) uses the model when he conducted a similar comparative study on French negative formation and that of the English language. The model is a three -way approach to contrastive analysis. It is only used in contrastive studies dealing with any of the component of grammar. Hence, the analyst conducting a study on an aspect of grammar is required to:

- a- Describe fully the grammatical aspects of his/her interest in the two languages selected for the actual contrast:
- b- Use the corpora of the two languages to detect grammatical aspects present as well as aspects absent in each of the two languages; The analyst is expected to use such differences while explaining possible learning difficulties, and:

- c- Explain the possible learning difficulties in the target language chosen for contrast: this includes the items present and aspects absent in each of the languages, which may be least difficult, more difficult or most difficult.

In this study, the DDE model is adopted for the conduct of the study on tense formation in both English and Hausa. In the analysis, the tenses of both Hausa and English were studied at four distinct levels: distribution of tenses in the two languages, carriers of tenses, markers of tenses and formation processes. At each level, differences were examined and the possible learning difficulties pointed out as clearly as possible. See appendix E for the diagrammatic presentation of the DDE model of contrastive analysis.

2.8 The Tense: Concepts and Definitions

The tense system of human language is studied from various perspectives. For example, to Ogunsanwo (2013), tenses are those aspects of language that only occur in verbs. From a general point of view, this means that the tenses of human language occur only in verbs. However, this assertion is questionable if other languages are to be taken into consideration. Saying that tense occurs in verbs without specifying the actual language(s) in question is tantamount to confusion. For this reason, scholars such as Babalola (2012) and Otiede (2005), observe that each language has its unique tense system. Mathew (2012) and David (2014) believe that learners of any language must be trained to understand how the tense system of the second language differs from that of their language. They will need to identify other areas also, where their language differs from their target language(s). This include the major forms of the tenses, carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes, as they will be examined in this study.

For Kolawole (2010), tense is the “form of the verb showing the time in which an action takes place”. For Latilo and Olooku (2009), tenses have often been mistaken to mean time. They posit that tense does not mean time. Tense is the form of the verb that shows the time of an action. Others with a similar opinion are Banjo (2009). They posit that tense is not time, but changes in the verb form to indicate time. These scholars have a similar view on what constitutes the tense in the English language. Their views differ from those held by others

above. The gap between the scholars and the present study is failure to discuss only the English tenses. They have not made any attempt to compare the tense system of English and that of a Nigerian language to see how the tense systems of the two languages work in either similar or different ways. They should have used some of the languages such as Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba etc. This may illustrate if difficulties in English tense usage of learners emanate from cross-linguistic interferences.

Furthermore, Fitikides, (1997) considers the tense as a crucial aspect of the English language to which learners need to pay attention. His collection of the various mistakes and errors committed in English by Africans emphasizes the need of collecting and explaining wrong uses of tenses in the English of Africans. This includes identification of usual errors, research, adjustment in English language instructions and guidance. His work receives recognition in Nigeria and other countries. Nevertheless, the only problem of that work is failure of the author to identify the possible sources of such tense errors. The objective may be to minimize the rate at which Africans rampantly commit the grammatical errors and this includes the tense system. What was expected was that Fitikides (1997) would conduct a contrastive study to see if difficulties could be identified by way of contrast. Unfortunately, this was not completely done.

Others such as Benson etals (2008) see the concept of tense as an integral part of the structure of the English language. They demonstrate copious practice activities that may help in overcoming tense errors among learners. This is especially at secondary school level in Nigeria. Related to that are Benson (2006) and Benson (2004), who show why tenses should be taught in the classroom. However, an attempt was not made to compare leaners' language and English to determine if difficulties actually emanate from similarities or differences in tense formation in both Hausa and English.

Furthermore, Quirk and Sydney (2010) observe that tense and time have some correspondence. Tense, according to them is “the correspondence between the form of the verb and the human concept of time”. They believe that time is a universal truth and of course a non-linguistic entity with three divisions: past, present and future. The intention of Quirk and Sydney (2010)

is to help learners acquire the tense system of English. Their problem is that apart from English tense system, there is no any tense system in any language that was examined. They might have demonstrated how the tense system of English for instance differs from that of learners. Based on the contrast, special attention may be given to such tenses that are either similar with different forms or, how they are entirely different in the two languages.

Aremo (2009) and others such as Odejide, etals, (2009) see the tense as that important linguistic concept the teaching of which is expected to be done through examples in sentences and tables for illustrations. They show how each of the English tenses should be taught using various mechanisms. Bdliya (2011) goes on to discuss the various tenses in English and shows how the language learners can easily differentiate them. Maicibi (2000) discusses the English tenses by simply identifying the three major ones as present, past and future tenses. This includes their subdivisions. According to Raymond (2010), the tenses of English need to be taught through the construction of various sentence patterns. The sentences narrate, describe and explain real life experiences. This according to him serves as a guide to learners of English. He illustrates how the teaching should be done starting from the simple to a complex system of the English tense.

According to Ruse (2013), tenses are taught through some activities designed by teachers for their students. A series of illustrations has been given for the guidance of the students for meeting their learning needs. Banjo (2013), also show the need to teach the English tenses to students. They believe that this teaching should be best done in contexts to give the learners an opportunity of realizing how tense works. The idea of tense to Akano etals (2010) deals with helping learners of English understand how the tenses are formed. According to them, this can be done by using each of the tenses in a correct grammatical construction.

From the above, there has not been any cross-linguistic study that has been undertaken by the scholars. They have not established the facts about the difficulties faced by Hausa-speaking students learning English tenses. In fact, the idea of tense as a common language feature in many languages is not illustrated. The need for contrastive studies on tense formation in those languages is not completely stated also. It is because of these gaps the present study comes up

to investigate the tense systems of English and Hausa languages to identify their similarities and differences at four levels. These are number, carriers of tense, tense markers and formation processes. Equally fundamental that has not been stated is how the Hausa students of English could be helped to overcome their difficulties in learning the tense system of English.

2.9 The Characteristics of Tense

Linguistic items have characteristics that can be physically observed in the system of language. Olusegun and Adebayo (2012) describe tense as part of the major contributions of the traditional grammar to modern linguistics. They explain that tense is a universal linguistic property in virtually all languages of the world. In relation to this, many language teachers, such as Elizabeth (1998) posits that in any human language, there has to be a means of differentiating in time. This refers to linguistic items that tell the time of an action. This means each language has a peculiar way of describing time. Time is static and the same, but the linguistic devices used in indicating time in languages differ to a large degree (Mathew 2012). Elizabeth (1998:25) further says that:

In English, as in other languages, this is done by the device called 'tense'. It is by the use of the appropriate tense in speech or in writing that our readers and listeners can deduce for themselves when actions we are talking about took place. It is the action word (the verb) which is affected by tense (Elizabeth 1998:25).

Although, Elizabeth (1998) has not been able to give some clear instances of tense formation processes from other languages, she has however been able to demonstrate the need for understanding the tense systems of some languages like English. The major problem of her assertion is that she has not also articulated how the tense systems of two or more languages could be either similar or different. For example, in the Hausa tense system, Galadanci (1980) shows that the English tense system has eight (8) divisions. He posits that pre-verbal pronouns function as the subjects in sentences. They are mostly the carriers of tense. Hence, apart from a noun, the subject of a sentence could be a noun or, a combination of noun with any of the pre-verbal pronouns that carry the tense to show the time of an action.

Conversely, in English, according to Bidliya (2011) and Kolawole (2010), there are twelve tenses in the English tense system. Babalola (2012), explain that in English it is the verb that carries the tense. He confirms that tense system varies in different languages. Because of these differences among various languages, the second language learners need to identify the similarities between Hausa and English tenses to avoid confusion and overgeneralization. This needs to be done so that the learners may be helped in their bid to achieve adequate mastery of the target language.

According to Otiede (2005), the concept “tense” means time and is a derivation from a classical Latin word “tempus”. Babalola (2012) and Elizabeth (1998) agree that tenses vary among various linguistic systems. However, they have not carried out a contrastive study to fish out the supposed area of convergence and divergence in tense formation between any two or more languages. This will be needed for guiding learners on the best ways the tense system of the second language will be internalized.

2.10 Consistency and Sequence in the Use of Tense

Babalola (2012) explains the notion of tense consistency. He says, “writing involves telling of stories”. He believes that consistency in the use of the tense must be maintained in writing stories and other compositions otherwise, there will be confusion. He further adds that anytime inconsistent shifts are realized in the use of tense in the written and spoken discourse, this can cause confusion. The notion of sequence in the use of the English tense deals more or less, with the conditional sentence, which begins with the word ‘if’. The “if clause” begins the conditional sentence and determines the nature of tense to use in the rest of the part of the expression.

The categories of tense consistency identified by Babalola (2012) are; simple present conditional, simple past conditional and past perfect conditional. Even though, an attempt was not made to compare the tenses of English with those of Hausa or any other language. This should have been done to determine if variations in tense formation in English and Hausa could be studied to predict learning difficulties. For example, in “if” clause (usually a subordinate clause), and the main clause, the tenses must be consistent to make meaning clear to the reader

or listener. Fitikides (2004) calls lack of consistency “mixing up of tenses”. He explains that learners of English need to be consistent in using their tenses. Others who talk about the necessity for consistency in the use of tense are Downing and Locke (2006) and Graham (2007). They demonstrate that learners need to avoid confusion of any kind. Mohammed (1999) and Sokunbi (2009) stress the need for effective teaching of the English tenses. The rationale is to facilitate effective communication in both written and spoken forms of language among learners.

However, upon all the scholars quoted above, it is discovered that a contrastive analysis between English and Hausa tenses is either not completely made or not referred to. Those scholars that continue to express concern on the persistent poor tense usage should have studied Hausa and English tenses through contrast. If they had done that, they might have identified whether differences in the major forms of tenses in both languages could be the source of learning difficulties. Other areas that should have been studied are linguistic items carrying tenses, tense markers and tense formation processes in both English and Hausa. This is not done by any of the scholars above, whose concern to tense system is portrayed in the aforementioned.

2.11 The Major Forms of Tenses in English Language

From an intensive discussion of the English tense system drawn from a cross section of grammar books, it is clear that the tenses of English have different number. English grammar textbook writers show this vividly. Although most students, as Mathew (2012) and Andrew (2014) explain, have difficulties with the English tenses, the differences in number of the tenses displayed by grammar textbook writers may not be a problem. The problematic areas can be addressed through a contrast and in both syllabi and instructions. This will help learners speak and write well. However, with respect to the major tenses in English, there seems to be some consensus among grammarians.

For example, Raymond (2015) exemplifies the existence of twelve tenses in English. His book shows that each of the three major categories of the tenses has four divisions. Bdliya (2011) and Kolawole (2010) demonstrate and maintain this position. It is generally believed that three

major tenses exist in the English language: the past tense, the present and the future tenses. In English, it is a fact that these three have some divisions. For example, scholars such Latilo and Olooku (2009), Kolawole (2010) and Bidliya (2011), posit that the English language has twelve (12) tenses. Each of the major ones has four subdivisions i.e. the past tense has the simple past tense, past continuous tense, past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense.

According to the scholars above, the present tense has the types such as the simple present, present continuous tense, present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense. The future tense has the simple future, future continuous tense, future perfect and future perfect continuous tense. However, Maicibi (2000), Elizabeth (1998) and Otiede (2005), show that the English language has nine (9) tenses. Each of the major ones has three subdivisions i.e. the simple past tense, past continuous tense and past perfect tense; simple present, present continuous tense and present perfect tense; simple future, future continuous tense and future perfect tense.

The question of whether the English language has twelve or nine tenses may not a problem (Andrew 2014). It is understandable that authors of books vary considerably with respect to style and methodology in the treatment of English grammar. Their target audience determines the aspects they wish to present. This is obvious since learning is an organized process starting from easy to hard and then simple to complex experiences (Andrew 2014). Therefore, the nine tenses outlined by such authors are for obvious pedagogical reasons. Their discussions are obvious to teachers of English. The first three tenses stressed may be the ones that should be initially introduced to learners. This will be done before taking the final categories in each of the major divisions of tense. In this section, the twelve major English tenses and their uses are presented one by one:

2.11.1 The Simple Present Tense

According to Bidliya (2011) and Raymond (2015), this tense is used to express habitual or repeated actions. The tense is formed by adding an 's' to the base form of the verb when the subject is singular. When the subject is plural, however, the base form of the verb remains in its basic form e.g. Shehu goes to market every Sunday. Students dance well.

2.11.2 The Progressive Tense

This tense is made up of using the main verb and an auxiliary verb and the 'ing' form of the verb. E.g. Musa is writing his assignment now.

2.11.3 The Present Perfect Tens

This is formed by using the auxiliaries: 'has' and 'have' plus the participle form of the verb e.g. He has eaten the food. They have finished the work.

2.11.4 The Present Perfect Continuous Tense

This tense is formed by using the auxiliaries: 'has' and 'have' plus 'been' and 'ing' form of the verb. It is used to show that an action that began in the past is continuing at the moment of speaking. E.g. The students have been complaining about the matter for two weeks now.

2.11.5 The Simple Past Tense

This is used to express actions that were started and completed in the past e.g. I sat for common entrance examinations in September, 2003.

2.11.6 The Past Continuous Tense

This tense is used with auxiliaries 'was' and 'were' plus the 'ing' form of the verb. It is used to show that some past actions went on. It shows a continuous action interrupted by another action all of which happen in the past. E.g. We were playing football when the man came.

2.11.7 The Past Perfect Tense

This is used together with the auxiliary 'had' and the past participle form of the verb. It is mainly used to show that one past action had taken place before another past action commenced. Although both took place in the past, the earlier action is put in the past perfect while the later in the simple past tense. E.g. Garba had gone to school when his mother fell sick.

2.11.8 The Past Perfect Continuous Tense

This tense is formed by using the auxiliary 'had'+ been + ing form of the verb. It is used to show that a past action was going on before another past action took place. E.g. The men had been hungry for thirty minutes before the food arrived.

2.11.9 The Simple Future Tense

This tense is used to express the time of an action using 'shall' and 'will' and the main verb. It is used to show views about the future, i.e. future actions etc. E.g. The rain will be heavy in August this year.

2.11.10 The Future Continuous Tense

This tense is expressed using 'will' and 'shall' plus 'be' and 'ing' form of the verb. It is used to show that an action will be taken place in the future. E.g. The manager will be visiting our branch next week.

2.11.11 The Future Perfect Tense

This tense is formed by using 'will', 'shall' and 'have' plus the past participle form of the verb. It is used to show that an action will have been completed at a certain time in future. E.g. Abubakar will have written his letter by 12.30pm.

2.11.12 The Future Perfect Continuous Tense

This is expressed by the use of 'will'/'shall',+ 'have'+ 'been' and 'ing' form of the verb. E.g. Asmau will have been sleeping for five hours by 8.00am

From the above description of the English tenses, it could be established that the number of tense in English has correspondence with different time relations. Speakers and writers of English express the specific times in which actions are conducted using relevant tenses. For this reason, Mathew (2012) posits that *it could be said that those scholars who treat the nine tenses, instead of the twelve, have deliberately neglected the other subdivisions for obvious reasons.* For instance, it is true that learning is a gradual process.

Therefore, learners are supposed to be taken to the simple forms of the tenses before the complex ones. This is simply a question of pedagogy or teaching, which involves a gradual introduction of learners of English grammar from one level of the grammar to the other. This includes its tense system. For example, some scholars such as Babalola (2012) mention the future tense in their books but do not itemize the subdivisions such as future continuous and future perfect tenses. The tenses of English as presented by Bdliya (2011) are shown in appendix C for recourse. Conversely, those of Raymond (2015) and their examples are shown in appendix D.

2.12 The Major Forms of Tenses in the Hausa Language

Similarly, the major forms of tenses in the Hausa language have different categories. A cross section of Hausa grammar texts divides Hausa tenses into three major classes. According to Bello (2014), Babajo (2006), and Galadanci (1976), the Hausa language has eight (eight) major forms of tenses. The major ones are present, past and future tenses. The present tense has the following divisions: habitual tense, general continuous and relative continuous tenses. The past has the general past tense and relative past tense. The future tense has the first and second future tenses and finally, a subjunctive tense used for imperative constructions in the Hausa language. This means in terms of their forms, the tenses of English and Hausa vary to some degree. This can be seen from the English tenses identified above and their Hausa equivalents provided in this section. However, the carriers and markers of tense in the two languages are not practically demonstrated by Bello (2014), Babajo (2006), and Galadanci (1976).

Bello (2014), shows that there are eight major tenses in the Hausa language. Bello (2000) and Babajo (2006) maintain this position. According to them, the following identify each tense: (i) a pre-verbal pronoun, (ii) a tense marker and (iii) a main verb. This means that to determine a particular tense in Hausa, there may be the need to determine a pre-verbal pronoun in a sentence. Illustrations made by scholars in Hausa grammarians such as Bello (2014) and Galadanci (1976), show that the tense marker follows the pre-verbal pronoun immediately. The verb is the third linguistic item marking the presence and of course the formation of tense in the Hausa language. The following are examples:

2.12.1 General Past Tense (Shudadden Lokaci Na I)

According to Babajo (2006), this tense is used in Hausa to indicate past actions which were started and completed before the moment of speaking. Usually, the pre-verbal pronoun determines the past tense in Hausa. Some practical examples are illustrated by Babajo (2006) and Bello (2014) as na, ka, ki, ta, ya, mu, ku, su, a. it is imperative to note that the Hausa language is a tonal language. The tone according to Bello (2014) and Newman (2000) plays an important role in determining the tenses of the Hausa language. Bello (2014) and Newman (2000) describe the nature of the tone especially in the relative past tense where the addition of the vowel is used to elongate the tone to mark the past action. For instance, the second “a” in the General Past Tense is used to represent the tone for indicating past action. In this section, each of these pre-verbal pronouns that carries the tense can be physically observed in the pre-verbal pronouns. The following are examples in sentences:

- Naa karanta.
- Taa karanta.

2.12.2 Relative Past Tense (Shudadden Lokaci Na II)

This tense, just like the above, indicates past actions that were carried out in some time in the past. It has no connection with the present time. However, the actions are often related to the topic being discussed by the people involved at the moment. The tense according to Galadanci (1976) and Babajo (2006), is formed using the tense marker ‘a’, which goes together with the corresponding pre-verbal pronoun to indicate the time. However, in this case, it is not all the Hausa pre-verbal pronouns that carry the tense marker ‘a’ to indicate the past relatively. Examples include:

- Na karanta.
- Ka karanta.

2.12.3 Simple Present Tense (Lokaci Sababbe)

This tense has to do with habitual actions that are carried out more often by people. In the Hausa language, the tense is indicated by using the tense maker ‘kan’ usually after the pre-verbal pronoun that follows the tense maker. The usual form of the pre-verbal pronouns that go with the tense marker as provided by Babajo (2006:24) are: na, ka, ki, ta, ya, mu, ku su, and a. Some of the examples include:

- Nakan karanta.
- Takan karanta.

2.12.4 General Continuous Tense (Lokaci Na Yanzu Na I)

This tense is used to indicate the action that is started at the moment and is still going on. The tense maker used after the pre-verbal pronoun is ‘na’. The forms of the pre-verbal pronouns that go with the tense markers are: I, ki, ka, ya, ta, su, ku, and mu. Some examples of these are provided as follows:

- Ina a karantawa.
- Suna karantawa.

2.12.5 Relative Continuous Tense (Lokaci Na Yanzu Na II)

This tense, according to Babajo (2006), is the tense used for indicating actions that are often carried out in the past, but are associated with the moment of speaking. The tense maker used after all the Hausa pre-verbal pronouns to indicate relative continuous tense is ‘ke’. Some examples are as follows:

- Nake karantawa.
- Take karantawa.

2.12.6 First Future Tense (Lokaci Nagaba Na I)

This tense is used to indicate actions that will be carried out in future. The tense expresses an obligation on the part of the speaker or, the person being addressed or talked about. The Hausa pre-verbal pronouns follow the tense maker ‘za’ to indicate future orientation of the action. The following are examples:

- Za ku karanta.
- Za mu karanta.

2.12.7 Second Future Tense (Lokaci Nagaba Na II)

This tense also refers to the actions that will be performed in some time in future. However, unlike the above, there is no expression of obligation on the part of the speaker. It is not therefore possible to guarantee the performance of the action. Examples of this tense include:

- Na karanta.
- Ku karanta.

2.12.8 The Subjunctive Tense (Lokaci Na Umarni)

This tense does not specifically indicate any definite time in which the actions or a particular action will be performed. There is usually no tense maker indicating the tense since there is no reference being made to a particular time. Examples include:

- Ki (karba) a karanta.
- A (karba) a karanta.

2.13 Carriers of Tenses in Hausa and English

Babalola (2012) and Otiede (2005) posit that languages may have both similarities and differences in terms of their tense systems. They explain that it is possible to point out some similarities between any two languages in terms of their tense usage. However, such

differences are not practically illustrated to display both similarities and/or difference in terms of carriers of tense. Abubakar (2006) and Muhammed (2008) maintain that the carriers of tenses in both Hausa and English may not be the same. This may be considered as a mere assertion also. They have not substantiated such claim by clearly identifying the basic devices in Hausa and English that carry the tense.

Therefore, it may be difficult to say that Hausa and English language have similar devices carrying tenses to express time. Galadanci, (1976) and Bello (2014) argue that the preverbal pronouns in Hausa are the carriers of tense, though; they did not compare Hausa with English to study carriers of tense in details. In English, Raymond (2015) and Bdliya (2011), illustrate that the English verb suggests the type of tense used in the English language. Just like other scholars above, Bello (2014), Galadanci (1976) and Babajo (2006) did not compare the carriers of tenses between English and Hausa or any other language to examine their similarities or differences.

The major similarities in Hausa and English tenses as explained by Abubakar (2006) and Muhammed (2008), are in the notion of present tense, the past and future tense. This is inadequate to justify the existence of similarities or differences between carriers of tense in Hausa and English. Their studies are associated with some inadequacies. For instance, it is not clear whether differences in major forms of past tense in Hausa and English can account for certain tense errors. These errors may be found in the English of Hausa-speaking students. The studies fail to clearly state whether the carriers of tenses in both English and Hausa are similar or different. What is equally not clear is failure to state whether the two languages have the same processes of forming their tenses.

The studies above provide gaps that need to be bridged. For this reason, this study of tense formation processes in Hausa and English becomes imperative. The present study aims at examining the entire tense systems of both languages at the four basic levels. This starts from the major forms of tense, the carriers of tense (CTs), tense markers (TMs) and processes involved in the formation of tenses between the two languages. The rationale for the contrast is

to facilitate the learning of English tenses to learners in the Hausa-speaking communities. The present study will point to the most problematic tenses of English to Hausa-speaking students.

2.14 Tense Markers in English and Hausa

Abubakar (2006) maintains that there are a few areas in some languages where the formation of tense differs with respect to aspects marking tenses. He posits that elements used for tense formation in Hausa may not be the same for English or any other language. However, in that study, references to the markers of tense in Hausa and English was not made. Equally not stated are similarities or differences in tense markers. Babajo (2006) and Abubakar (2006) have not mentioned if the elements marking tenses in Hausa and English may be compared. They have not also established grounds for identifying possible tenses of English that may be difficult to learners in the Hausa-speaking community. Galadanci (1976) and Bello (2014), explains that the major linguistic elements marking tenses in Hausa are ‘a’, ‘n’, ‘na’, ‘ka’, ‘za’, ‘kan,’. He posits that the markers are located between the preverbal pronouns and main verbs as used in Hausa sentences.

Galadanci (1976) fails to illustrate similarities or differences by comparing the markers of tense in both English and Hausa. He has not explained whether the verb in English and Hausa is the carrier of tense. It is not clear from that study also whether ‘ed’, ‘en’ or ‘zero morph’ as markers of tense in English, are similar or different in both Hausa and English. His book is written to teach native and non-native Hausa-speaking people about the Hausa grammar. The work should have attempted a simple comparison of markers of tense in English and Hausa for teaching and learning. This may help in generating research in the field and other intellectual discussions on any aspects of both English and Hausa grammar.

In this study, the actual differences between markers of tenses in Hausa and English will be analyzed. This ranges from examining the actual distribution of tenses in both languages, carries of tenses, tense markers and the processes involved in the formation of tense. The contrastive analysis will determine the possible English tenses that Hausa-speaking students are likely to encounter. This will include such problems that are detected due to differences in tense distribution and aspects that carry or mark tenses in both. This study aims at determining if the

differences in tenses between Hausa and English are the sources of learning difficulty among the Hausa-speaking learners of English. The Hausa tenses as presented by Galadanci (1976) are shown in appendix A. Those of Babajo (2006) are shown in appendix B for recourse.

2.15 Tenses Formation Processes in Hausa and English

Lapinska (1974) posits that for any contrastive analysis that aims at responding to pedagogical needs, the formation process of the elements being studied in the two languages must be compared. The purpose of this is to exhibit their relationships. He says, “*a pedagogically oriented CA has to devise a transfer grammar whose task is to relate the realization process of one language to the realization process of the other language*” (Lapinska 1974:49). It is on this position scholars look at language universals. The purpose is to establish how their individual grammatical processes are formed. To Lapinska (1974), the processes of formation of the elements in contrast should be able to pinpoint the continuums below:

- a- Element a in English is element b in Hausa (or any language),
- b- Element a in English is either b or c in Hausa (or any language),
- c- Element a in English does not exist in Hausa (or, any language).

Abubakar (2006) and Andrew (2014) posit that the processes involved in forming the tense in English include using all the sentence patterns of English to depict the various tenses of the language. These sentence patterns are simple sentence, complex sentence, compound sentence, compound-complex sentence and multiple tense. This means tenses are exclusively used in sentences. They cannot stand in isolation. Supporting this position, Andrew (2014) posits that “tenses of English as in other languages never exist in isolation. They are realized in sentences”. The tenses appear in sentences to reflect the time orientation intended by the writer or speaker. It is in the process of sentence formation that determines how the tenses are formed (Andrew 2014). Andrew (2014) points out the processes in English. The processes comprise allomorphs such as ‘ed’, ‘en’ and ‘zero morph’. Others are auxiliaries such as ‘would’ and the original form of the verb in a sentence (Andrew 2014:23).

Many scholars, who have written grammar texts such as Andrew (2014), explain that the ‘ed’ is used with the regular verbs whose past tense and past participle forms are written in the same way. The ‘en’ is used with irregular verbs for both present and past perfect tense. The central limitation of that study is that a contrast between tense formation processes in any two languages is not clearly demonstrated. According to Abubakar (2006), the original form of the verb could be used to indicate both present and future tenses in a sentence. The inclusion of auxiliaries such as ‘would’ is used to indicate future time. That is particularly in the English language.

However, for the Hausa language, the process of forming the tense according to Galadanci (1976) involves the use of tense markers. The tense markers are located between the pre-verbal pronoun and the verb of the sentence. The pre-verbal pronouns are located before the tense markers. The verb elements are the final devices marking tense in a Hausa sentence. Galadanci (1976) and Babajo (2006) demonstrate the processes carefully through copious illustrations in sentences. This indicates that even Hausa tenses are only realized through the formation of sentences. However, it is not known if this can become a problem. Therefore, a study of similarities and differences in number of tenses, the carriers and markers of tenses as well as the processes in the formation of tenses will be crucial. This could contribute to both intellectual discussions and learning English as a second language.

2.16 Previous Studies

The contrastive studies conducted to examine the major forms of Hausa and English grammatical structures become increasingly diverse over the years. However, with an increasing interest in CA in English as a second language settings such as Nigeria, contrastive analysis is conducted in the two languages with a degree of scarcity of comprehensive works compiled on tense formation processes in Hausa and English. Relevant studies, depending on the rationale for the contrast, have been carried at one level of linguistics or the other to establish similarities and differences between English and Hausa. These levels include phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics etc. For example, Abubakar (2006) posits that there may be both similarities and differences in tenses formation in Hausa and English. His work

should have laid a foundation on contrast between English and Hausa grammar with particular reference to tenses, their similarities and differences. The gaps in that study provide grounds for other studies on tense formation in Hausa and English. Abubakar's (2006) assertion in the forgoing is not substantiated with facts from an analysis of the tenses of the two languages at four levels specified by Andrew (2014) i.e. the major forms of tenses in the two languages, carriers of tense, markers of tense and formation processes.

Furthermore, as part of the recently concluded works on contrast between Hausa and English, the researcher identifies Yusuf (2014). Yusuf (2014) undertakes a contrastive analysis of the Hausa and English proverbs. He examines the meanings of the proverbs and their social importance in both Hausa and English-speaking environments. Yusuf (2014) elucidates the differences between the two languages in terms of meaning of proverbs, linguistic structure of the proverbs as well as practical usage in social contexts. It is expected that a study of proverbs by way of contrast will touch on both the lines of meaning and grammar of the English proverbs. It is true that such proverbs are rendered in sentential forms using one tense of the Hausa tenses or the other. Most of the studies conducted in this area are more or less within the framework of linguistic semantics. This is because, meaning is the ultimate aim for the employment of proverbs in spoken text. The semantic field expatiates how expressions carry special meanings under some social contexts, where expressions may have meanings that are different from dictionary connotations of words used by the writers and speakers of a particular language.

In addition, Thomas (2006), conducted a contrastive analysis of English and Hausa sentence constructions. His work is more or less similar to Adeyanju (1971), who compares the English grammatical structures and those of the Hausa language. Except for Yusuf (2014), the works of Thomas (2006) and Adeyanju (1971) above have been carried out on the grammar of the two languages, the aspects of which could include nominal system, verbal system, prepositions and word order and of course the system of tense. Other aspects are interrogative constructions, declarative constructions, negation etc. However, none of the scholars above investigated whether systems of tense in Hausa and English are the same at the levels enumerated. The two

scholars did not adequately explain what happens in the area of tense between Hausa sentence patterns and their English counterparts.

Up to the time of this work, from an examination of the previous contrastive works conducted on English and Hausa languages, only little effort has been made on contrast particularly on tenses of English and Hausa. In most of those studies referred to above, the model of description such as the Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) model is either not known or, used completely. In addition, the four levels to be considered on studies that deal with tense formation according to Andrew (2014) were not followed. This is why in this study such gaps will be bridged by exploring Hausa and English tense formation at the four levels to accomplish the contrastive study successfully. These areas are the major forms of tenses, carriers of tense, tense markers and the processes involved in tense formation in Hausa and English, hence, the need for bridging the gap in this area.

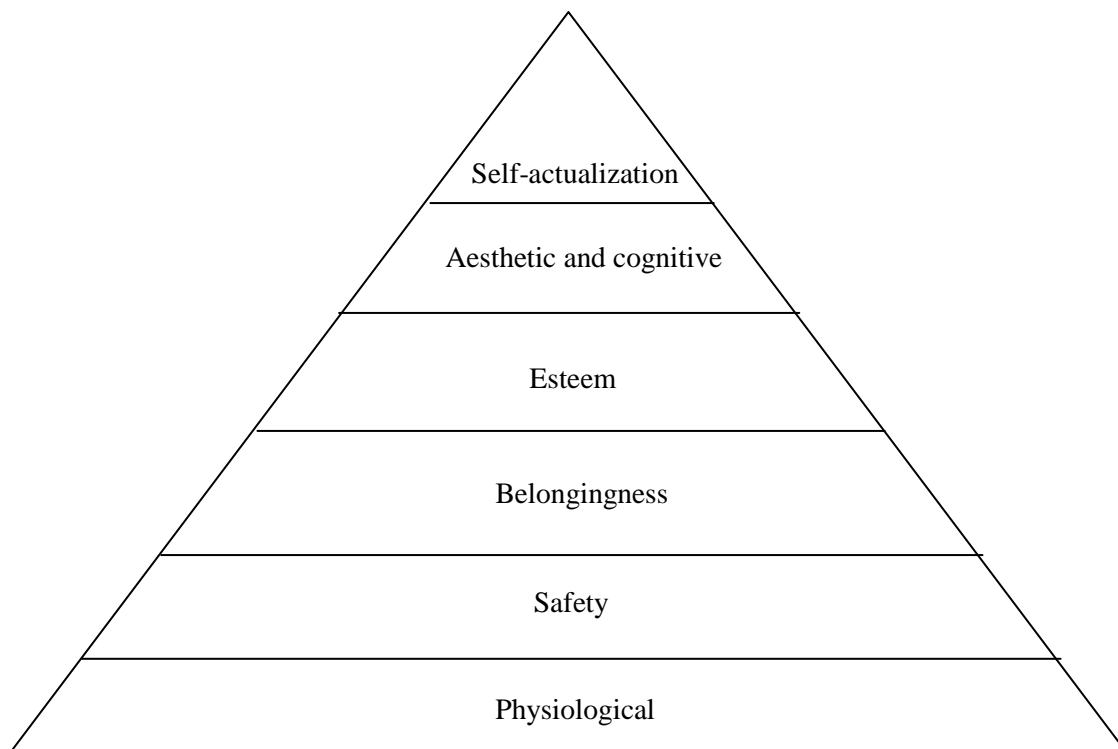
The teaching and learning implications that may emanate from the contrastive study are also parts of the gaps to be bridged in this study. The implications will be part of the contributions of the present study to English language teaching and learning especially in the Hausa-speaking community. Therefore, it is against this background that this study examines the tense formation processes in Hausa and English with teaching and learning implications. As a corollary to providing/suggesting remedies in teaching English tenses Hausa-speaking students, the present study will bring out the remedial package for teaching the difficult English tenses in the formal classroom situations.

2.17 Theoretical Framework

This work is based on the cognitive component of the popular Theory of Need founded by an American psychologist: Abraham Maslow (1967). His views were established on his great concerns to providing sound education to members of the community. To him, education must be given to members of the society regardless of religious orientation. The need to acquire various categories of knowledge according to Mathew (2013) is an essential component of the need theory. Mathew (2013) maintains that knowledge is of two major kinds: general and specific. He considers the linguistic knowledge as part of the general knowledge that an

individual requires for successful social interaction. In view of the need of every individual for the knowledge of grammar and tense system, Mathew (2013) demonstrates the need for exposing learners to the English-tense system. According to (Mathew 2013), this knowledge will make it easy for learners to read and write coherently and effectively. Although the theory has enjoyed acceptance in other fields such as Psychology, Philosophy etc., the theory seems to leave some stones unturned. For example, the major limitations of the theory in general, and the cognitive aspect, in particular include lack of clear explanation on the need for comparing two linguistic systems at the level of tense.

Another problem is lack of specification of the contrastive model to be adopted in the study for analysis. The last is absence of clear pedagogical strategies that may be used in the teaching of English tenses to learners of English from different linguistic backgrounds. Hence, the ability to use the English tenses effectively is related to the cognitive aspect of human need and of course, his humanistic education philosophy. Usually, the needs identified by Maslow (1967) are presented in a diagram to ease understanding. The diagrammatic presentation of the theory is by means of a pyramid as shown below.



Source: Salmanu (2013)

According to Mathew (2013), the cognitive needs are an indication that learners are potential members of their community, who will need to know both general and specific knowledge. The general knowledge involves the knowledge of the system of language for communicative effectiveness (Mathew 2013). In second language settings such as Nigeria, effective communication requires every learner of the language to have good knowledge of English tenses for both written and spoken forms of communication. This directly relates to the need of the individual for achieving competence as pointed out by Maslow (1967).

Other needs outlined by Maslow (1967) include belongingness, self-esteem, safety and physiological needs. These needs, as presented in the pyramid above, display what humans need at different stages of life. There need for belongingness is the need to love and be loved. The individuals' needs to feel belonged and loved are fundamental. For example, students and teachers of English have an ardent need to belong to the educated members of their society. They wish to be considered among those who communicate effectively. According to Andrew (2014), the cognitive aspect of the theory deals with need for knowledge, skills and competences. To Andrew (2014), the linguistic knowledge (part of which is the knowledge of grammar and its tense system) is an essential component of knowledge needed by the child learning a second language. Therefore, for learners to feel satisfied and belonged, they need to identify skillfully the various tenses of the English language for effective communication.

Learners need mastery of the tense system of English and of course, the tense system of their own language(s). If there is adequate mastery of the grammar of the language including the ability to make constructions that are free from tense errors, confusion in communication can be prevented. Students of English in both Hausa and non –native Hausa-speaking communities need to use the language well. They need to be trained to identify the actual tenses of the English language and those of their language. They need to appreciate the similarities and differences in the tenses of the two languages. They need to know that each of the two languages is used in its own right without unnecessary transfer or any confusion in tense usage while communicating.

In relation to this, Salmanu (2013) amplifies the various needs including the need to achieve competence in various angles and perspectives of the human life. According to Mathew (2013), this aspect of Maslow's hierarchy of needs deals with communicative competence. He says that anybody who achieves this need has truly attained a triumph in the social milieu. It is an essential part of the various needs of the learners of a second language. Andrew (2014) posits that good knowledge of English tenses can be acquired if learners have been exposed to the English grammar and particularly, the tenses of the language through practical examples in sentences. Appropriate use of English tense system is indeed a great indicator of sound learning. It is also a mark of prestigious communication. Maslow (1967) describes self-actualization as 'the peak of the hierarchy of all human needs'. Self-actualization is seen as the human desire for fulfilling purposes, desires, aspirations and achieving objectives.

Martins (2012), Leaung (2010) and Adesida etals (2011) maintain that most learners of English as a second language have not consciously mastered the tense system of English. This includes both the grammatical classes and functions of words. The implication of this is that helping the learners to practically identify the tenses of the English language will enable them communicate well. It will contribute in using the tenses effectively in practical communicative contexts. This will pave the way for achieving greater self-actualization and acceptance in the written communication as propounded by Maslow (1967).

Others such as John (2013) and Michael (2014) explain that leaners of English in second language contexts must do everything possible to use of the English tenses correctly. This will enable them to perform their communicative functions. Exposing learners to English tense system can take different forms of approaches to the study of language arts. In so doing, particular attention should be paid to the grammar and tense of the language. Beck (2012), David (2012), and Andrew (2014), suggest that teachers, can by way of contrast, describe the features of the learners' native languages in grammar. This includes their tense usage. The purpose of this is to examine similarities and differences and provide implications for teaching the aspects identified in the contrast.

Many scholars in Contrastive Linguistics agree that learning materials could be developed to respond to the needs of the students in grammatical aspects such as tenses (Samuels 2015). David (2006), and Osaka (2010), observe that exposing the learners to the teaching of tense through various sentence patterns can facilitate the leaning of English grammar in general. It will also guide the teaching and learning of English tenses in second language settings. Those settings are where learners’ native language backgrounds interfere with the system of the target language. Language teachers need to therefore, do their best in this area. They need to embrace the contrastive linguistic theory for helping learners to surmount their difficulties so that they can communicate effectively (David 2006). In this section, the gains from the review are summarized. They presented in the order of topics in this chapter.

Table 2.1 Gains from the Literature Reviewed

Author reviewed	Aspects reviewed	Aspects applicable to the study
Mathew 2012	CLA is use to find common features among any two languages	CLA could account for the errors learners commit in an attempt to learn the second ...
James 1998	CA has the predictive value and belongs to ...	CA can account for the possible interferences that learners encounter...
Di Pietro 1989	CA is a powerful instrument in language teaching	CA can enliven the second language teaching and learning of...
Olaofe, 2010	CA has been able to fish out the problems of Yoruba students with verbal system of English	CA is a strategy of facilitating second language teaching
Abdullahi, 2014	CA is effective in language teaching in phonology, vocabulary etc.	It could be used for developing materials that appeal to the learners language needs
Ndukwe. 2030	CA helps in language teaching	The findings of CA could be used to approach language learning adversities

Sadiq. 2012	CA could be used to account for differences in colour adjectives	It has the capacity to predict errors that student can make in language learning
Yaro. 2008	CA is applicable in cross linguistic studies	Differences in tenses between languages can be accounted for through CA.
Ogunsanwo. 2013	Tense is inflected in the verb	The verb is the carrier of the tense
Babalool, 2012	The tense of English helps in determining meaning	Expressions in English are meaningful if correct tenses are applied.
Otiede. 2005	Each language has a unique tense system	The tense of English must be mastered for clarity in communication.
Lamidi (2010)	Traditional grammar identifies tenses of English	Tenses may be studied using the grammar
Mathew (2013)	TGG could comfortably account for the tenses of every language	TGG could be used to analyse aspects of tense in any pair of languages in contrast
Raymond (2015)	English language has twelve tenses	Learners need to identify and use the tenses effectively
Bello(2014), Babajo (2006) and Galadanci (1976)	Hausa language has eight tenses	The Hausa tenses could be taught through sentence analysis
Martins (2012)	Learners of English as a second language need to use its tense system	Helping the learners to understand the tenses could significantly affect communication
Mathew (2012)	Documentary evidence could be used to study the grammar of any two languages	Using documentary evidence could give insights into the aspects of grammar and tense
Sax (2002)	A total of 200 objects could be used for description	60 objects could be sampled for use in descriptive studies to account for...

Summary of the Literature Reviewed

- a- CLA is a fundamental theory in linguistics that has the capacity to improve second language teaching and learning; it can be used to describe the grammar of any two languages selected for contrast:
- b- From the foregoing, it is apparent that each human language has a tense system. It was made clear that the tense plays a crucial role in both written and spoken communication:
- c- It has been made clear that the tense is an attribute of the human language the differences in which could make or mar the learning of a second language. For example, for both Hausa and English, there is a means for the formation of tense:
- d- From the review, it has been stated that the English language has twelve tenses according to Bdliya (2011) and Kolawole (2010) among some of the English grammar books consulted:
- e- In the Hausa language, the number of the tenses is eight, each of which has been described by scholars such as Galadanci (1976), Bello (2012) and Babajo (2006) using some examples in sentences:
- f- It has also been made clear that different languages are different in terms of linguistic devices carrying tenses, tense markers and processes in the formation of tenses and those differences are potential areas to contrastive linguists for analysis.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Many scholars have always stressed the need for selecting and using appropriate methodology in any research to achieve the set objectives. Specifically, this chapter, among other things, describes the research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedures. Also discussed in the chapter are the research instrument, validity, reliability of research instrument, procedure of data collection, procedure of data analysis and summary. The headings are discussed as follows:

3.2 Research Design

This study used the Descriptive Research Design. The design is considered appropriate since the aim of the study is to establish relationship between two sets of data: the tenses of English and Hausa languages. The topic “Contrastive Analysis of Tense Formation in Hausa and English with Teaching and Learning Implications”, could be carried out using the Descriptive Research Design. According to Sax (2006), Mathew (2005) developed the design. The design according to Sax (2006), describes real surface features of the two languages in contrast. It helps in comparative studies to establish similarities and differences and identifies areas of difficulties. Scholars such as Fries (1945) support the use of this design in describing the features of human languages to establish similarities and differences. It seeks to compare the system of learners’ native language with the actual form of the target language. Therefore, in view of this assertion, the descriptive design, which starts with a vivid description of the learners’ native language and then the target language of the learner, was used in this study. After the analysis, the results were used to identify possible problems that could be encountered by Hausa-speaking students learning the tenses of English.

3.3 Population of the Study

Scholars such as Sidhu (2000) define population as “a complete set of individuals, objects or events that have common observable characteristics in which the researcher is interested. As recommended by Sax (2002), in this study, one hundred (100) objects, linguistic items or sentences in the documentary sources are enough to illustrate features of the language under description. In this study, the one hundred sentences are purposefully selected from the story: *The Points of Disorder* by Safe (2002) and another set of one hundred (100) sentences containing Hausa tenses used in the story: *Da-Na-Sani Keya ce* by Musa (2005) constitute the entire population of the study. Thus, this comprises two hundred (200) sentences as recommended by Sax (2002). A population of two hundred sentences/objects from two languages, according to Sax (2002), is enough in descriptive and contrastive studies. According to Sax (2002) “it will enable the researcher describe features and forms of the phenomena needed for description, comparison or contrast”. The features could be used to account for relationships and differences in the objects under study and could identify similarities and differences between the objects (Sax 2002).

3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The purposive sampling is relevant in studies that deal with description of language phenomena and some educational issues (Sax 2006). According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2008), “the purposive sampling is chosen for the purpose of description.” Therefore, in this study, thirty sentences (30) from the story: *The Points of Disorder* were sampled for the analysis of tenses in English. Similarly, another set of thirty (30) sentences from the story: *Da-Na-Sani Keya ce* by Musa (2002) were sampled for the analysis of Hausa tenses. Hence, the total of the sample is sixty (60). According to Sax (2002), this sample constitutes one third of 200 population. It is therefore sufficient for carrying out a descriptive study (Sax 2002).

Table 3.4.1 Sampling from the Total Population

Total Population of of tenses	No of Sentences Sampled	Percentage	Number of Tenses Sampled
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English sentences	100	30	3.3%	30
Hausa sentences	100	30	3.3%	30
Total	200	60	6.6%	60

3.5 Research Instruments

In this study, Documentary Evidence was used as instruments. Documentary evidence are sources of data available in books, magazines, storybooks etc. that could be used in studies to describe certain features of languages in contrast. In this study, sixty (60) sentences were extracted from two storybooks. Hence, the instruments used are “Points of Disorder” by Sam (2005) and “Da-Na-Sani Keyace” by Musa (2002) for both English and Hausa data respectively. These instruments contain sentences needed for the study. They will help in demonstrating the features of the tense systems of both Hausa and English. The instruments revealed the carriers of tenses, tense markers and tense formation processes in the two languages. Some scholars such as Guilquin (2006) show that documentary sources such as books are valid for contrast if they represent the languages in which they are written.

According to Mathew (2005), documentary evidence can establish the basis for similarities and differences between any two languages. Apart from that, it can identify the possible learning difficulties of language learners and can provide the results that are crucial in both language teaching (Mathew 2005:40-45). Others such as Lapinska (1974) and Mathew (2012) argue that documentary evidence is the most appropriate instrument for contrastive studies that centre on the comparison of any two languages at the level of grammar. The contrast can be done irrespective of the aspects chosen by the analyst. Also, other researchers in contrastive linguistics such as Grala (2008), James (2013), Mean (2015), Nickel (2014), Zabrocki (2014) and Rivers (2015), justify the use of documentary evidence for the contrastive analysis of plurality, nominal, negatives, tense formation in English etc. They posit that English and any other indigenous language spoken by learners may be used.

3.6 Reliability and Validity of the Instrument

To ensure the validity of the research instruments, the researcher presented the instruments to two language teachers. Both are Ph.D. certificate holders in English with more than twenty

years teaching experience. The two specialists agree that the two texts are relevant in the study since they contain sentences written in different tenses of both English and Hausa. They also agree that using the texts to teach tenses in both languages could help in second language teaching. After this valid assessment, for the researcher to ensure that the instruments are reliable, twelve sentences from both English and Hausa were selected at random for analysis from the two storybooks. Six (6) sentences were selected randomly from the English data and another set of six (6) from the Hausa data. The purpose was to collect samples of various tenses from the two languages for analysis. After comparing and contrasting the tenses in the two languages, the following results were obtained:

- Both languages have present and past tenses that are used in indicating both present and past time in sentences. It is clear from the analysis that in Hausa language, there two past tenses: the general past and relative past tense. These forms of tenses may, or may not correspond with the divisions of past tense in the English language:
- Both languages have carriers of tenses. Here, differences are realized. The analyses pointed at the fact that in English, the verb or verbal group is the carrier of tense, while in the Hausa language, the pre-verbal pronouns are the carriers of tenses. This is shown as exemplified by Babajo (2006) in appendix B of this research for clarity:
- Both languages have linguistic items marking the presence of tense. Both English and Hausa seem to have different tense markers. The linguistic items marking tenses in English like “ed”, “en,” “is,” “are” etc. are shown in appendixes C and D. those marking tenses in Hausa are presented in appendix B for clarity.

3.7 Procedure for Data Collection

The corpus data for this study consists of both English and Hausa tenses. The data was extracted from the two storybooks: “Points of Disorder” by Safe (2002) and “Dana Sani Keyace” by Musa (2005). There are other texts written in both English and Hausa. However, such texts could not be used for this study. The reason is that sentences used in such texts are presented as conversational exchanges. Therefore, the subjects of the sentences used are mostly

implied. In contrast to these texts, the two storybooks selected for this study are used in some schools in the teaching of reading and literature.

In the two storybooks: “Point of Disorder” and “Dana Sani Keya ce”, the majority of the sentences are written in word order. This enabled the researcher to identify subjects, verbs and tenses as they were analyzed in the study. It also made the identification of carriers of tense, tense markers and tenses formation processes easier. The two texts were examined and the relevant tenses were drawn at each level. All the tenses were studied and analyzed using Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). The analyses were carried out at three levels mentioned in the foregoing. These are carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes.

3.8 Procedures for Data Analysis

The major forms of the tenses in each of the two languages are used to demonstrate the level of similarities and differences. The transformational generative grammar was used to compare and contrast other three levels of tenses analyzed in this study: carriers of tense, markers of tenses as well as the processes involved in the formation of tense in Hausa and English. This revealed differences in the carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes. The differences were used to identify and explain the problems that could be encountered by Hausa-speaking students learning English tenses.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of the research methodology through which the relevant data was collected and analyzed. The major sections of the chapter include research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedures. Other areas include research instruments, reliability and validity of the instruments, procedure of data collection and method of data analysis.

CHAPER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysed on the topic “Contrastive Analysis of Tense Formation in Hausa and English with Teaching and Learning Implications”. The chapter presents an analysis of the corpus data of the tense systems of both Hausa and English languages. The analysis is based on the objectives and research questions raised in chapter one. Transformational grammar was used for the description of the carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes in this section.

4.2 Results and Analyses

The results obtained for research questions are presented using examples in sentences given in this chapter. The examples of tense errors given in chapter two and the analysis carried out on the both similarities and differences in the forms of tenses in the two languages were considered as possible sources of difficulties in using English tenses among Hausa-speaking students. The research questions were taken one by one as follows:

4.2.1 Research Question 1: What are the major forms of tenses in both English and Hausa languages?

In answering this question, some books on Hausa grammar and another two on English grammar, were consulted for the data to find out the actual distribution of tenses in the two languages. The books in Hausa grammar are Sabon Nahawun Hausa by Bello (2014), Nazarin Jimlar Hausa by Babajo (2006) and Introduction to Hausa Grammar by Galadanci (1976). The

major forms of the tenses in Hausa is presented in Table 4.2.1 and those of English in table 4.2.2 respectively:

Table: 4.2.1: The major forms of Tenses of the Hausa Language according to Babajo (2006)

Tense	No of Tense
Present tense	3
Past tense	2
Future tense	2
Subjunctive tense	1
Total	8

Table: 4.2.1 above shows that the Hausa language has three (3) forms of the present tense. These are simple present, general continuous and relative continuous tense. The language has two major forms of past tenses: general past tense and relative past tense. The Hausa language has two major forms of future tenses: first future tense and second future tense. The final tense is the subjunctive tense. The total number of the Hausa tenses is eight (8) according to both Galadanci (1976) and Babajo (2006).

Table 4.2.2: The Major Forms of Tenses of the English Language

Tense	No of tense
Present tense	4
Past tense	4
Future tense	4
Total	12

Table 4.2.2: shows that in the English language, the present tense has four main divisions: the simple present tense, present continuous tense, present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense. The past tense has the following main divisions: the simple past tense, past continuous tense, past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense. The future tense has four main forms: the simple future, future continuous tense, future perfect and future perfect continuous tense. Raymond (2015) and Bdliya (2011) demonstrate this vividly as shown in appendix D for clarity.

Table 4.2.3: Similarities in the Forms of the Major Tenses in Hausa and English

English language	Hausa language
Simple present tense	Habitual tense
Present continuous tense	General continuous tense
Simple past tense	General past tense
Past continuous tense	Relative past tense
Simple future tense	First future tense

Table 4.2.3 shows that the Hausa language has two similar present tenses to those of English. The Hausa language and the English language have simple present tense and present continuous tense. Furthermore, the two languages have two similar characteristics concerning past time. There are simple past tense and past continuous tense. With respect to the future tense, in the two languages, there is the simple future tense for indicating actions that will be carried out in future. The next is an explanation of differences in the distribution of tense in the two languages. This is presented below:

Table 4.2.4: Differences in the Major Forms of tense in Hausa and English

The Tense	English language	Hausa language	Difference in Number of

			Tense
Present tense	4	3	1
Past tense	4	2	2
Future tense	4	2	2

Table 4.2.4: Shows the differences in the major forms of tenses of both English and Hausa. In the Hausa language, there are no present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense. The Hausa language does not have past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense. While English has four present tenses, the Hausa language has three present tenses. In addition, while English has four divisions of past tense, the Hausa language has two. For the future tense divisions, the English language has four, while the Hausa language has two: first future tense and second future tense. The Future perfect tense and the future perfect continuous tense do not exist in the Hausa language. However, the Hausa language has a subjunctive tense as indicated in the foregoing. The tense does not exist in English.

The absence of an element in the source language may account for transfer of element from native language to the target language (Mathew 2014). Abubakar (2006) explains that in Hausa language, the present perfect continuous tense does not exist. Therefore, some of the common difficulties associated with the use of the present perfect tense are the absence of certain English tenses in the Hausa language. For example, the use of past simple in the position of present perfect tense is common in the English of the Hausa-speaking students. Such problems as shown by Fitikides (2004), lead to confusion of past simple tense for present perfect tense among learners, Hausa-speaking students inclusive. This accounts for the use of wrong expressions such as “he went to school now”, “they went to the mosque now” etc. as shown by Abubakar (2006).

The difference in the major forms of past tenses is also clear in both Hausa and English. In the Hausa language, the general past is equivalent to the English simple past tense. The Hausa language also has the past continuous known as relative past tense. The two English past tenses: past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense do not completely exist in the Hausa

language. Some Hausa-speaking students and others use past perfect tense for the simple past tense. Fitikedes (2004) cites instances of Hausa and other Africans making expression such as “I had finished my assignment yesterday” when they refer to a single past action, which was started and completed in the past and has no connection with the present time. This is wrong according to him. Only the simple past tense “I finished my assignment yesterday” is correct. The past perfect tense is used when two actions are involved. The first action is placed in the past perfect and the second action in the simple past tense. For example, “I had done my assignment when the boys played football” is correct as Bdliya (2011) and Raymond (2015) illustrated.

Furthermore, there is no correspondence between the major forms of future tenses in English and their Hausa counterparts. Although there is a world of similarity in English simple future and Hausa first future, the second future in Hausa does not correspond with future continuous tense or future perfect tense in English. The Hausa second future tense seems to be more or less equivalent to imperative constructions in English in which the subject of the sentence is implied. The English imperative constructions do not indicate any specific tense. The time can be present or future as there is no specification. The constructions are rendered as requests or commands.

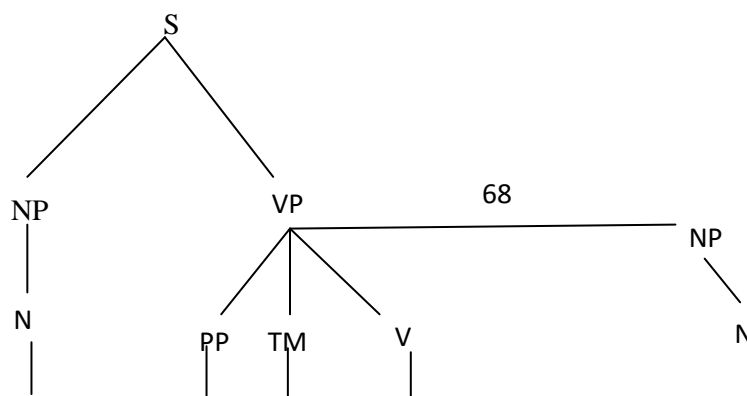
4.2.2 Research Question 2: What are the carriers of tense in Hausa and English?

In answering this question, twenty (20) sentences were used. Ten (10) sentences were extracted from the Hausa storybook: “Dana Sani Keyace” and the other set of ten (10) sentences from the “Point of Disorder”. The twenty sentences were analyzed to identify for comparison, the carriers of tense in Hausa and English. Hausa sentences were taken before the English tenses as demonstrated below:

Description of Carriers of Tenses in Hausa and English

a. General Past Tense

Sentence (1) Rabiū yaa rubuta wasika (Rabiū fetched water). Here, the carrier of tense is “yaa”
The sentence is analyzed as follows:



Analysis S = NP + VP

NP = Noun phrase e.g. (Rabi'u)

VP = verb phrase e.g. PP + TM + V + NP

PP = pre – verbal pronoun

TM = tense marker

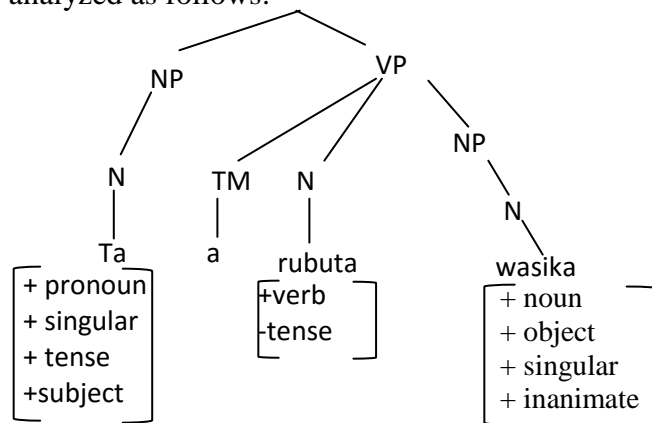
V = verb

NP = Noun phrase (wasika)

CT= carrier of tense

b. Relative Past Tense.

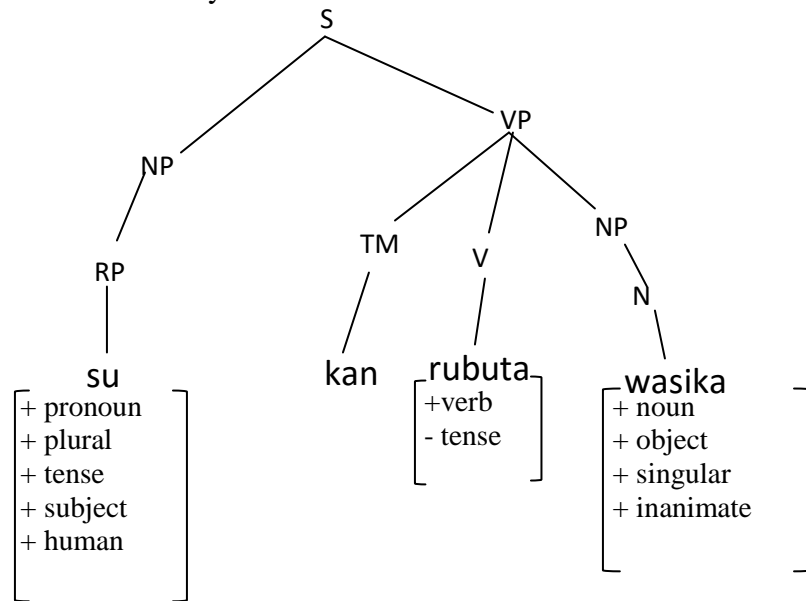
Sentence (2) Taa rubuta wasika (she fetched water). Here, the carrier of tense is “ta”. This sentence is analyzed as follows: S



In the above sentences, the carriers of tenses are the pre-verbal pronouns “ya” in the first sentence and “ta” in the second sentence. The verb “rubuta” does not show evidence of tense inflection. The two sentences are in past tense. Even when they are changed to present continuous, the verb form “rubuta” does not change. For example, in these sentences: “Rabiu yana rubuta wasika” and “Tana rubuta wasika”, the verb “rubuta” is in the present progressive tense. Below are other examples using different tenses to illustrate how pre-verbal pronouns carry tenses in the Hausa sentences:

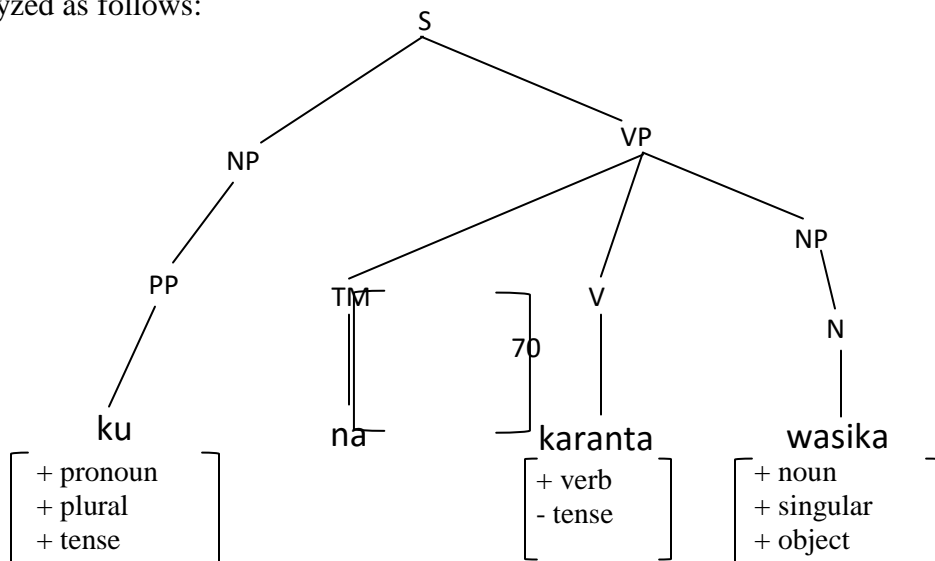
c. Simple Present Tense

Sentence (3) Su kan rubuta wasika (they write letter). Here, the carrier of tense (CT) is “su”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



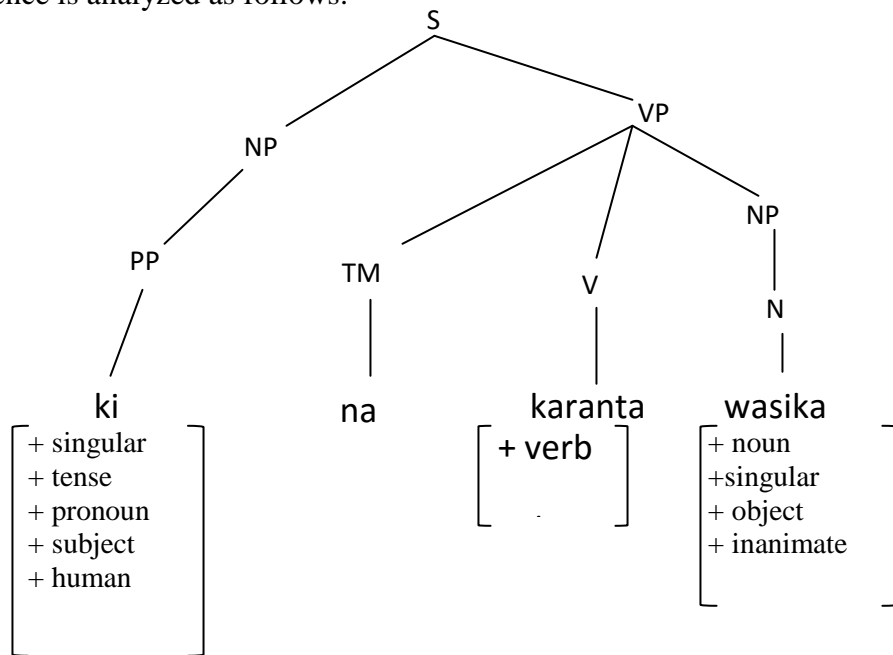
d. General Continuous Tense

Sentence (4) kuna karanta wasika (you are reading a letter). Here, the CT is “ku”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



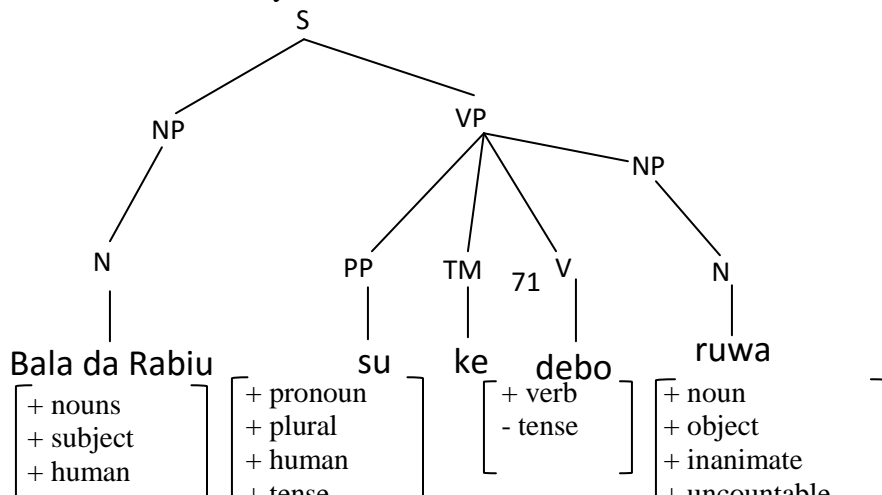
e.General Continuous Tense

Sentence (5) kina karanta wasika (you are reading a letter (female)). Here, the CT is “ki”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



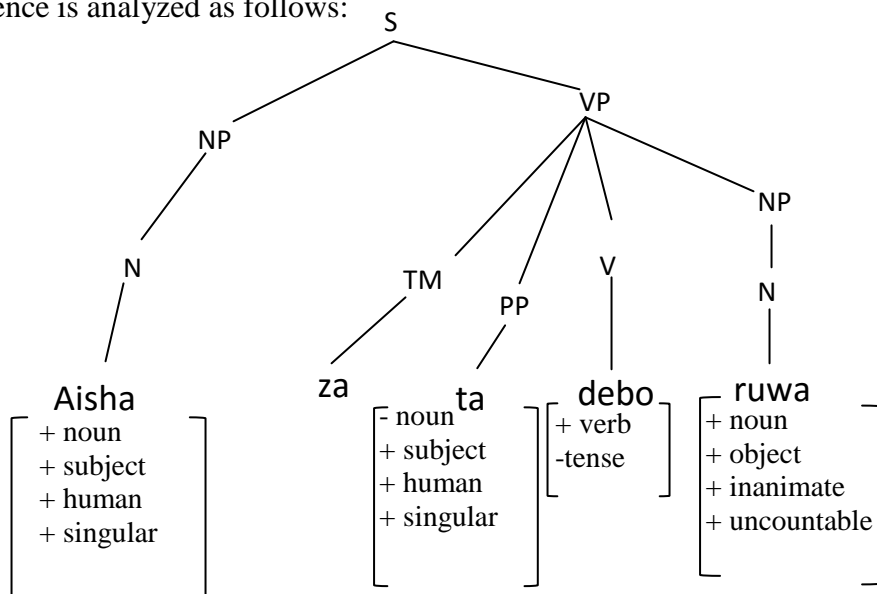
f.Relative Continuous Tense

Sentence (6): Bala da Rabi'u suke debo ruwa (Its Bala and Rabi'u that fetch water). Here, the CT is “su”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



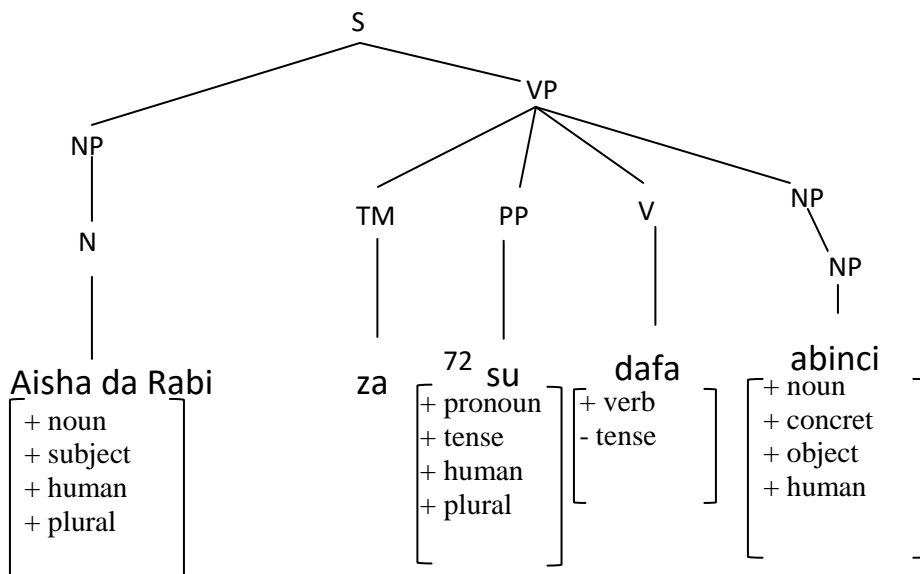
g. First Future Tense

Sentence (7): Aisha za ta debo ruwa (Aisha will fetch water). Here, the CT is “ta”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



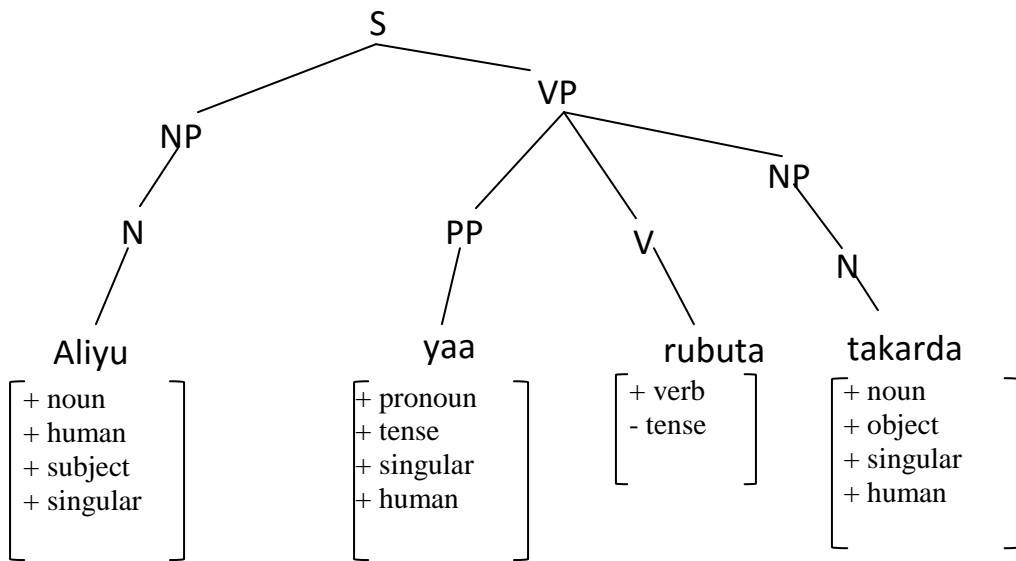
h. First Future Tense

Sentence (8): Aisha da Rabi za su dafa abinci (Aisha and Rabi will cook food). Here, the CT is “su”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



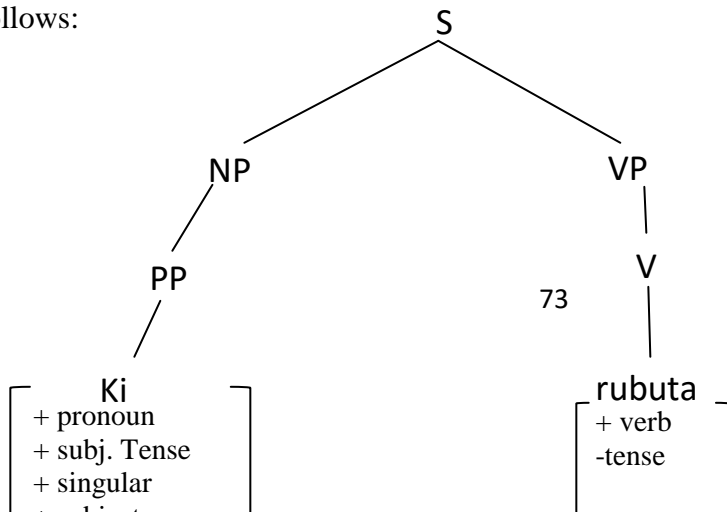
I. Second Future Tense

Sentence (9): Aliyu ya rubuta takarda (Aliyu should write a letter). Here, the CT is “ya”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



j. The Subjunctive Tense

Sentence (10): ki rubuta (write (for female)). Here, the CT is “ki”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



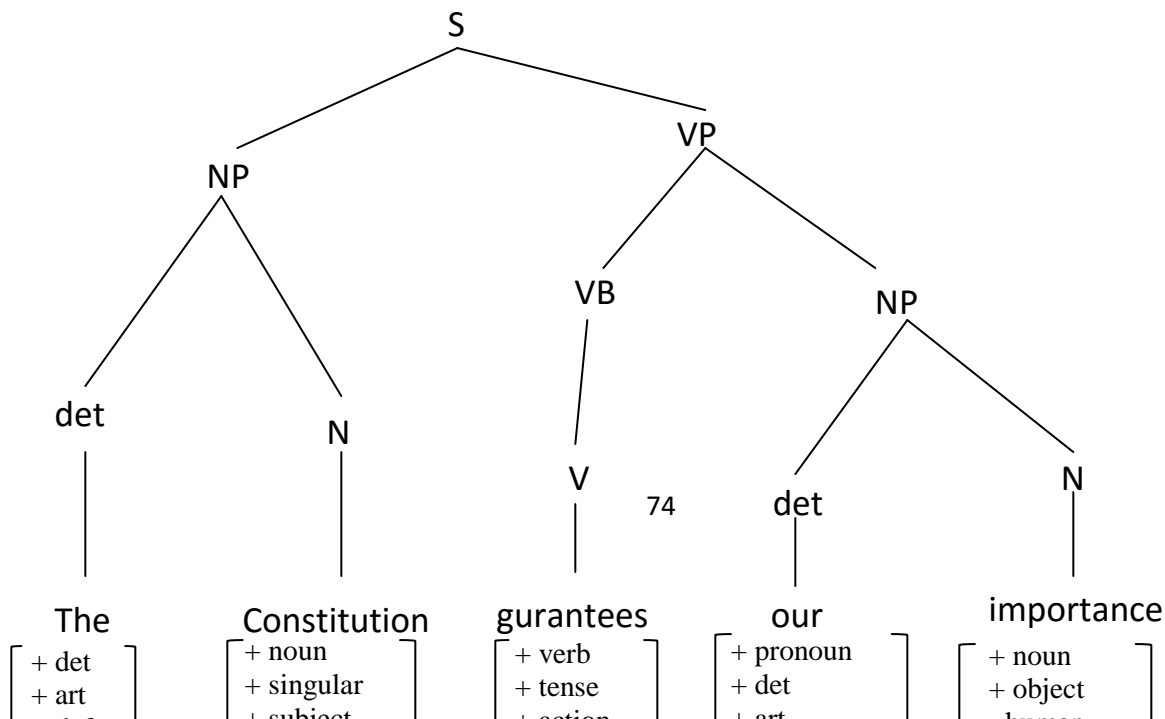
From the above sentences, other pre-verbal pronouns carrying tenses include “ta,” “su,” “ku,” “ki,” and “ya”. The form of the verb preceding these pronouns in each of the sentences never changes to show tense, that is, the time of an action. The verb does not change even when a particular sentence is transformed from one tense to another as shown above.

Description of Carriers of Tense in English

As demonstrated by Bdliya (2011) and Raymond (2015), the verb of the sentence is the linguistic item carrying the tense. The tenses are usually inflected in the verbs to show the time of an action intended by the writer or speaker of the language. In English sentences, the verbs reflect the tenses needed for showing the time of the various actions carried out. They do this by certain changes taking place in the form of the verb. Consider the verbs used in the sentences below:

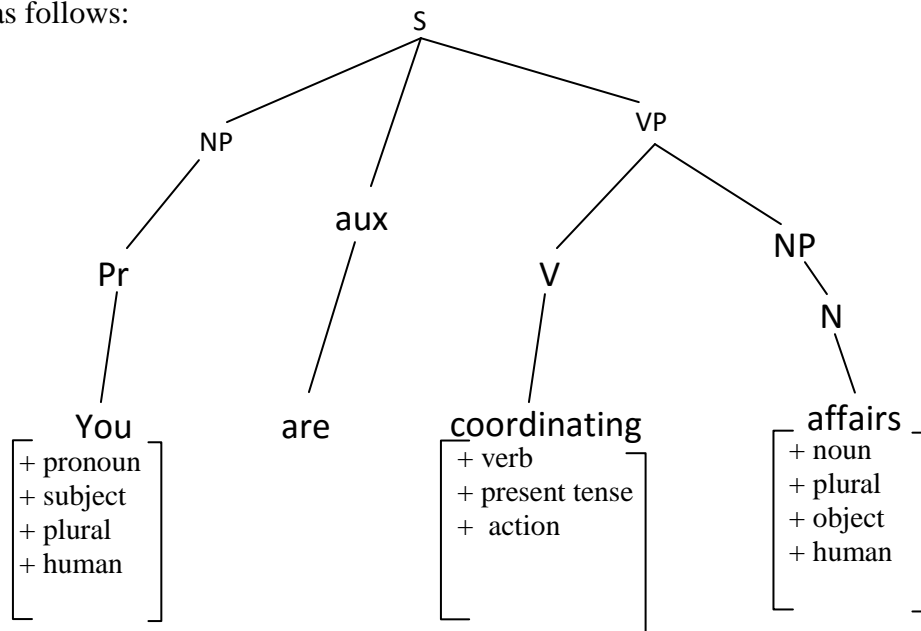
a.Simple Present Tense

Sentence (1): The constitution guarantees our importance. Here, the CT is “guarantee”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



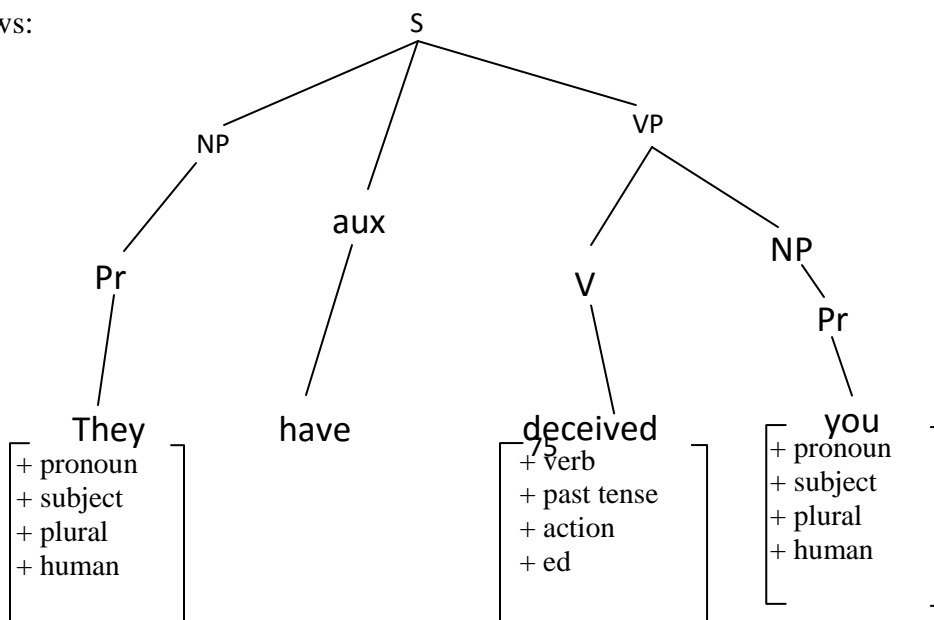
b. Present Continuous Tense

Sentence (2): You are coordinating affairs. Here, the CT is “coordinate”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



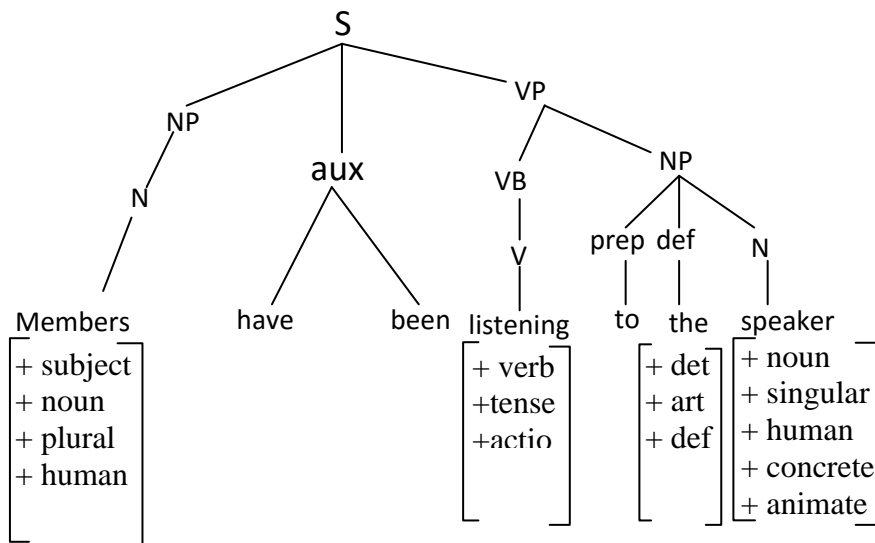
c. Present Perfect Tense

Sentence (3): They have deceived you. Here, the CT is “deceive”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



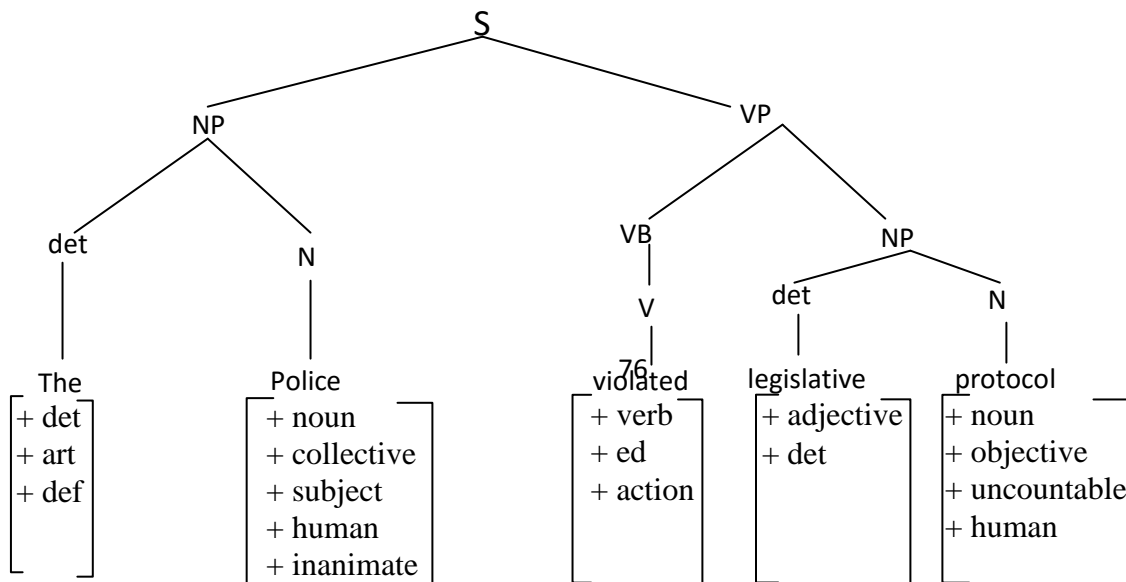
d. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Sentence (4): Members have been listening to the speaker. Here, the CT is “listen”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



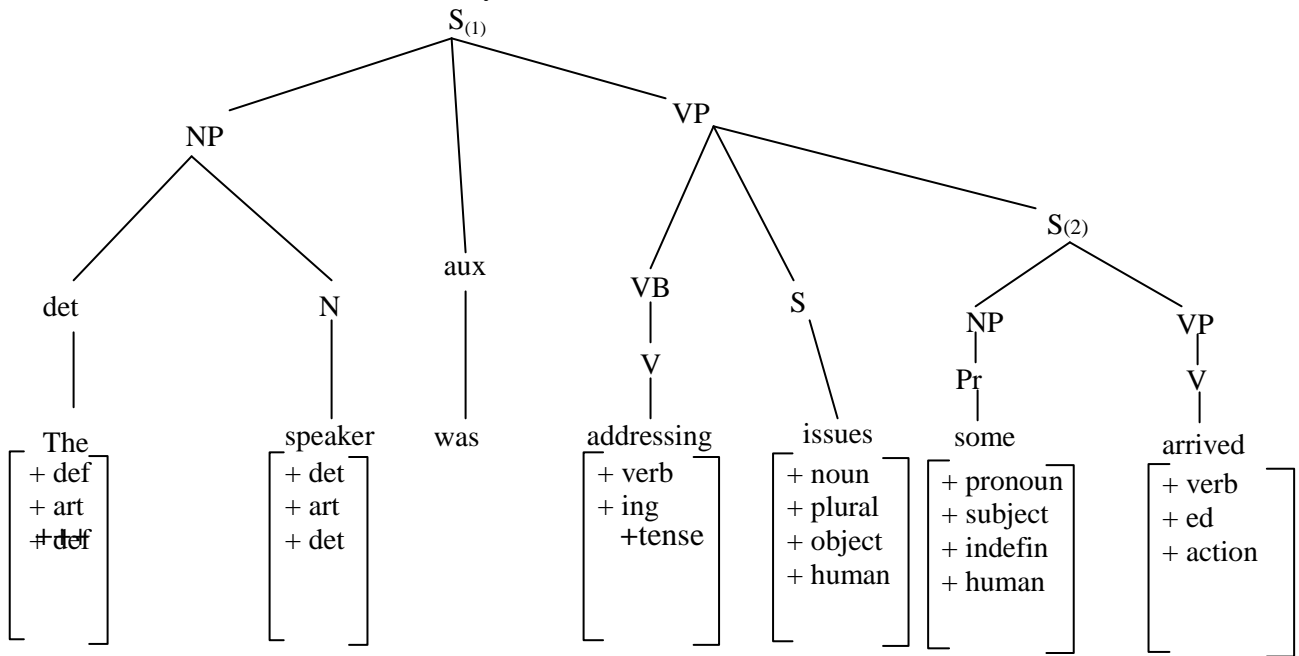
e. The Simple Past Tense

Sentence (5): The police violated legislative protocol. Here, the CT is “violate”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



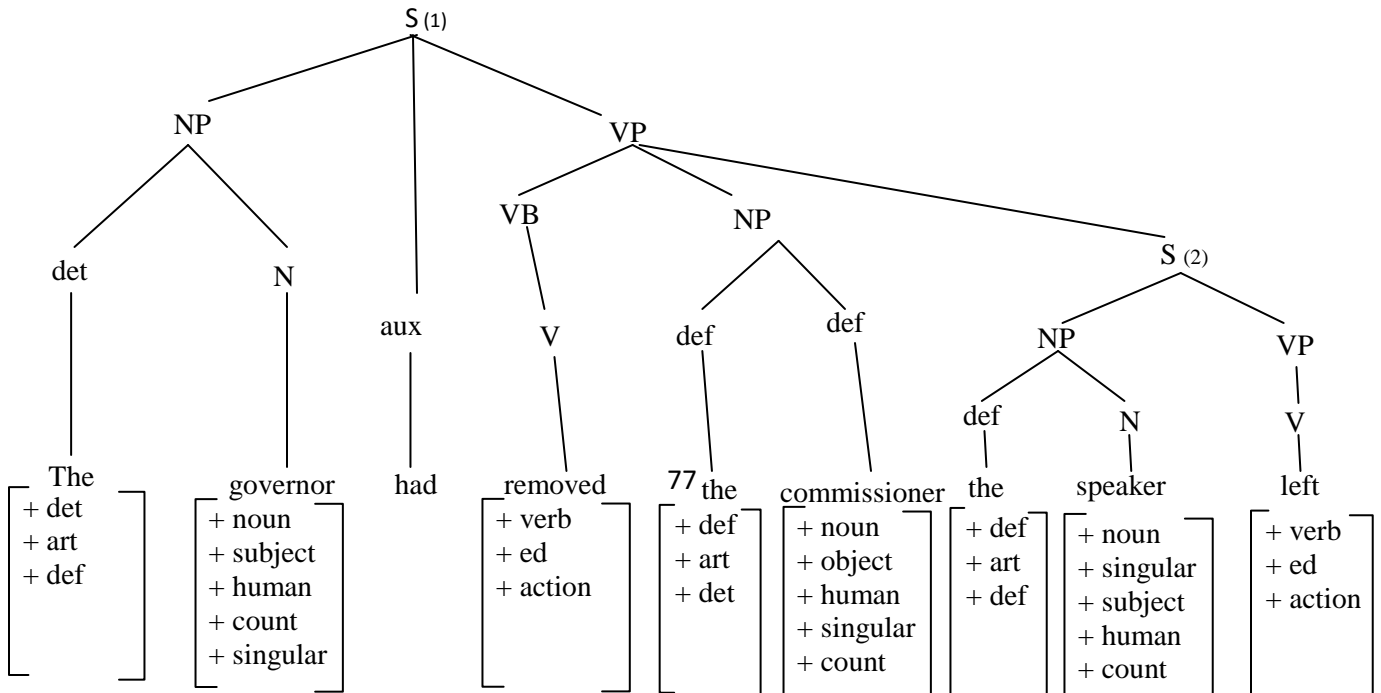
f. The Past Continuous Tense

Sentence (6): The speaker was addressing issues when some arrived. Here, the CT is “address” and “arrived”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



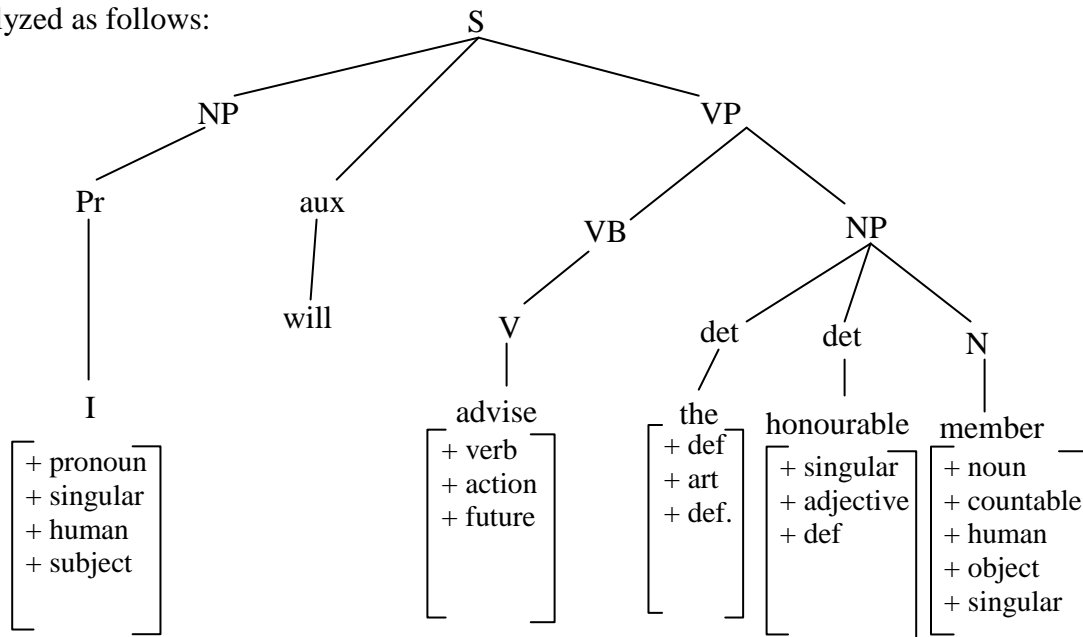
g. The Past Perfect Tense

Sentence (7): The governor had removed the commissioner when the speaker left. Here, the CTs are “remove” and “leave”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



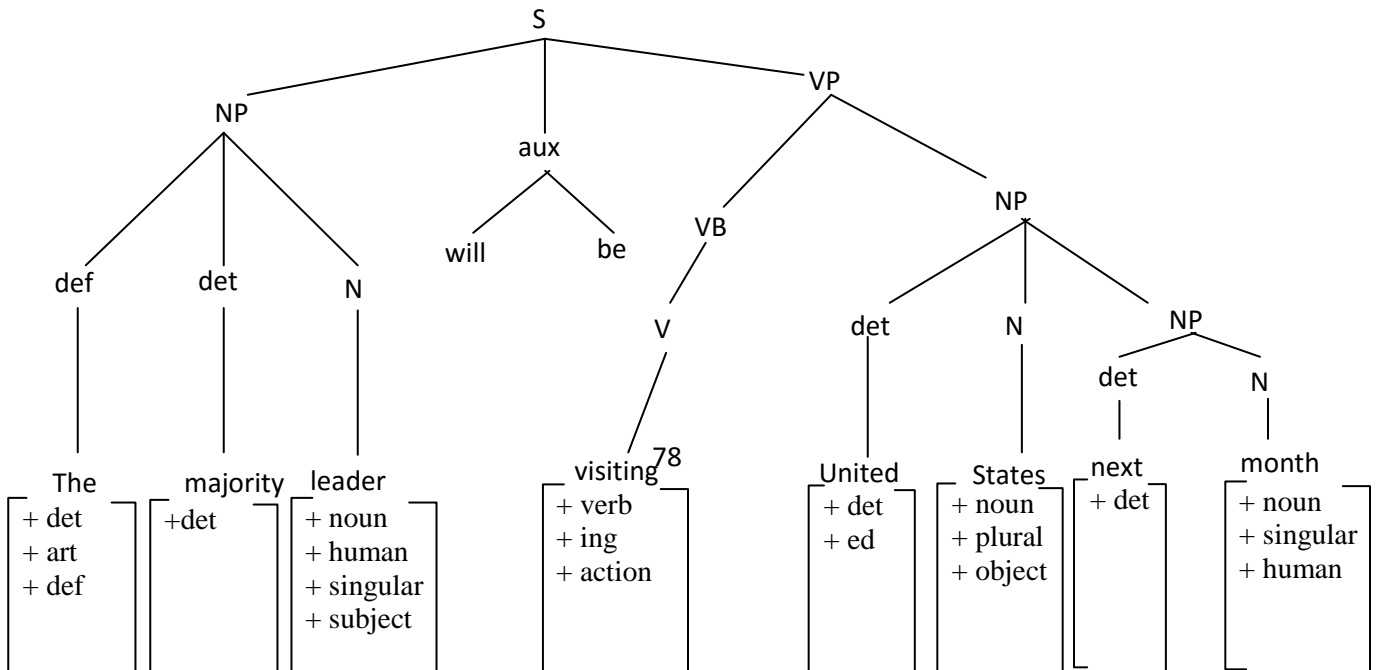
h. The Simple Future Tense

Sentence (8): I will advise the honourable member. Here, the CT is “advise”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



i. The Future Continuous Tense

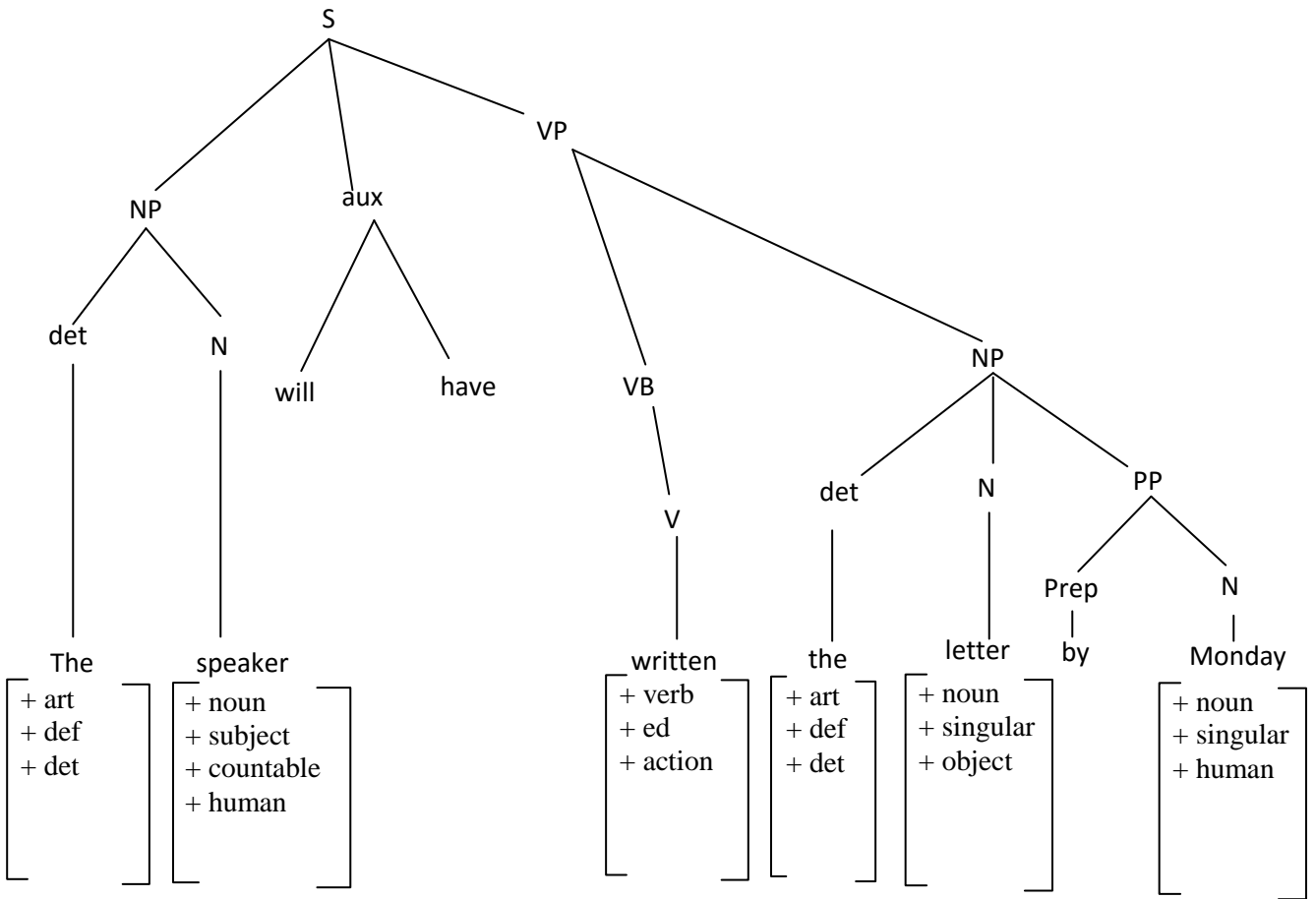
Sentence (9): The majority leader will be visiting United States next month. Here, the CT is “visit”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



+tense

j. The Future Perfect Tense

Sentence (10): The speaker will have written the letter by Monday. Here, the CT is “write”.
The sentence is analyzed as follows:



In the above, the carriers of tense in English are the verbs used in the sentences. Some of the verbs change their forms to demonstrate changes in various times necessitated by the intentions of the speaker or writer. The forms of the verbs reveal the following features: s, are, have, been, was, had, will, etc. Some of them are placed before or after the verbs used in the sentences above. They auxiliaries go with the verbs to show the tenses needed. Some features such as

ing, ed, en etc. were attached the verbs in order to indicate that the verbs are the carriers of tense in English. This shows that while in Hausa, pre-verbal pronouns are the carriers of tense, in English, the verb of the sentence is always the carrier of tense. The table below presents differences between the carriers of tenses in Hausa and English. In each tense, a pair of sentences is used to indicate examples of the carriers of tense as given in the analysis above. The English sentences are translated into Hausa language for clarity:

Differences in Carriers of Tense between Hausa and English

Some English Tenses	Carriers of Tense in English (the verbs)	Some Hausa Tenses	Carriers of Tense in Hausa (the pre-verbal pronouns)
John goes to school.	go	John yakan je makaranta.	ya
We have gone home.	Go	Mun tafi gida.	mu
She is writing now.	Write	Ta na rubutu yanzu.	ta
The people voted for him.	Vote	Mutanen sun zabe shi.	sun
The student will send it	Send	Dalibin za ya aika da shi	ya

In the table above, the carriers of tenses in English are lexical verbs otherwise known as the main verbs in English sentences. However, in the Hausa language, the pre-verbal pronouns are the carriers of tense. The verbs do not show the existence of any tense in Hausa language.

Similarities between Carriers of Tense in Hausa and English

In each of the two languages, carriers of tense seem to follow the word order. Examples are given below:

English Language	Hausa Language	Subjects in both	Verbs in both
Musa writes his assignment	Musa ya na rubuta jinga a	Musa/Musa	writes/rubuta

early.	kan lokaci.	ya	
She is cooking food.	Ta na dafa abinci.	She /ta	is cooking/dafa
They have arrived at a conclusion	Sun cimma matsaya.	They/su	have arrived/cimma
He is planning to leave Lagos.	Ya na shirin barin Lagos.	He/ya	is planning /shirin
We will pay for the bill.	Zamu biya kudin.	We/mu	will pay/biya

According to Abubakar (2006), this situation accounts for erroneous constructions of English such as “Shehu he is going to Kaduna” as against the Hausa sentence “Shehu za ya tafi Kaduna.” Although Abubakar (2006) did not compare tense formation in Hausa and English vividly, in this study, the two languages are compared at this level. The result of the comparison is therefore a confirmation to his assertion. By both structure and meaning, the two sentences above, are similar. Nevertheless, in the Hausa version, “Shehu” is a noun combined with a pre-verbal pronoun “ya” to function as the subject of the sentence. This is not allowed in English. Some Hausa-speaking students feel that the Hausa pre-verbal pronouns must be accounted for in English sentences (Abubakar 2006).

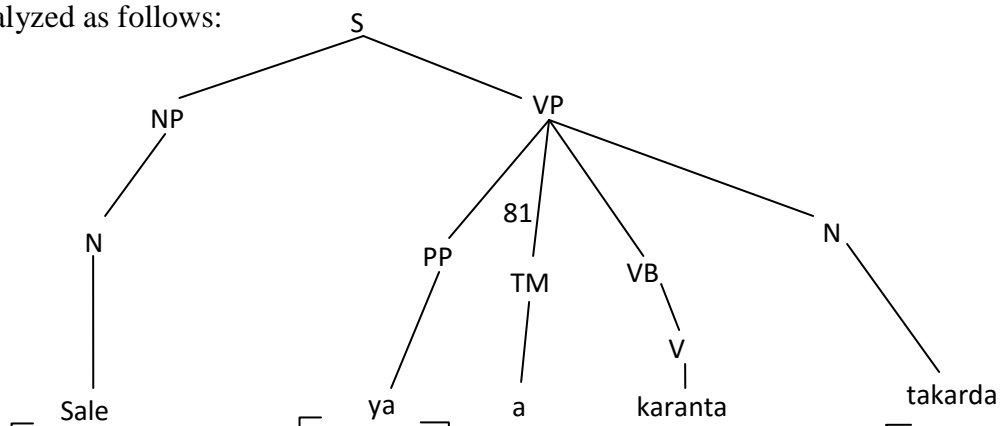
4.2.4 Research Question 3: What are the Markers of Tense in Hausa and English?

In answering the above question, a set of ten (10) Hausa sentences and another set of ten (10) English sentences were extracted from the two storybooks. The tense markers are described thus:

Description of Tense Makers (TM) in Hausa and English using Different Tenses

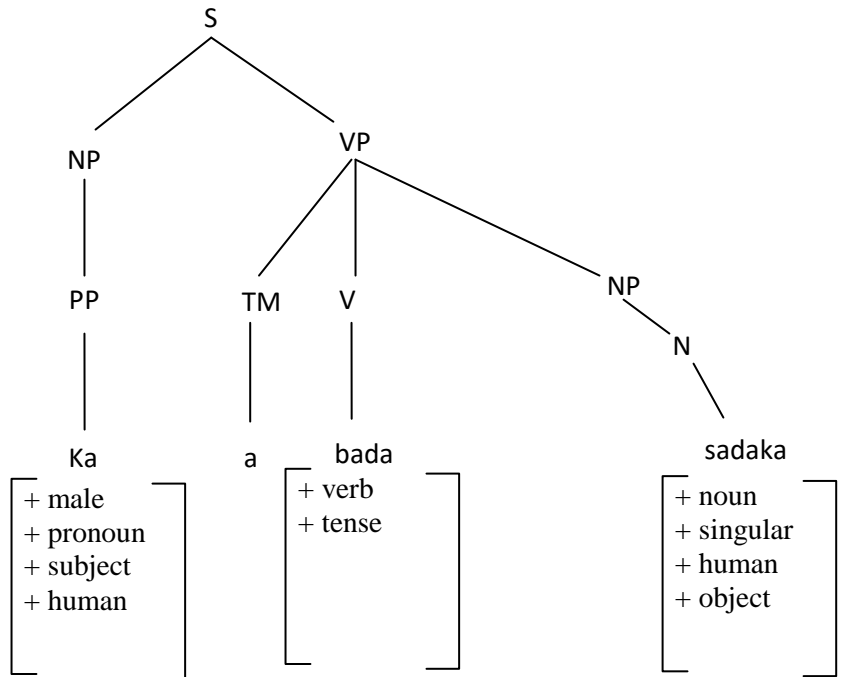
a. General Past Tense

Sentence (1): Sale yaa karanta takarda (Sale read a letter). Here, the TM is “a”. The sentence was analyzed as follows:



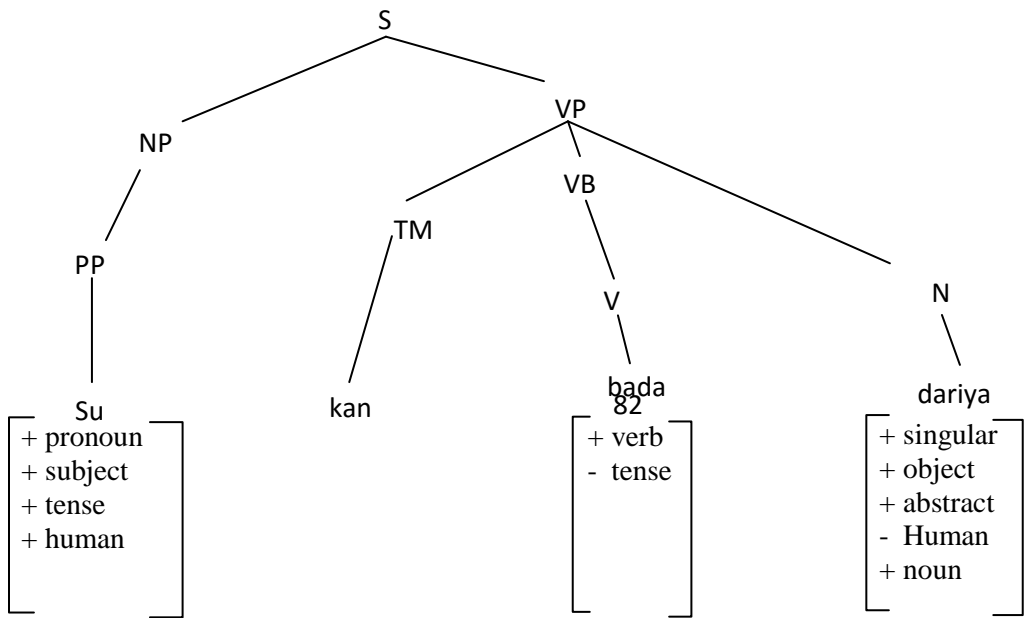
b. Relative Past Tense

Sentence (2) kaa bada sadaka (You gave a piece of advice). Here, the TM is “a”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



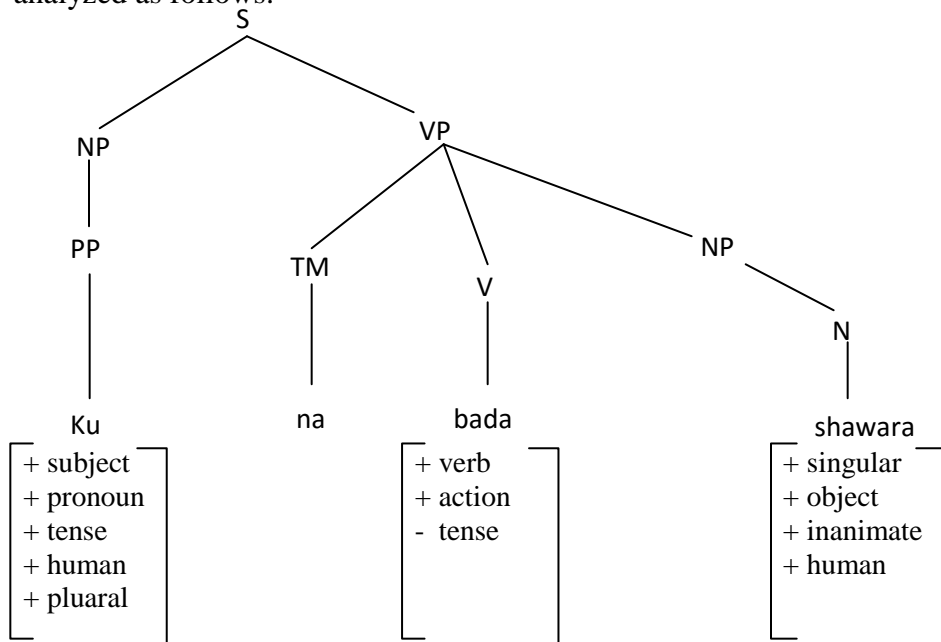
c. Simple Present Tense

Sentence (3): Sukan bada dariya (They make people laugh). Here, the TM is ‘kan’. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



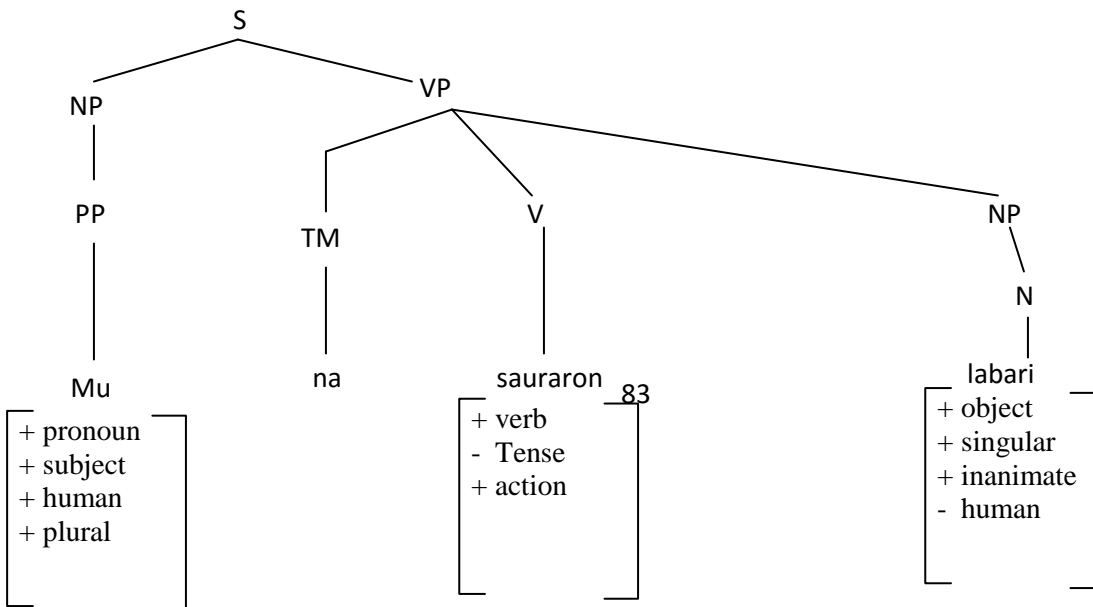
d. General Continuous Tense

Sentence (4): Kuna ba da shawara (You give advice). Here, the TM is “na”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



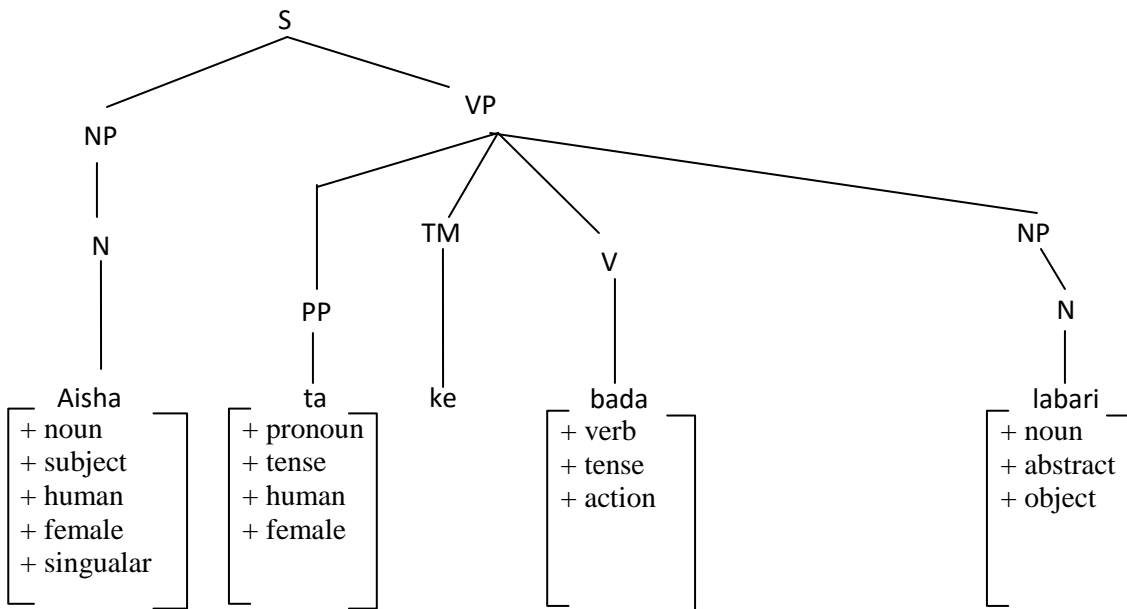
e. General Continuons Tense

Sentence (5): Muna sauraran labari (We listen to the story). Here, the TM is “na”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



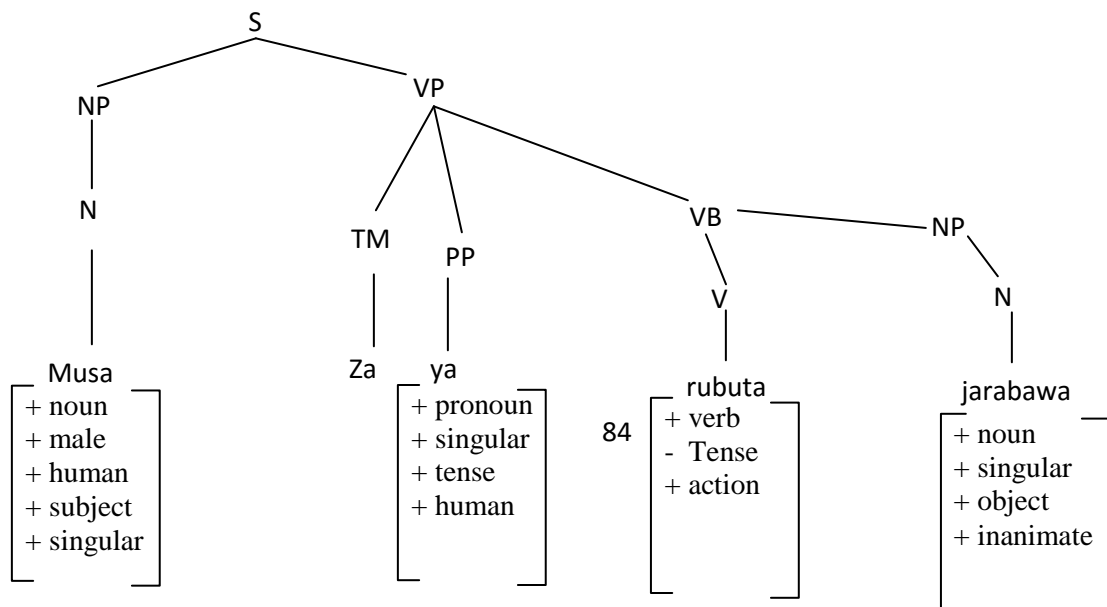
f.Relative Continuous Tense.

Sentence (6) Aisha take bada labari. Here, the TM is ‘ke’. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



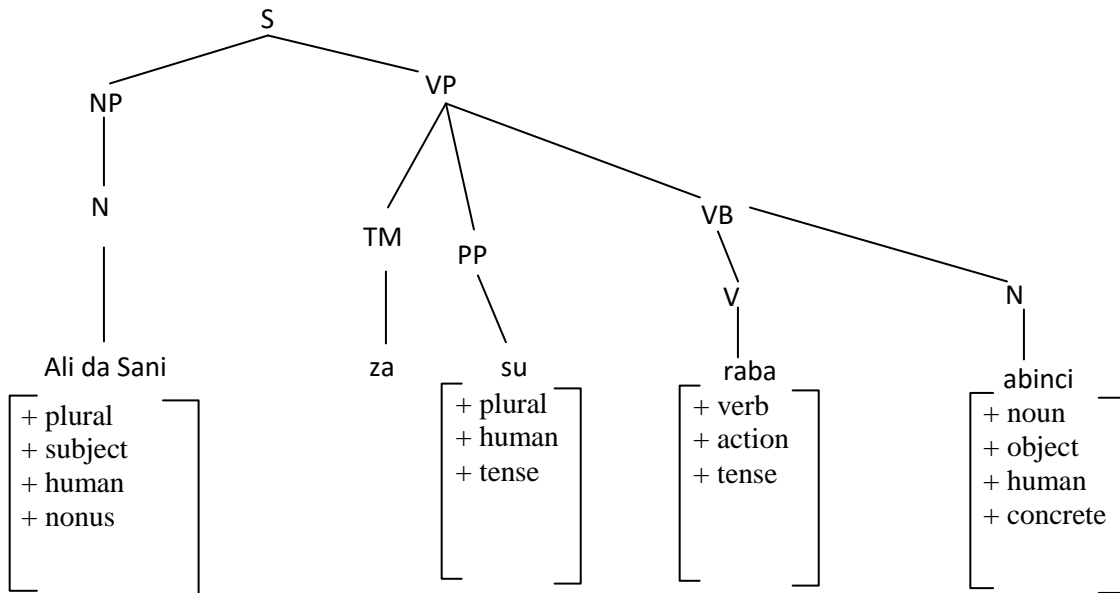
g.First Future Tense

Sentence (7): Musa za ya rubuta jarabawa (Musa will write an examination). Here, the TM is “za”. The sentence can be analyzed as follows:



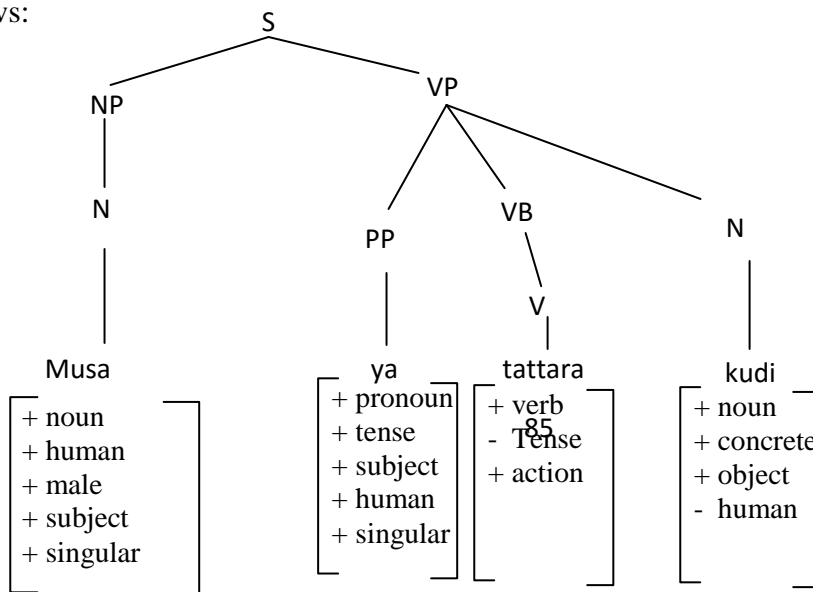
h. First Future Tense

Sentence (8): Ali da Sani za su raba abinci (Ali and Sani will serve food to the people). Here, the TM is 'za'. The sentence can be analyzed as follows:



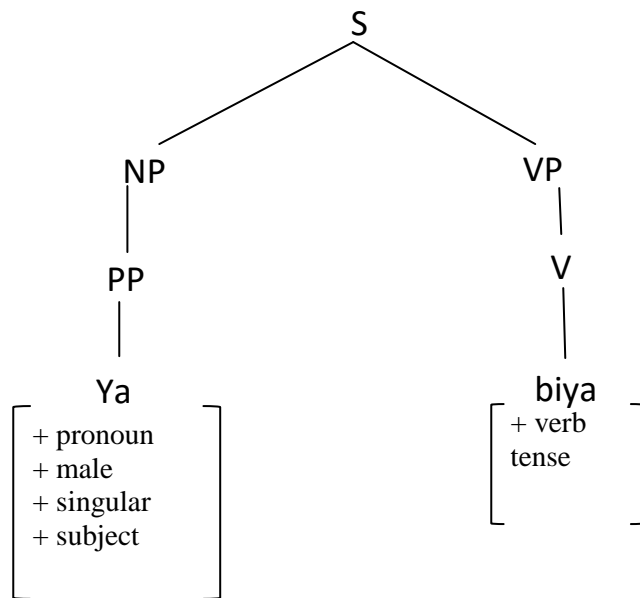
i. Second Future Tense

Sentence (9): Musa ya tattara kudi. There is no TM here. The sentence can be analyzed as follows:



j.The Subjunctive Tense

Sentence (10): Ya biya (pay the money). Here, there is no TM. The sentence can be analyzed as follows:

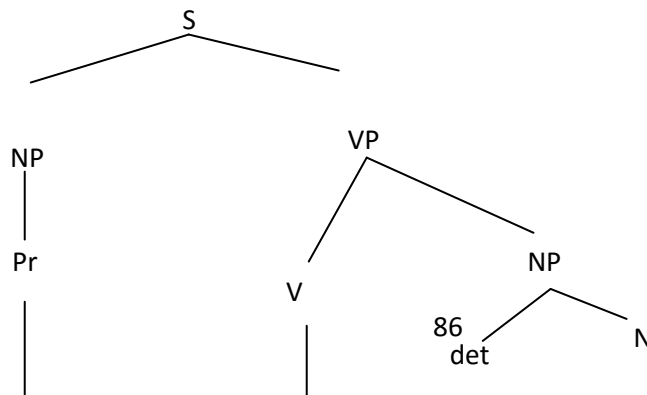


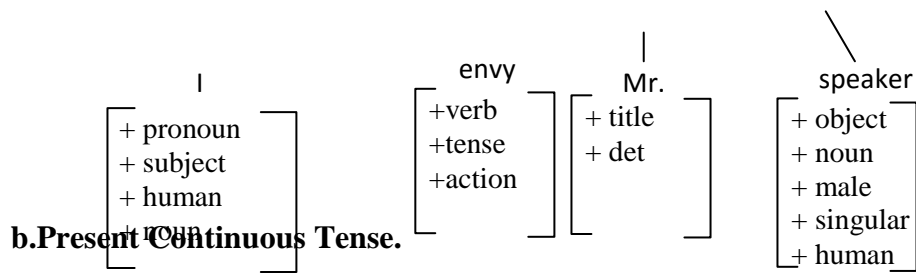
Note: Generally speaking, Hausa tenses have tense markers. However, the Hausa second future tense and the subjunctive tense do not have any tense markers. See Appendixes A and B for clarity.

4.2.5 Description of Markers of Tense (TM) in the English Language

a.Simple Present Tense

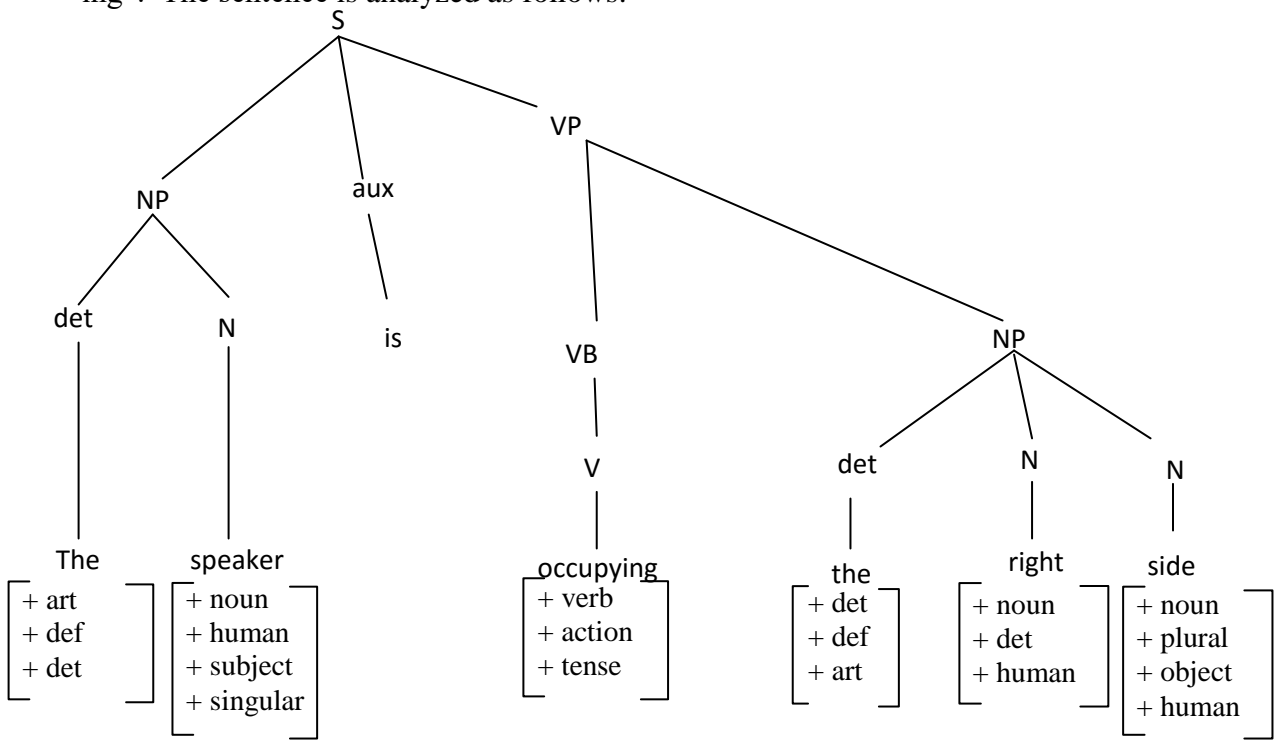
Sentence (1): I envy Mr. Speaker. Here, the tense marker is “o”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:





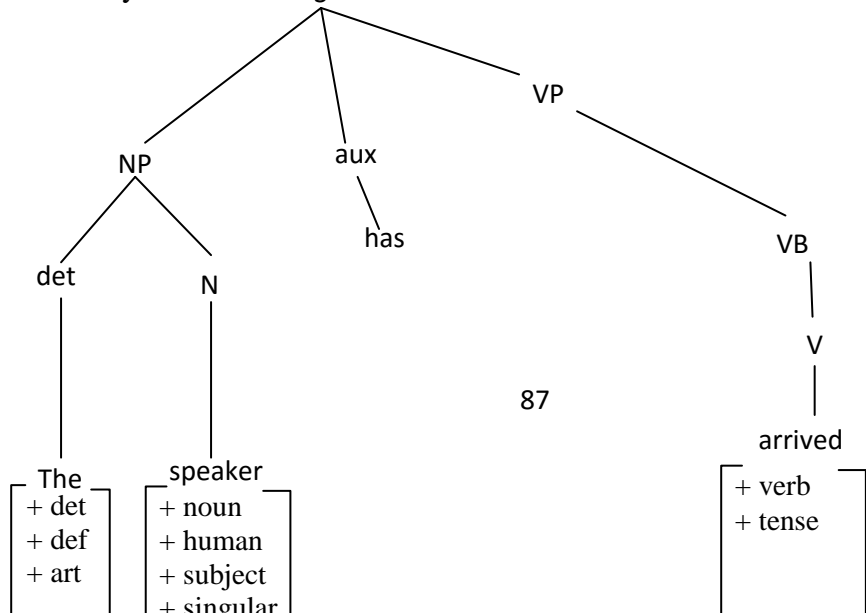
b. Present Continuous Tense.

Sentence (2): the speaker is occupying the right side. Here, the tense markers are “is” and “ing”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



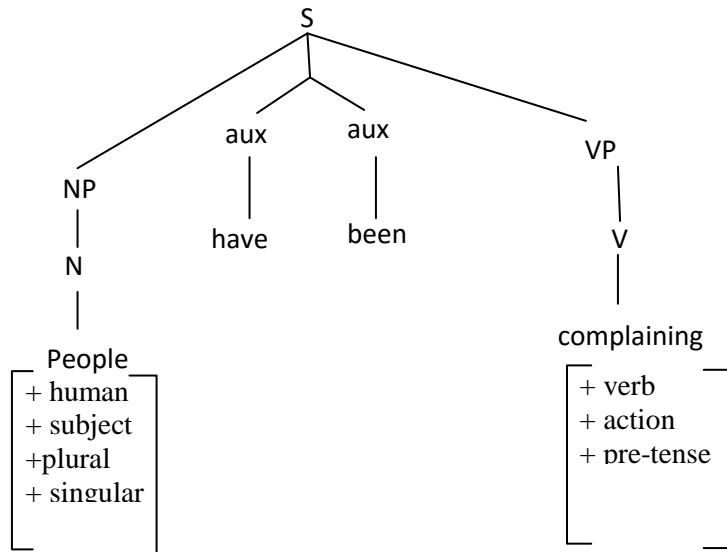
c. Present Perfect Tense

Sentence (3): The speaker has arrived. Here, the tense markers are “has” and “ed”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



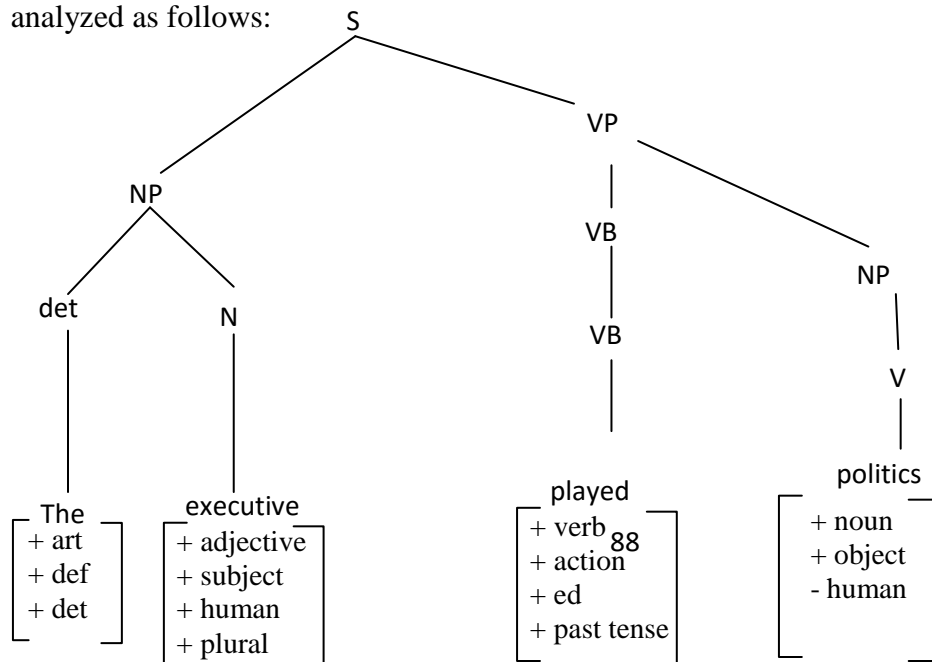
d. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Sentence (4): People have been complaining. Here, the tense markers are “have been” and “ing”. The sentence is analyzed as follow:



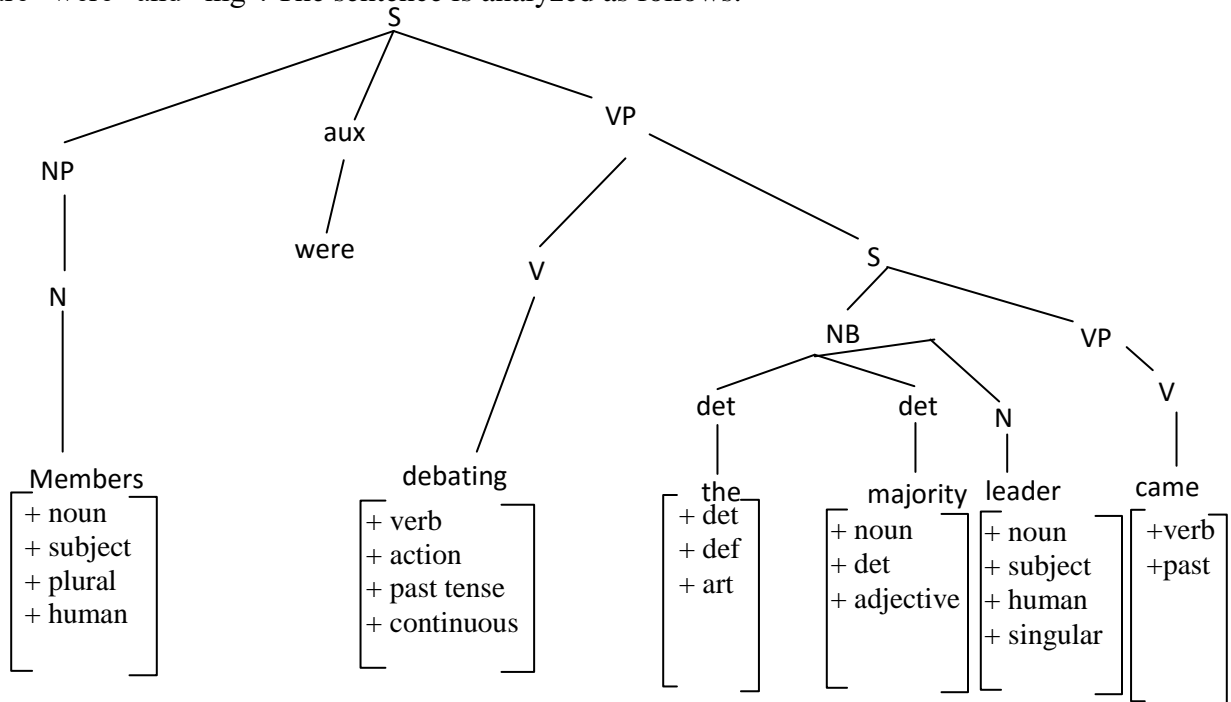
e. The Simple Past Tense

Sentence (5): The executive played politics. Here, the tense marker is “ed” The sentence is analyzed as follows:



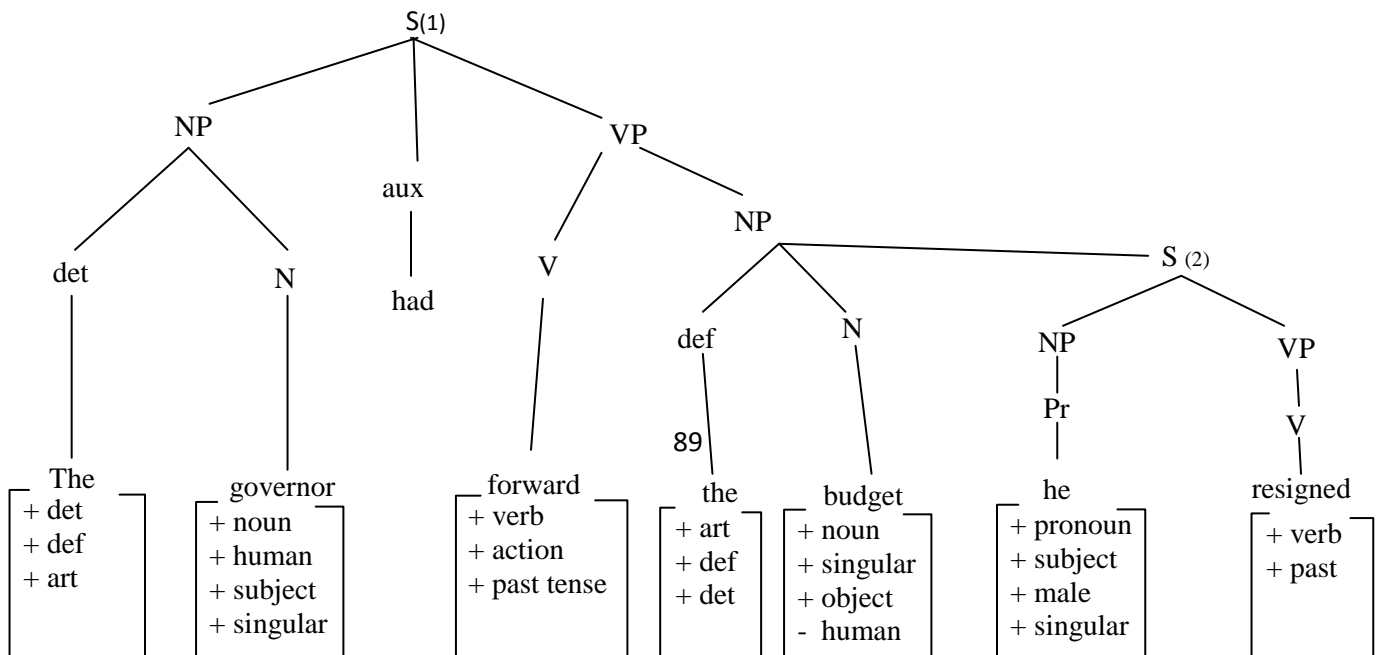
f. The Past Continuous Tense

Sentence (6): Members were debating when the majority leader came. Here, the tense markers are “were” and “ing”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



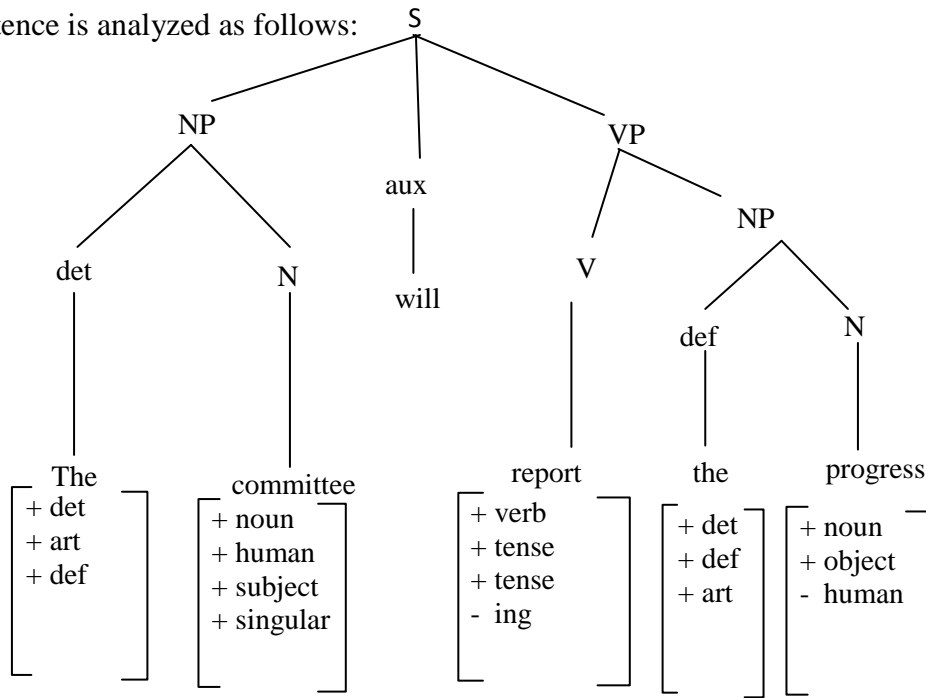
g. The Past Perfect Tense

Sentence (7): The governor had forwarded the budget before he resigned. Here, the tense markers are “had” and “ed”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



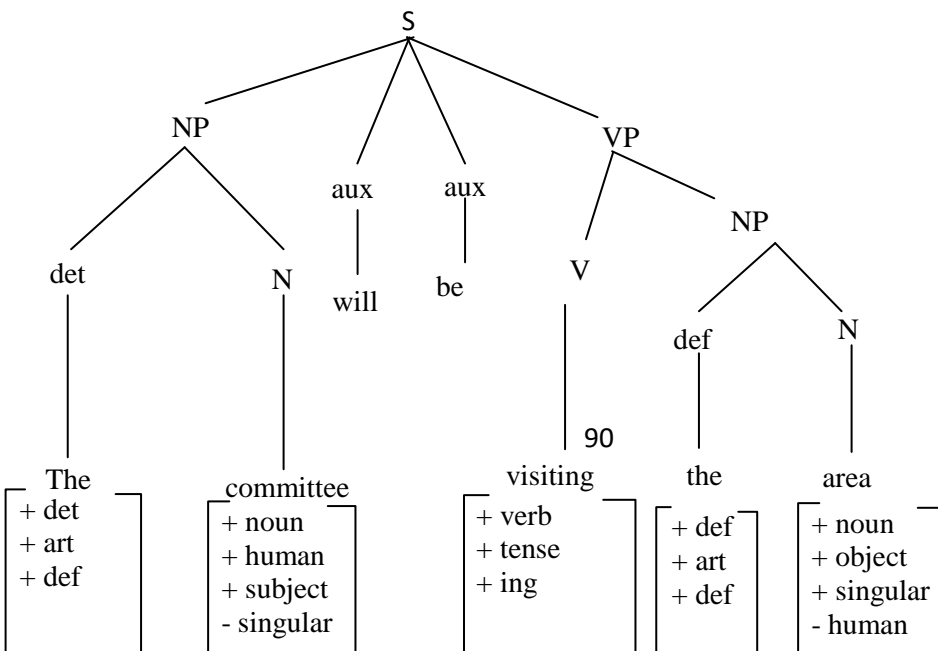
h. Simple Future Tense

Sentence (8): The committee will report the progress. Here, the tense marker is “will”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



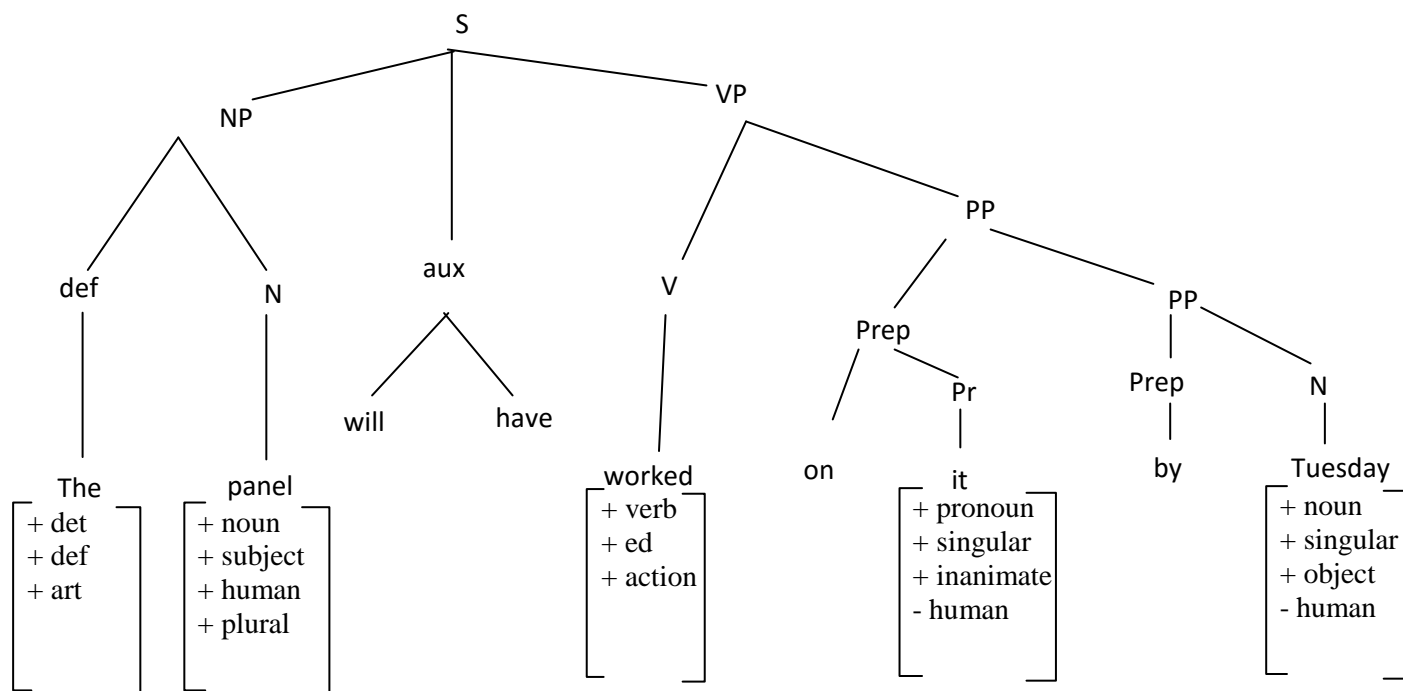
i. The Future Continuous Tense

Sentence (9): The committee will be visiting the area. Here, the tense markers are “will be” and “ing”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



j. The Future Perfect Tense

Sentence (10): The panel will have worked on it by Tuesday. Here, the tense markers are “will have” and “ed”. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



The sentences above show that there are two types of linguistic items marking tenses in English: front markers and end markers. The front markers include “is”, “has”, “have”, “have been”, “were”, “had”, “will”, “would”, “can”, “could” and other auxiliaries. They come before the verbs in English tenses to show tense. The end markers include “ing”, “ed”, “en” and o allomorph. Each of the two languages uses its peculiar items to mark tenses as intended by speakers or writers.

From the above, there is similarity between Hausa and English tense markers. For example, certain markers of tense in English and Hausa could be separated from carriers of tense. However, it should be pointed out that English tense markers such as “ing”, “ed”, “en”, etc are

attached to their verbs. Therefore, to say that some similarity exist between the markers of tense in both languages is to demonstrate their similar position in which they occur in sentences. Hence, in both languages, there are some occasions on which tense markers seem to occupy a similar position as they are placed side by side with the carriers of tense. Below are examples of such similarity:

Similarities between the Markers of Tense in English and Hausa

English Language Tenses	Markers of Tense in English	Hausa Language Tenses	Markers of Tense in Hausa
He prepares early for work.	S	Yakan fita aiki da wuri.	kan
They are reading a novel.	aux+ing	Suna karanta nobel.	na
We have done our best.	aux+en	Mun yi bakin kokarin mu.	n
She presented a good speech.	verb+ed	Taa gabatar da kyak-kyawan jawabi.	a
He will attend the party.	aux+verb	Za ya hararci bikin.	za

In English tenses, there are front and end tense markers. For example, some tense markers such as “are,” “have,” “will” etc. are placed before the carriers of tense (the verbs). Others such as “ing”, “ed”, “en” etc. are placed at the end of the carriers of tense. The table above indicates both front and end markers as posited by Raymond (2015). In Hausa language, however, the markers of tense are placed at the end of the carriers of tense, with the exception of the first future tense, where “za” is the marker of tense. It comes before the carriers of tense to signify futurity. Therefore, the similarities between markers of tense in both Hausa and English are in the positions occupied by both tense markers and carriers of tense. The markers appear sometimes before or after the carriers of tense in both Hausa and English.

Differences between the Markers of Tense (TM) in Hausa and English

As discussed earlier, the linguistic items marking tenses in the two languages are completely different. Although, the Hausa tense markers are usually separated from the carriers of tense, in

English, the end markers of tense as explained earlier are attached to the verbs used in English sentences. Consider the markers of tense in English and Hausa in the following English sentences translated into Hausa and their positions as given in this section:

English Tenses	Markers of Tense in English	Hausa Tenses	Markers of Tense in Hausa
He takes care of the children.	s	Yakan kula da yaran.	kan
They are debating now.	aux+ing	Suna tattaunawa yan zu.	Na
We have decided to go.	aux+ed	Mun yanke shawarar tafiya.	N
She complained on the matter.	ed	Taa ko ka akan lamarin.	A
You will address them.	aux	Zaka gabatar musu da bayani.	Za

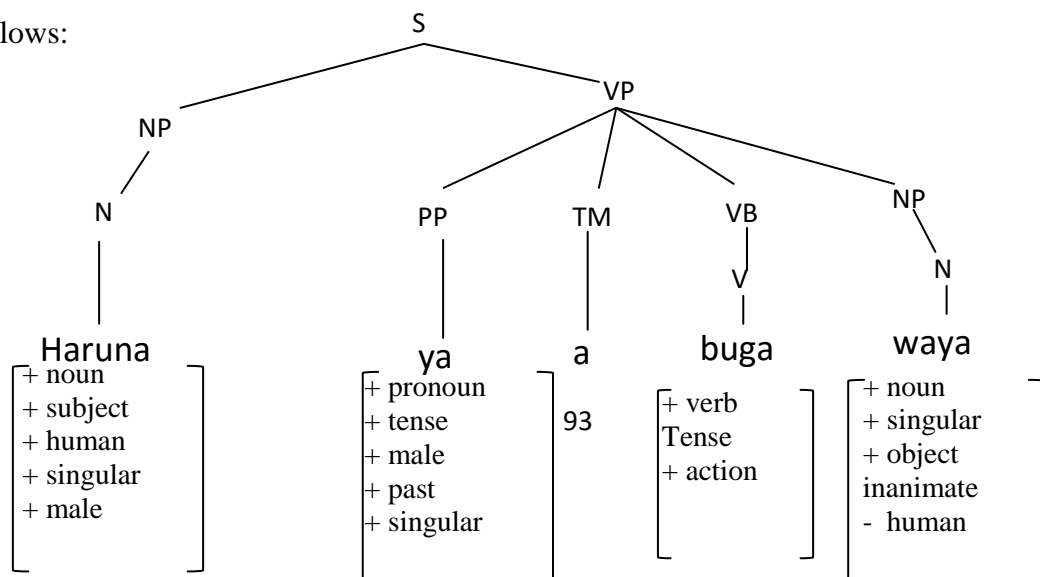
Research Question 4: What are the Tense Formation Processes in Hausa and English?

To answer this question, ten (10) Hausa sentences were analyzed. Another set of ten (10) English sentences were analyzed to demonstrate the process of tense formation. In both Hausa and English tense formation processes, the purpose of the analysis is to identify changes that occur in some of the elements functioning as carriers or markers of tense.

Description of Tense Formation Processes in Hausa and English

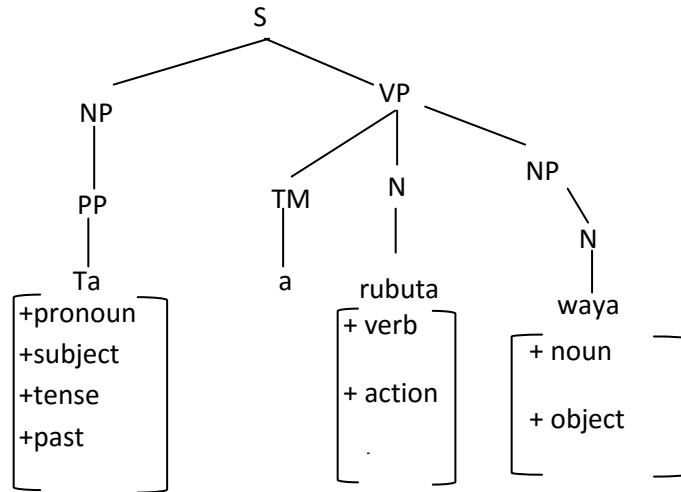
a.General Past Tense

Sentence (1): Haruna yaa buga waya (Haruna made a phone call). The sentence is analyzed as follows:



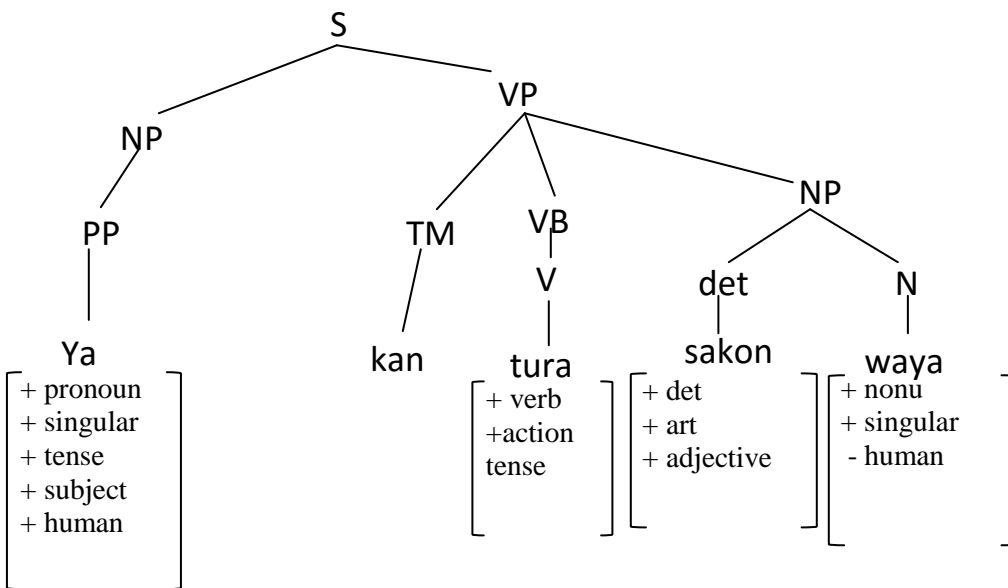
b.Relative Past Tense

Sentence (2): Taa amsa waya (She received a phone call). The sentence is analyzed as follows:



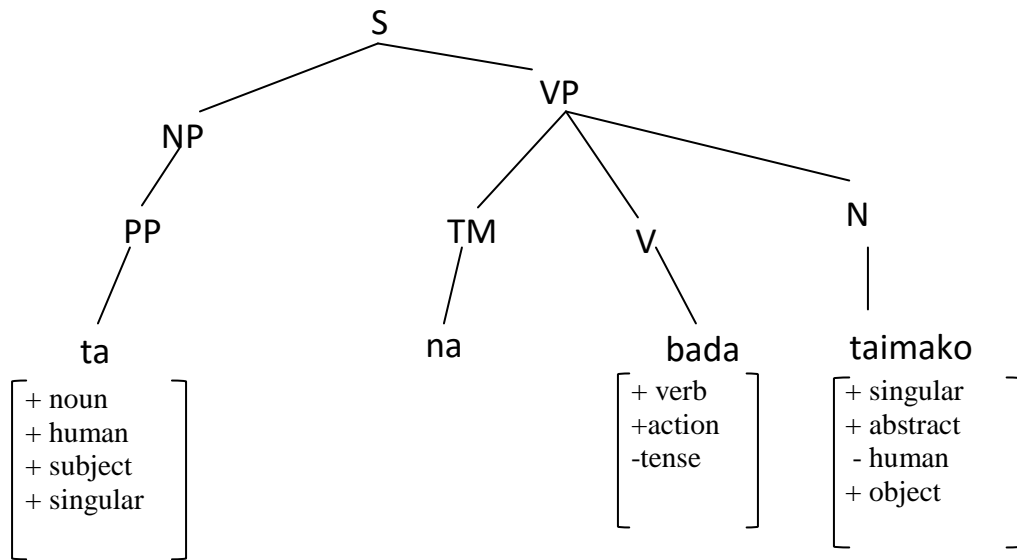
c.Simple Present Tense

Sentence (3): Yakan tura sakon waya. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



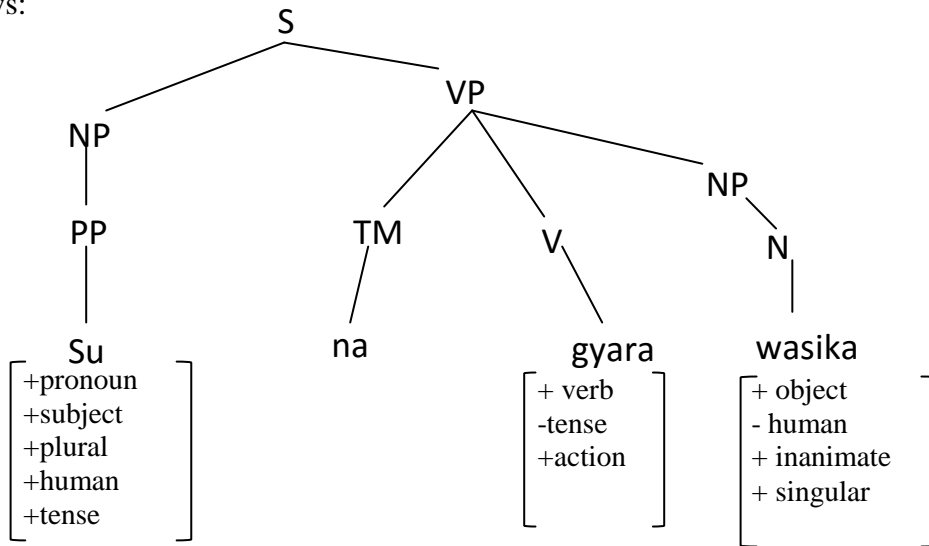
d.General Continuous Tense

Sentence (4): Tana bada taimako (She is offering some assistance). The sentence is analyzed as follows:



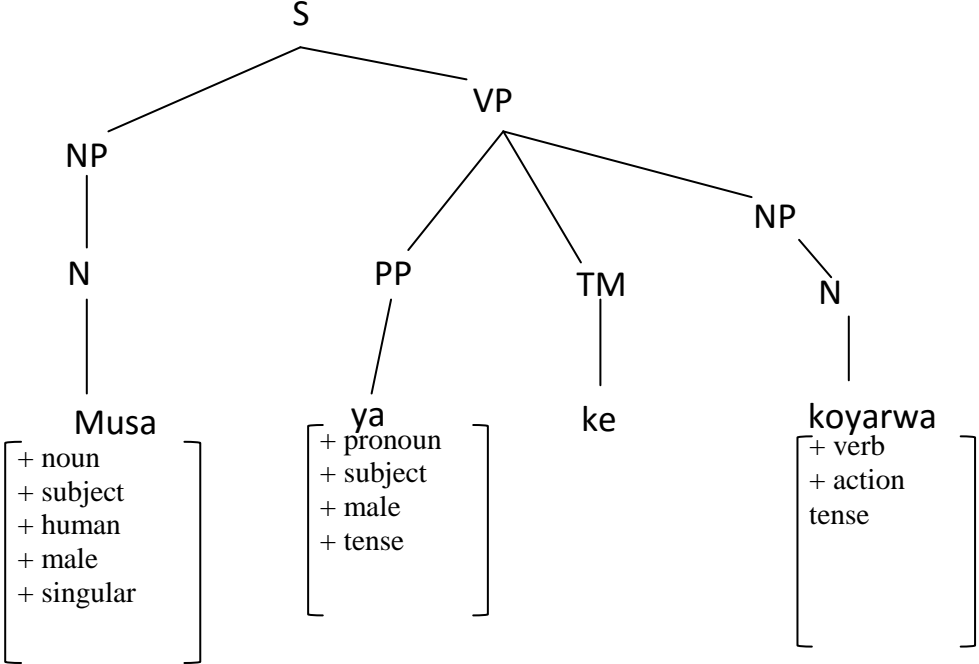
e.General Continuous Tense

Sentence (5): Suna gyara wasika (They are editing a letter). The sentence was analyzed as follows:



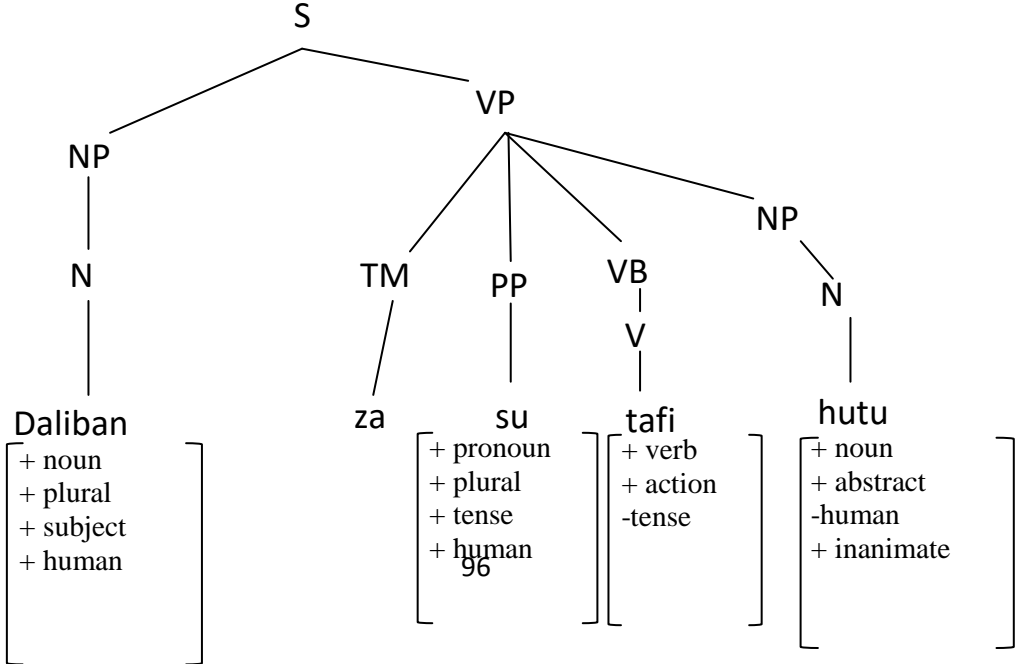
f. Relative Continuous Tense

Sentence (6): Musa ya ke koyarwa (Musa is the one teaching). The sentence is analyzed as follows:



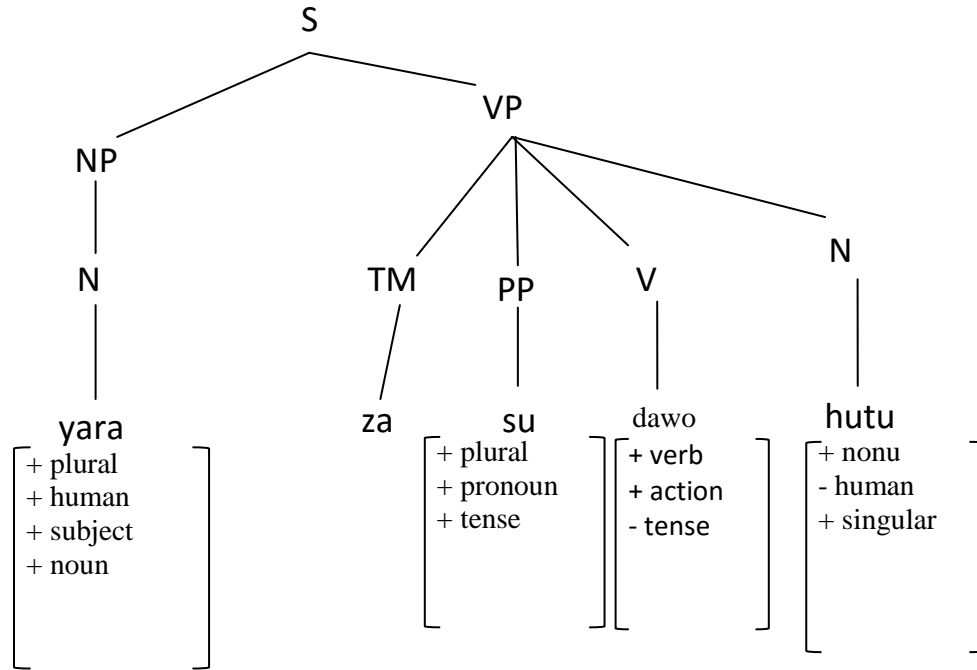
g. First Future Tense

Sentence (7): Daliban za su tafi hutu (Students will go for break). The sentence was analyzed as follows:



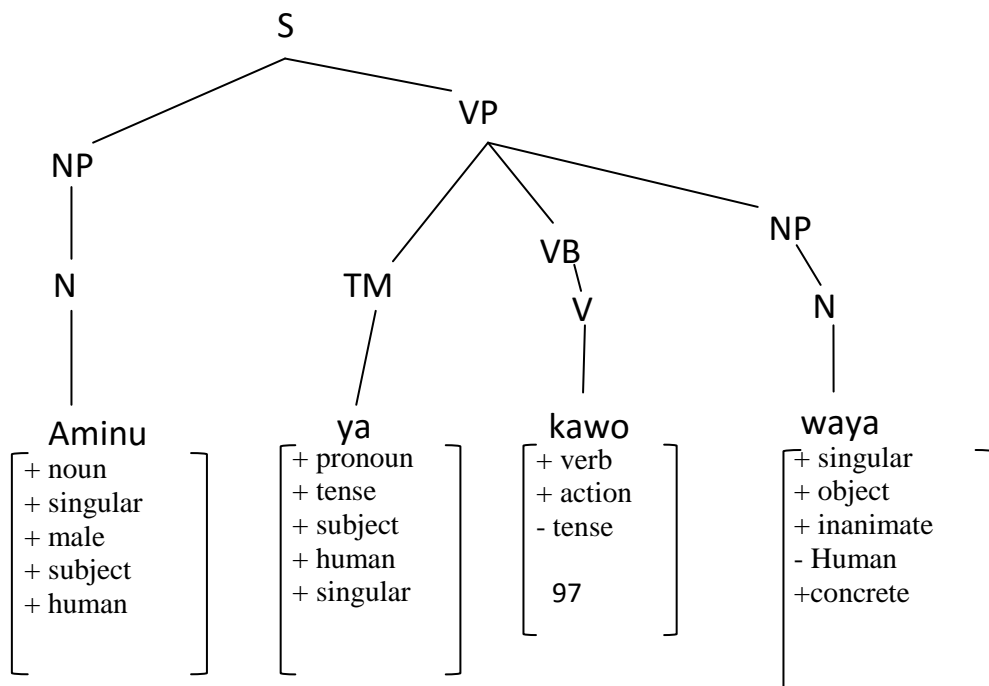
g. First Future Tense

Sentence (8): Yara za su dawo daga hutu (Students will resume). The sentence is analyzed as follows:



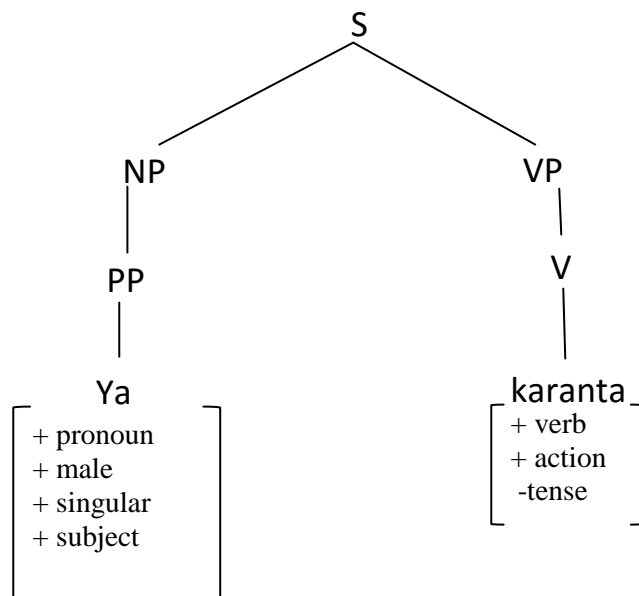
i. Second Future Tense

Sentence (9) Aminu ya kawo waya (Aminu should bring a phone). The sentence was analyzed as follows:



j. The Subjunctive Tense

Sentence (10): Ya karanta (let him read). The sentence can be analyzed as follows:



In the Hausa sentences above, the processes of tense formation are responsible for determining the use of both subject of the sentence and its respective pre-verbal pronouns. The processes determine carriers of tense and identify tense markers. For example, in the sentence, “Haruna ya a buga waya”, it could be deduced that the sentence is in the general past or what is referred to as simple past tense in English. The use of “Haruna” determines the pre-verbal pronoun that follows. The present continuous tense is “Haruna ya na buga waya”. The simple/habitual present tense is “Haruna yakan buga waya.” The simple future tense of the same sentence is “Haruna zai buga waya”. In all the sentences, the form of the verb “buga” does not change. Hence, “Haruna” ta buga waya” is wrong since “Haruna” is a name given to a male counterpart not a female.

The object of the sentence, “waya” does not equally change to signify formation processes. However, changes are noticed in the markers of tense as a result of tense formation. For instance, the past tense marker: “a,” changes in its present continuous tense to “na” due to

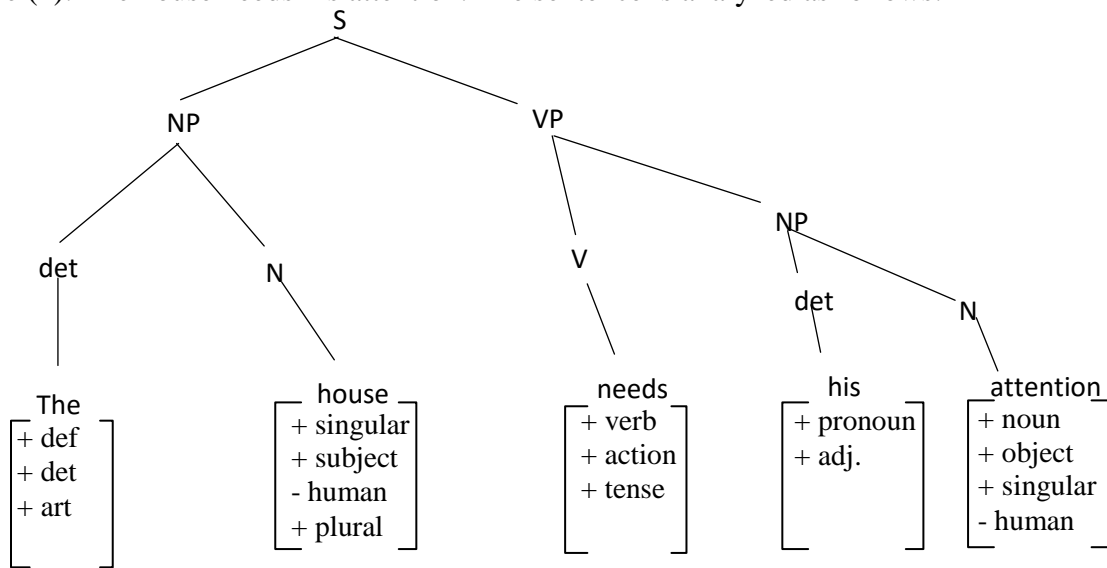
formation processes. Also, the pre-verbal pronoun “ya” and tense marker “kan” indicates simple present tense referring to a habitual action.

4.2.7 Description of Tense Formation Processes in English

Here, ten (10) sentences of English were extracted from the storybook “Points of Disorder” and were analyzed as follows:

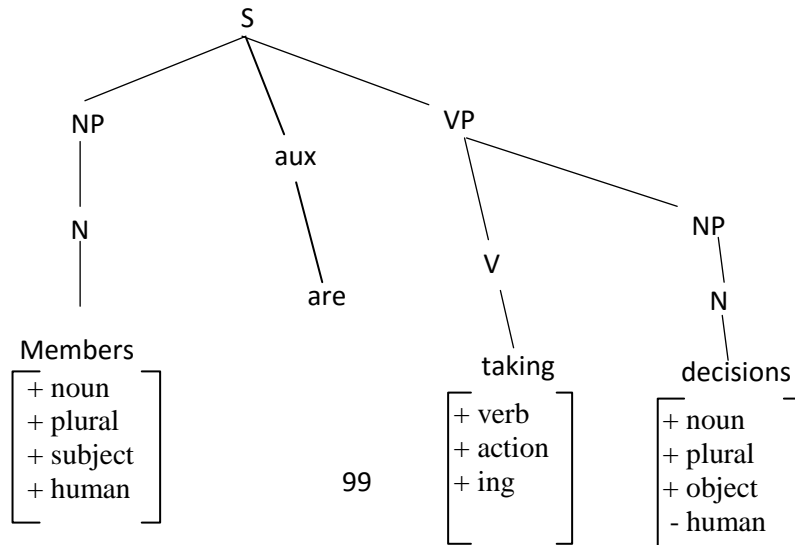
a. Simple Present Tense

Sentence (1): The house needs his attention. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



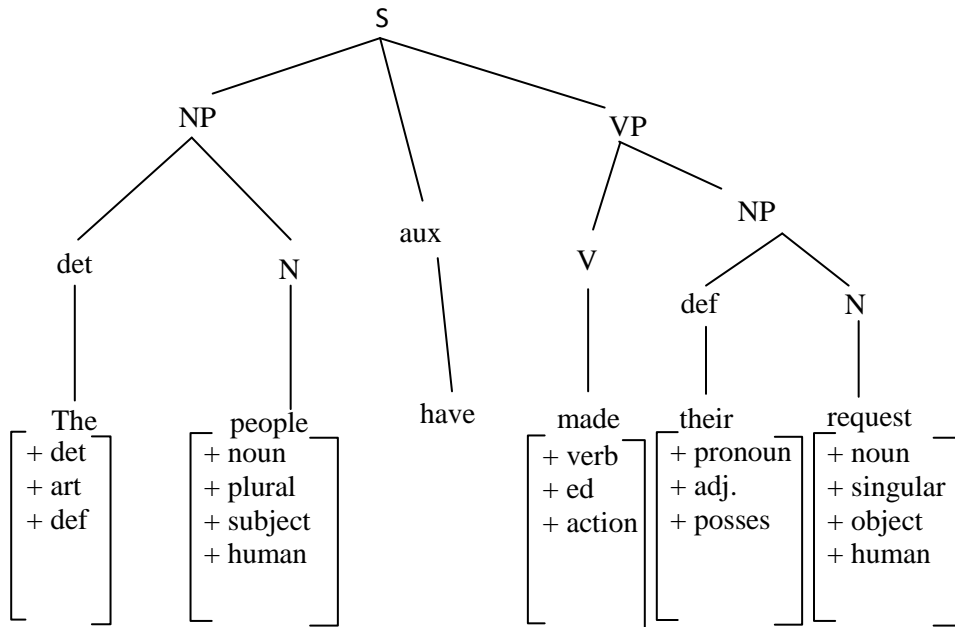
b. Present Continuous Tense

Sentence (2): Members are taking decisions. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



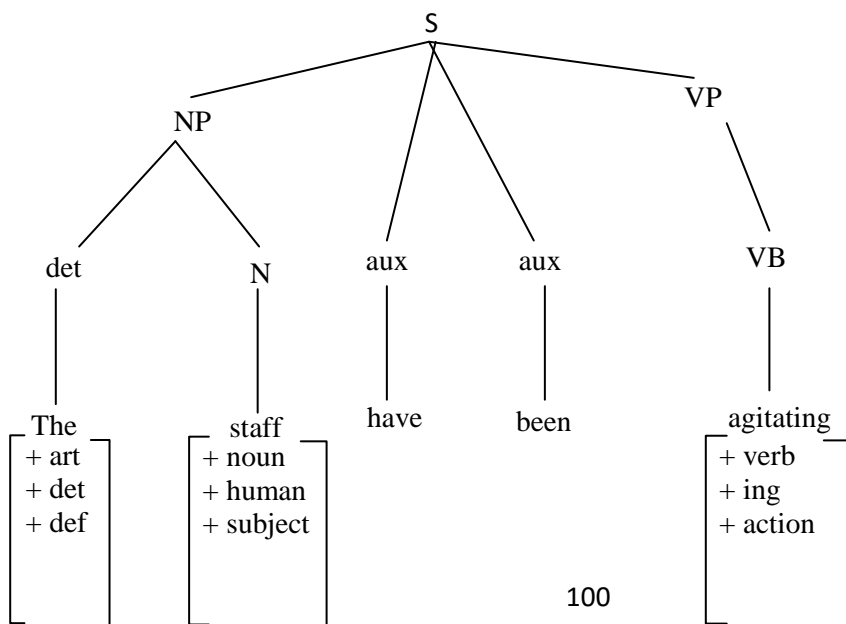
c. Present Perfect Tense

Sentence (3): The people have made their request. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



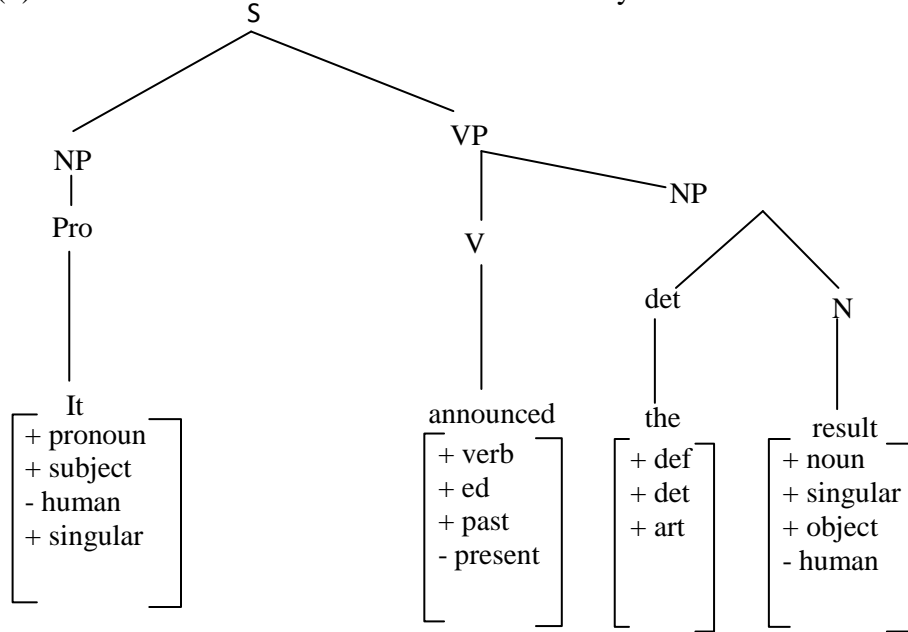
d. The Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Sentence (4): The staff have been agitating. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



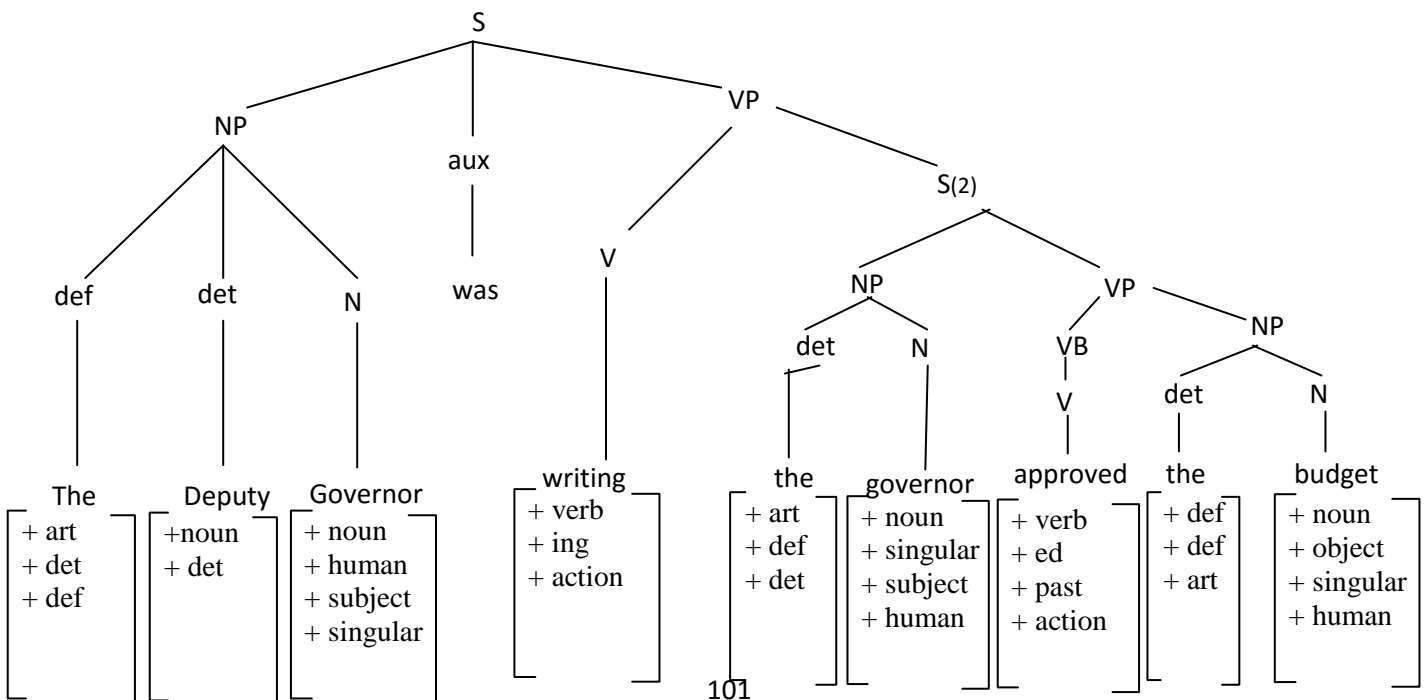
e. The Simple Past Tense

Sentence (5): It announced the result. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



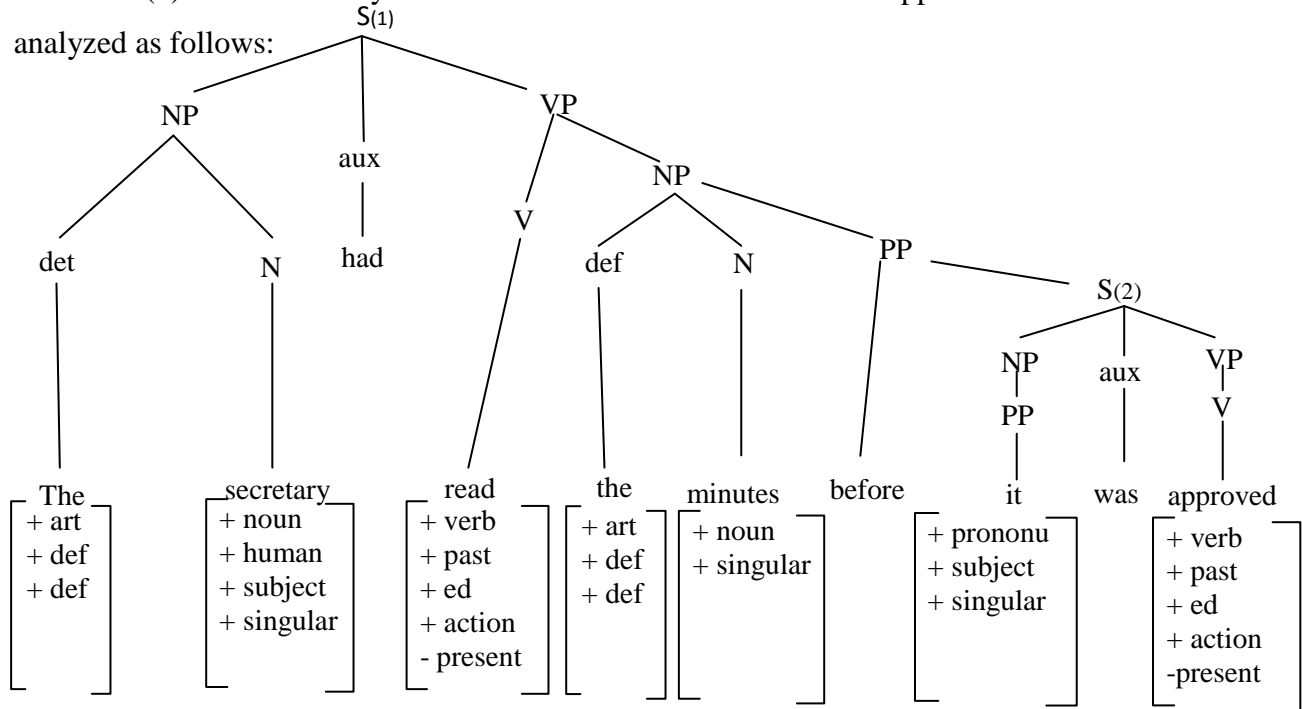
f. The Past Continuous Tense

Sentence (6): The deputy governor was writing when the governor approved the budget. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



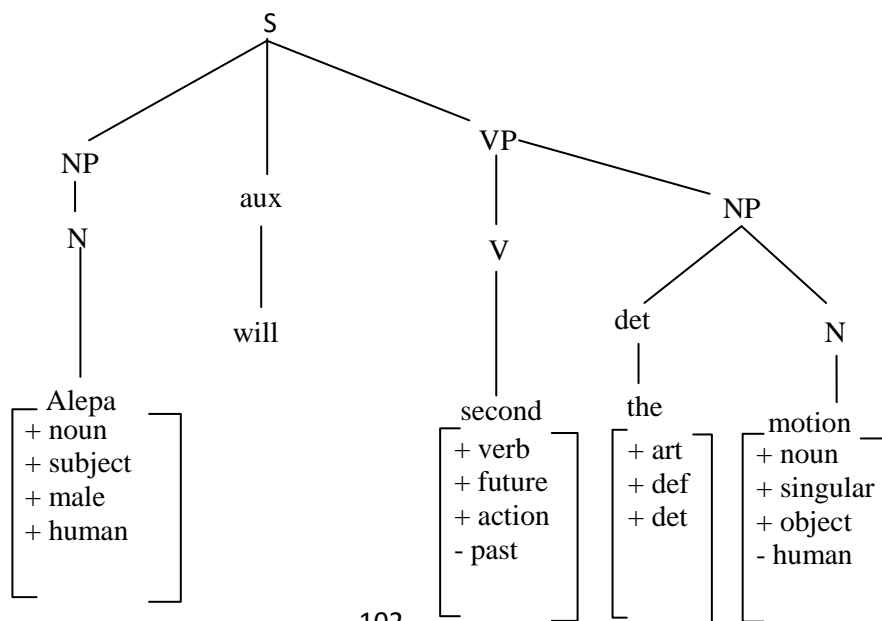
g. The Past Perfect Tense

Sentence (7): The secretary had read the minute before it was approved. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



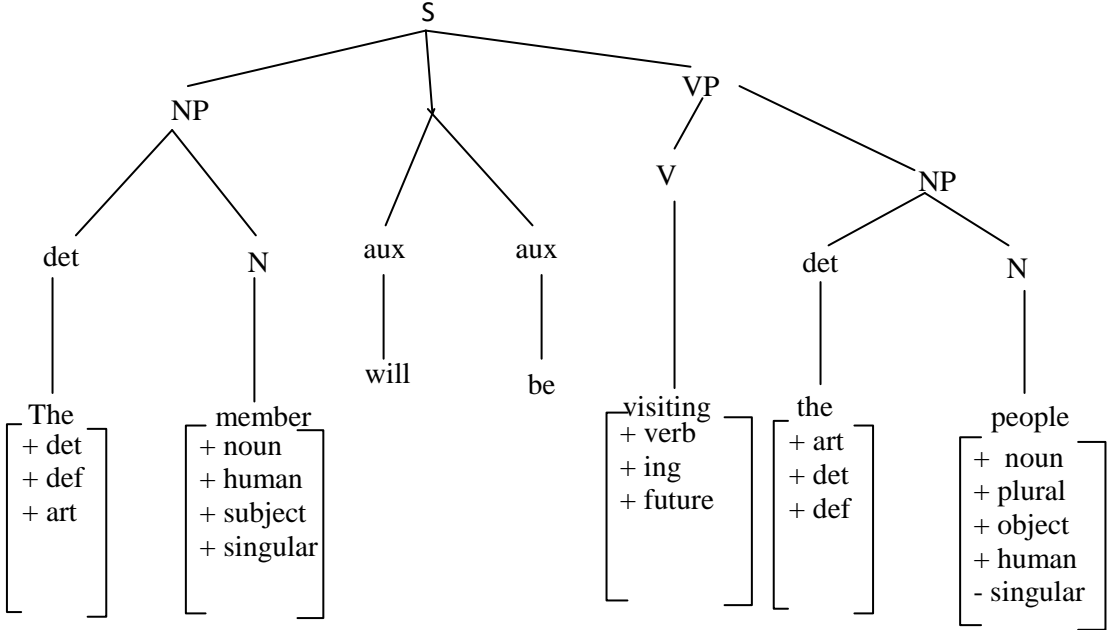
h. The Simple Future Tense

Sentence (8): Alepa will second the motion. Then sentence is analyzed as follows:



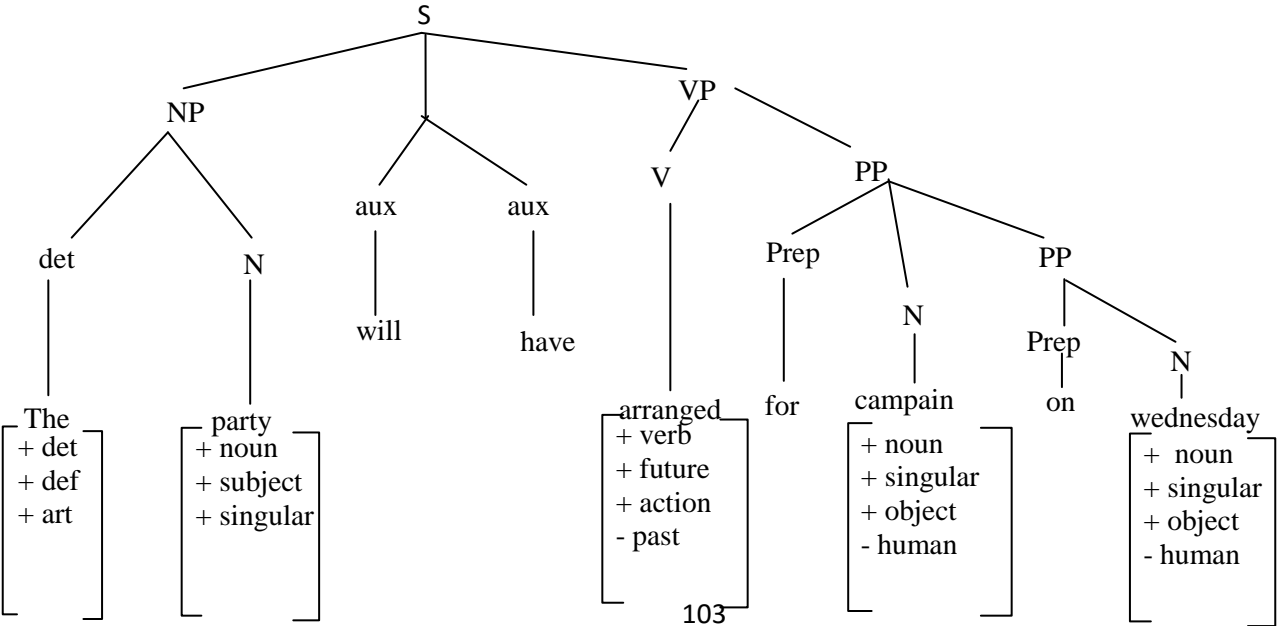
i. The Future Continuous Tense

Sentence (9): The Member will be visiting the people. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



j. The Future Perfect Tense

Sentence (10): The party will have arranged for complain on Wednesday. The sentence is analyzed as follows:



In the foregoing, the processes of tense formation in English is similar and different to some degree, considering the nature of carriers of tense and tense markers in both Hausa and English. In both, for any tense to be recognized, the subject as well as the verb of the sentence must be identified. This determines the tense formation processes. Whether the subject is male or female is not differentiated in English. However, in the Hausa language, the pre-verbal pronouns determine the process of tense formation. If a noun is used in the beginning of the sentence, the noun determines the pre-verbal pronoun that will come next. In the English language, if the subject is singular, the form of the verb must be singular to conform to the number of person in the sentence.

However, in the Hausa language, the pre-verbal pronoun takes the tense. The form of the verb and the tense markers may be similar irrespective of whether the subject is singular or plural. For example, the sentence “Yaran su na karatu” (the children are reading) and “Musa ya na karatu” (Musa is reading) have similar tense marker i.e. “na”. Nevertheless, in the English sentences above, the subject of the sentence affects the markers of tense. The form of the verb “reading”, is similar, but the markers are different. While “is” was used for singular subject, “are” was used with the plural subject. In English, the processes of tense formation determine when “s”, “ing”, “aux+ed”, “aux+been+ing”, “ed”, “en”, “past+aux +ed”, etc. will be used as markers of tenses. This is illustrated in the analysis of the English sentences using ten sentences from “Point of Disorder”. These examples were shown in appendixes C and D for clarity. Below is the hierarchy of difficulties established after the contrast between Hausa and English tense formation:

Table 4.2.5: Hierarchy of Difficulties

Inventory of Learning Tasks	Input Competence of Learners	Actual Learning Tasks
<p>Least difficult</p> <p>The Hausa-speaking learners of English are expected to learn basic elements used in marking the tenses of the English language. specifically, they will need to internalize how an ‘s’ marks the simple present when the subject of the sentence is in the third person singular. Apart from that, they need to learn the following: “ing”, “ed” and “en” which are used together with auxiliary in present continuous, past tense, past participle and past continuous tenses. These are end markers of tense.</p> <p>The learners need to learn how to use the front markers such as “is”, “was”, “can”, “could”, “should”, “will”, “would”, “has” etc. “have”, which are often used together with “ed” or “en” in the present perfect tense and past perfect tense respectively. The</p>	<p>The Hausa language has pre-verbal pronouns, which are placed side by side with the tense markers. Some of these markers include a, ke, kan, na, za, etc. although these are different from English tense markers, students will need to overcome their problems in learning the markers of tenses of English. The students have an understanding of the uses of has have is etc. They have some knowledge of how these are used in</p>	<p>The Hausa-speaking learners of English need to learn the use of auxiliaries of English. Since in the English language, they are the front markers of tense. In the Hausa language, the auxiliaries do not exist. This will prevent confusions that emanate as result of transfer/using of pronouns together with nouns in sentences. For example, in the sentence,</p> <p>Kabiru ya na rubuta wasika (Kabiru is writing a letter)</p> <p>“Kabiru” is the subject.’ Ya’ is a pre-verbal pronoun, which can take care of the name kabiru in the sentence, thus, the expression: “Ya na rubuta wasika” is grammatically correct. The ‘na’ is a tense</p>

<p>students are expected to identify English verbs as either regular or irregular before they can use the verb in its actual tense in a sentence. The reason is that the verb that carries the tense in English and so the relevant form of the verb in relation to the tense intended must be identified before it is put to use.</p> <p>Other markers of tense in English such as being+ing, been+ing, had+verb, or the simple past where ed is used to mark tense must be learnt by the students.</p>	<p>sentences.</p>	<p>marker denoting an action that is progressing at the moment of speaking.</p> <p>Hausa students learning English will need to learn what constitutes the subject of the sentence in English. The subject in English may be a noun or pronoun but not a combination of both. In Hausa language, use of both noun and pre-verbal pronouns is already illustrated and justified in the sentence analysis</p>
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<p>More Difficult</p> <p>Hausa speaking students are expected to identify the differences in the number of Hausa and English past tenses. They need to identify those tenses such as past continuous tense, past perfect tense etc. The use of the past perfect tense alone is correct when only one action is involved. For example, the tense used in the sentence below:</p> <p>*Moses had done the work yesterday.</p> <p>is wrong. There is only one action here, therefore, the correct tense is the simple past tense and not the past perfect tense. hence, the sentence is correct when it reads “Moses did the work yesterday”</p>	<p>The existence of the simple past tense facilitates the use of the English past tense among the learners.</p> <p>Although, there are variations in both number of the past tense and usage in Hausa and English, learners will need to pay serious attention to past tense and its subdivisions in English.</p>	<p>The Hausa-speaking students of English need to identify the simple past tense as the tense used only for actions that were started and completed before the moment of speaking.</p> <p>They should be able to use the past perfect tense when only two actions are involved. For example, “I had finished my dinner before the match was played last night” is a correct past perfect tense, while, “I had finished my dinner last night” is wrong. In the first sentence, where correct tense is used, the action of finishing the dinner took place before that of playing the match. In the second sentence, however, use of “had” could not be justified since only one action is involved. The students need to pay serious attention to this in their learning.</p>
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<p>Most Difficult</p> <p>The Hausa-speaking students are expected to learn the English present perfect tense, and present perfect continuous tenses and their forms. These forms are not clearly obtainable in the Hausa language and so, the students are likely to have difficulty using the two tenses.</p> <p>The students need to identify the differences in the use of present tense generally in English and specifically the present perfect tense. It is used for actions that are started and completed at the time of speaking. For example, “Musa went to school now” is wrong, although common among Hausa-speaking students of English. In the above, the tense used is simple past tense. Since the intention of the speaker at the moment is to tell where Musa is, the only correct tense is the present perfect “Musa has gone to school” which means the person is still there and has not come back.</p>	<p>Both English and Hausa languages have notion of present tense especially the present continuous tense. Using the present continuous tense does not seem to be difficult in the English of the Hausa-speaking learners. For example, “I am playing football with friends” the Hausa version of which is “Ina wasan kwallo tareda abokaina”. The use of present continuous tense in the two languages seems to be similar. Both use tense markers to show that an action is still going on.</p>	<p>The Hausa-speaking students of English need to learn the present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense. These tenses do not completely exist in the Hausa language. Therefore, teachers may need to guide learners in the use of the tenses through various sentence patterns, reporting experiences, describing events and explaining some processes in both speech and in writing. In lower/junior classes, pictures and illustrations may be used to reinforce understanding of the tenses among learners.</p> <p>The present perfect continuous tense needs to be taught to the students also. The students will need to appreciate how the tense works. The tense is often applied to refer to actions that have commenced long before the moment of speaking and will continue even after the moment of speaking.</p>
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4.3 Identification of Similarities and Differences

From the description and analysis of English and Hausa data collected in the foregoing, it is clear that Hausa-speaking students of English are likely have some difficulties in using the English language tenses. The variation in the distribution of present tense in the two languages could be a source of difficulty among the learners. Since in the Hausa language, the present perfect tense does not exist, it is likely that Hausa students will transfer a particular tense that will represent the present perfect tense into English. As a result, use of the simple past tense in place of the present perfect is common among especially learners of English as a second language (Abubakar 2006).

Furthermore, the two languages have both simple present tense and present continuous tense. They also have simple past tense each. There is also another similarity in the area of simple future used for indicating future actions. At these levels all, some clear differences are noticeable. For example, the present perfect continuous tense does not exist in Hausa. The past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense do not equally exist in the Hausa language. The English language, according to Raymond (2015), has the future perfect and future perfect continuous tenses. These are non-existent in the Hausa language. Some differences in linguistic items marking tense formation in the two languages are equally observed. In Hausa, “a”, “n”, “ka”, “kan”, “na”, “ke”, “za”, are tense markers, while in the English language, “ing”, “s”, “ed” and other auxiliaries such as “en” etc. are the markers of tense.

4.4 Findings of the Study

In view of the comparative analysis of English and Hausa tenses, the following findings were made:

- a- It was discovered that there are similarities in the distributions of both English and Hausa tenses. Both languages have at least five (5) major forms of tenses in common:

the simple present tense, present continuous, simple past tense, past continuous tense and the simple future tense. These five tenses are used for indicating similar times in both languages:

- b- Differences in the major forms of tenses between Hausa and English are noticed. For example, while English has four divisions of past tense: simple past tense, past continuous tense, past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense. The Hausa language has only two past tenses: general past tense and relative past tense. For the present tense, English has four divisions i.e. simple present, present continuous, present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense., while the Hausa language has two divisions of present tense: general continuous tense and relative continuous tense. This affects the number of the future tense also. The English language has four future tenses: simple future, future continuous, future perfect tense and future perfect continuous tense. However, the Hausa language has two divisions of future tense: the first future tense and second future tense:
- c- It was found that both Hausa and English have carriers of tense. In the Hausa language, they are known as pre-verbal pronouns. The Hausa tense is therefore not indicated by the verb used in a sentence. The pre-verbal pronoun functions as the subject of the sentence. In some cases, it is used together with nouns in the beginning of a sentence as a compound subject (Abubakar 2006). Examples are given in appendixes A and B for clarity:
- d- In the study, the carriers of tense in English are detected, demonstrated and examined. It was found that verbs are the carriers of tense in English. It was observed that in English, pronouns never carry any tense. English pronouns are simply used as subjects or objects in sentences. Raymond (2015) indicates this as presented in appendix D.
- e- It was found that for each language, there are linguistic items marking various tenses. The Hausa tense markers are separated from carriers of tense. The markers of tense come after the carriers of tense. Some of them include “a”, “n”, “ka”, “kan”, “na”, “ke”, etc. as shown in appendixes A and B from the works of Galadanci (2010) and Babajo

(2006). They are separated from pre-verbal pronouns which function as carriers of tense in the language:

- f- It was discovered the English language has two types of tense markers: front markers and end markers. The end markers of tense are sometimes attached to the carriers of tense i. e. the verb of the sentence. Examples of these include “ing,” “s,” “ed,” “en” etc as shown from the work of Raymond (2015) in appendix D. In some cases, certain tense markers such as “is”, “were”, “are”, “will”, “shall”, “can”, etc. are used before the carriers of tense i. e. the verbs. They are the front markers of tense. Both modal and primary auxiliaries are not attached to the verbs. They simply accompany the main verbs to show the time needed:
- g- Finally, it was found that the Hausa language has the subjunctive tense. This tense does not indicate any specific time. The subjunctive tense is more or less equivalent to the English imperative sentences. Such sentences are rendered sometimes as polite requests or commands.

4.5 Summary of the Major Findings

This research explored the tenses of both English and Hausa at four levels: distribution of tense, carriers of tense, markers of tense and tense formation processes. Below is the summary of the major findings:

- 1- Both English and Hausa have five (5) similar characteristics in their major forms of tenses. They have some tenses commonly used for indicating similar actions. These include simple past tense, past continuous tense, simple present tense, present continuous tense and simple future tense:
- 2- Both languages differ considerably in a number of ways. This includes both the major forms of the tenses and linguistic items carrying tenses. For example, the carriers of tense in Hausa include “na”, “ya”, “mu”, “mun”, ‘su”, “sun’, ‘ku”, “kun’, ‘ta’, etc. In English, however, the verb of the sentence is usually the carrier of tense. All main verbs such as go, come, speak etc. carry the tense in English:

- 3- Both languages have linguistic items marking their tenses. For example, in Hausa tenses, the tense markers include “a”, “kan”, “na”, “ke”, “za”, “n”, etc. This is shown in appendix A for clarity, while in English, tense markers may be placed before or after the carriers of tense. For instance, “will” comes before the verb, while “ing” is attached to the end of the verb:
- 4- Both languages have certain tenses that are absent or present. For instance, in English, there are present perfect tense, present perfect continuous tense, past perfect tense, past perfect continuous, future perfect tense and future perfect continuous tense. They all exist in English. However, they do not completely exist in Hausa. However, only the Hausa language has the relative continuous tense, second future tense and the subjunctive tense. Such differences according to Abubakar (2006) and Andrew (2014) may bring about some degree of difficulties such as overgeneralization, confusion and transfer:
- 5- Both languages seem to maintain a degree of similarity in their process of tense formation. In each of the two languages, tenses are formed through the subject-verb order. For example, in “He read it here yesterday”, “he” is the subject, while “read” is both the verb and carrier of tense. This is similar to the Hausa version of the same sentence: “Ya a karanta shi a nan jiya”. Here, “ya” is both the subject and carrier of tense, while “karanta” is the verb carrying no any tense at all. This shows the existence of the subject-verb order in both Hausa and English tenses.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

The result of the findings shows that both English and Hausa languages have some similarities in the distribution of tenses. This is noticeable in some tenses. This includes simple present tense and present continuous tense in both languages. Having compared the languages using transformational generative grammar (TGG), the findings reveal that the two languages use both simple present and present continuous tenses in similar ways. However, the realization rules differ in both.

For example, in the Hausa simple present tense, the pre-verbal pronoun carries the tense, while the tense marker “kan” is used to indicate a habitual action. Consider the sentence below:

“Ya kan karanta jarida”. the English version of which is

“He reads newspapers”

In the above, “ya” is a pre-verbal pronoun functioning as both the subject of the sentence and the carrier of tense. The tense marker “kan” follows it. In the sentence, “karanta” functions as the verb of the sentence. “Jarida” is the object of the sentence that suffers the action of the subject. In English, the realization rules dictates that for habitual actions, an “s” must be used for the third person singular when used as the subject of the sentence. Consider English counterpart of the above sentence:

“He reads the newspapers”.

In this sentence, “he” is a pronoun functioning as the subject of the sentence. The verb “reads” is the carrier of tense and the “s” in the verb “read” marks the tense intended by the writer or speaker. This is to show a habitual action. Therefore, the verb carries the tense in English. In addition, the findings reveal that for present continuous tense in Hausa, “na” is used as the tense marker, irrespective of the number in the subject of a sentence and the gender. Examples are : “su na karatu”, “ta na karatu”, “mu na karatu”, “ya na karatu” etc. In each case, ‘na’ is the tense marker showing a present continuous tense. While in the English language, auxiliaries such as “is”, “are” “were”, “can”, etc. function as tense markers: “is” and “are” markers of tense. Use “is” or “are” in English depends on whether the subject of the sentence is singular or plural. The English main verbs are the carriers of tenses. For example, “is” is used with a singular subject eg. “She is a student”, while “are” is used with the tense marker “ing” for expressing the present continuous tense e.g. “she is reading”. This shows that English tenses are inflected in the main verbs to show the time of an action. Some scholars such as Bdiya (2011) illustrate this.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that some tenses of the English language such as present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense are non-existent in the Hausa language.

Absence of certain items in the native language according to Mathew (2014) brings about confusion and transfer of elements from the source language into the target language. For example, Abubakar (2006) posits that using the simple past in the place of present perfect tense may be attributed to some confusion emanating from inter-language factors and language transfer. This accounts for the possibility of transfer of Hausa simple past into English to refer to an action that is stated and completed at the moment of speaking. This also accounts for wrong expressions such as “Moses went to the Department of English” when the intention is to show that Moses is still there and is not yet back.

Similarly, the findings reveal that the use of nouns together with pre-verbal pronouns as subject of the sentence is acceptable in the Hausa grammar. The pre-verbal pronoun is the carrier of tense. It can be used with or without a noun. In the English sentences, however, pronouns are used as either subjects or objects. They do not carry tense. Consider the two sentences below;

Musa ya na karanta labari.

Musa is reading a story or He is reading a story, but not

*Musa he is reading a story

In the first sentence, Musa is a noun as well as the subject of the sentence. When it is removed, the sentence becomes “Ya na karanta labari”. Here, “ya” is the subject of the sentence and a pre-verbal pronoun for the third person singular. It is also the carrier of tense. While “na” is tense marker, “karanta” is the verb and does not imply any tense. For example, “zai karanta labari” is in the first future tense. The form of the verb does not change to signify future tense. In the above, “labari” is the object of the sentence. However, in the English equivalent, “Musa” is the subject of the sentence, but not the linguistic item carrying the tense. The verbal phrase “is reading” carries the present continuous tense. The “ing” is simply the tense marker (Raymond 2015). This dissimilarity informs why some students of English use both English nouns and pronouns in sentences as subjects (Abubakar 2006). Consider the example below:

Musa ya na karanta labari. translated into English as :

*Musa he is reading a story.

Moreover, the findings reveal that the Hausa tense markers such as “a”, “n”, “na”, “ka”, “za”, “ke”, etc are separated from the pre-verbal pronouns, which carry the tenses. For example, in the two sentences above, “ya” in the first sentence is the carrier of tense and “na” is the tense marker. Separation of carriers of tense from tense markers is observed under some circumstances in English. For example, in the verbal phrase “is reading,” the tense markers are “is” and “ing”. In English, unlike in the Hausa language, the front tense marker “ing” is attached to the verb to indicate that the action is still going on at the moment of speaking. This is another difference in the tense systems of the two languages. Hence, the table below describes some teaching/learning activities that could be used to remedy the situation:

Remedial Package for Teaching English Tenses

To help Hausa-speaking learners understand and use English tenses effectively, it is expected that language teachers will:

- Understand the principles of the descriptive model: Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) model and Transformational Generative Grammar for adequate description of the tenses of English and Hausa:
- Explain the overall objectives of the contrast to learners and after that, ask learners to find written texts. Preferably, any two storybooks could be used: one from Hausa and another from English, where the tenses of both languages are properly used in copious sentences. These are the resources that could be used for analysis:
- Make the learners aware of the need to identify the aspects of tense present and aspects absent in the two languages, finally, point out, and explain the possible learning difficulties. This process needs to be explained to the learners as fully as possible. The next is to do the analysis as follows:
 - a- Help learners understand Hausa and English tenses by their names through well written sentences on the chalkboard:
 - b- Get learners to find examples of each tense from the two storybooks written in both English and Hausa:
 - c- Allow the learners to compare the distribution of the tenses in the two

languages to identify if there are both similarities and differences including tenses present and/or absent in the two languages:

- d- Guide the learners to underline carriers of tense and tense markers in the sentences selected for analysis from Hausa and English through written and spoken texts:
- e- Use written report activities to teach English tenses. Here, a student will be asked to read a report of an event to the class in Hausa language. At the end, all the students are allowed to translate the report into English. This will give insights into the cases of confusion and transfer in the use of tenses in Hausa and English:
- f- Guide learners on the linguistic items carrying tenses in both English and Hausa and use a table to show similarities and differences:
- g- Demonstrate the items that mark tenses in the two languages and provide a table to practically illustrate similarities and differences in tense makers and their respective positions:
- h- Write narrative and expository essays on the board in English and allow the students to translate essays into English. Pay particular attention to the use of English tenses and finally give feedback.
- i- Use some activities in the classroom to demonstrate differences in past tense and present tenses and their subdivisions, show possible areas where there are relationships in tenses denoting present and past actions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, the conclusions reached and their teaching implications. The chapter ends with recommendations based on the findings and suggestions on areas, where further studies on tense formation could be undertaken.

5.2 Summary

The present study compared and contrasted English and Hausa tense systems. With the objectives of the contrast in mind, two texts were selected: “Points of Disorder” for the tenses of English and “Dana Sani Keyace” for the Hausa tenses. In each language, thirty (30) sentences were selected as a sample. The analysis of the sentences was done using the Chomskyan Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) as revised by Tomori (1977). Using the model, each set of thirty sentences in both English and Hausa were contrasted at three levels: carriers of tense, tense markers and tense formation processes.

In the study, the Gradman’s Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) model was used. The three levels outlined by the model were followed: describing the tense system of each language, detecting the aspects of tense present and absent in each of the two languages and pointing out as well as explaining the possible learning difficulties. The possible learning difficulties are based on the similarities and differences in the two languages in the area of tense formation compared in the study.

In the overall findings, it was discovered that the Hausa tense system is unique. The tenses of Hausa language are inflected in the pre-verbal pronouns. In all the cases, the pre-verbal pronouns function as the subjects of the sentence. In English, however, the results show that the verbs or verbal phrases are the carriers of tense. For marker of tense, the findings reveal that the markers of tense in Hausa are separated from the carriers of tense. Unlike in the English tenses, the markers of tenses are attached sometimes to the carriers of tense. Sometimes, they are separated from them. For example, “ing,” “ed,” “en” etc. are not separated from the verbs in

which they occur. The writer or speaker attaches them to the verbs to signify the particular tense needed. However, English auxiliaries such as “is”, “will” etc. are separated from carriers of tense in English. Other auxiliaries such “are,” “were,” “can,” “could,” “shall,” etc. come before the carrier of tense in English i.e. the verb.

From the contrast of Hausa and English tenses, the researcher has found that Hausa-speaking learners’ of English need to understand the tenses of the language absent in Hausa for proper communication. This is good for teachers and more importantly all second language learners, who have problems with the tense system of English. Mathew (2014) posits that “ *the teacher, who has made a comparison of a foreign language with a native language of students will know better the characteristic features under contrast, identify what the real problems are and then provide for teaching them in the classroom.*”

5.3 Implications

Based on the findings of this study, the far-reaching implications for students and teachers of English as a second language have been put forward as follows:

5.3.1 The Language Teacher and the Classroom

The major concerns of this study are the similarities and differences in tense formation in Hausa and English. Both similarities and differences were detected and analysed. Through the analyses, language teachers could bring out possible difficulties in the use of the English tenses as a result of their similarities and differences with Hausa counterparts. Language teachers especially in the Hausa-speaking community will need to make use of some activities in the teaching of English tenses. For example, the teacher can use narrative and expository texts in Hausa and English to show students how the tenses of their language differs at the four levels from those of English. The teachers need to guide students to examine the distribution of tenses, carriers of tenses, tense markers etc.

During the analysis, teachers need to use transformational generative grammar to analyse the tenses from the written texts. The aim is to see how students could use tenses of English to communicate effectively in both speech and writing. Based on the submissions of Mathew

(2014), comparison of English tenses with those of the learners' language can adequately respond to pedagogical problems.

Furthermore, comparative use of report writing, narrative writing, extemporaneous speech delivery, expository writing from Hausa into English could be used at different grade levels. This can help reveal some English tenses that are confused for the Hausa tenses especially in written and spoken English. The teacher is expected to allow individual students to report past events verbally noticing how they use the tenses of English. Students may of course be asked to narrate orally stories that were read in the class. During this oral presentation, other students are asked to pay serious attention to tenses as the student/narrator uses them. The essence is to monitor effective use of tense in the target language. This could facilitate the teaching of the aspects thorough both writing and speaking in the classroom.

5.3.2 Implications for Students Preparing for SSS Examinations

The Senior Secondary School (SSS) students preparing for final-year examinations need to identify the similarities and differences between the tenses of their language (s) and those of English. In each component of writing or speech in the SSS classroom situations, language teachers in the Hausa-speaking community need to emphasize the correct use of English tenses among the learners. This could be done through exercises to avert mass failure. For example, the questions on tenses of the English language used in past examinations papers may be considered for their relevance in the classroom. The reason for this is obvious since during WAEC/NECO examination students' knowledge of tenses is tested.

From experience, WAEC/NECO examination questions require students to classify and name the tenses used in passage(s). Language teachers could compare tenses used in narrative texts in Hausa and English to expose the similarities and differences to the learners. The contrast should include detection of tense aspects present or absent in each of the two languages. This will help the students draft well-written texts devoid of tense errors in public and other allied examinations.

5.3.3 Major Contributions of this Study to Existing Knowledge

There are several contributions made by this study to the existing knowledge. For example, in the study, similarities in the major forms of tenses of Hausa and English are detected clearly. This includes differences as well. For example, simple present tenses, present continuous tense, simple past tense, past continuous tense and simple future tense are found in both Hausa and English. Added to that is the identification of carriers of tenses and tense markers. They are identified through the analyses of sentences in both Hausa and English. It was pointed out that pre-verbal pronouns are the carriers of tense in Hausa, while in the English language, the verb is the carrier of tense.

Some language teachers such as Bello (2014), Abubakar (2006) and Babajo (2006), who posit that Hausa tenses are different from those of English and other languages did not carry out a study similar to this. None of them conducted any contrastive study to examine peculiarities, similarities and differences between Hausa and English tenses. In those studies, tense markers are not completely analysed to account for their position in a sentence. In the foregoing, it was clear that English has front tense markers located before the verbs and end tense markers located after the verbs. In Hausa, however, the tense markers are located only after the pre-verbal pronouns i.e. carriers of tense. This is not brought to light by any of the studies conducted previously in this area.

Furthermore, one of the foremost contributions of the study is in the discovery of tenses of English that are non-existent in Hausa. Some of these include the present perfect tense, present perfect continuous tense, the past perfect tense, the past perfect continuous tense, the future perfect tense etc. Knowledge of this is fundamental. The study has been able to demystify tense formation processes in both English and Hausa. It identified word order as a similar process in tense formation processes in Hausa and English. Identifying how markers of tenses are separated from carriers of tense in Hausa is part of the contributions of this study to the existing knowledge. The study reveals the peculiar tense markers for each language. It exemplifies how they work with the carriers of tense in the process of forming the tenses.

In addition, the study has been able to point out some of the possible learning difficulties that could be encountered by Hausa-speaking students learning English tenses. For example, absence of present perfect tense in Hausa language could be a problem to Hausa-speaking students and others with a similar case. This is because the tense is non-existent in their language. Other similar problems that the students are likely to encounter on the bases of aspects present or absent include: the use of simple past tense in place of present perfect tense, use of past perfect tense when only one action is involved and use of a noun together with a gender pronoun as subject in a sentence etc. It was pointed out that tenses of English may be taught alongside their possible Hausa equivalents. This is intended to serve as a way of minimizing problems in using the tenses of English among Hausa-speaking students in Nigeria.

5.4 Conclusions

Based on the findings gathered in this research, the following conclusions are made:

- a- It is concluded that some similarities exist between English and Hausa tense formation processes. This includes notion of present, past and future time orientation:
- b- Some differences also exist between English and Hausa tenses. For example, tense markers in Hausa are separated from the carriers of tense, while in English, some of the tense markers such as ing, ed, en are attached to the carriers of tense i.e. the verbs:
- c- The Hausa language has pre-verbal pronouns that carry the tense. This means the verbs never carry any tense. However, in the English language, the verbs are the carriers of tense:
- d- It was found that some of the problems may be encountered by the Hausa-speaking students include confusion of one tense of Hausa with another in English, transfer of Hausa grammatical forms into English and/or overgeneralization: and,
- e- The absence of the present perfect tense and other aspects of tense enumerated such as past perfect continuous tense, future perfect tense etc. in the Hausa language may become problems to Hausa-speaking students learning English.

5.5 Recommendations

Sequel to the analysis carried out in the foregoing and the findings reached in Chapter Four, as well as teaching implications in Chapter Five, the following recommendations are made:

- a- Based on the findings, it is recommended that Hausa-speaking students should be guided to identify the distribution of present tense in English. Particular attention should be given in early junior classes to the use of simple present tense and the present perfect continuous tense. This will help learners use the tenses properly in speech and in writing:
- b- Hausa-speaking students of English should be exposed to the simple past tense in both English and their language and how it could be properly used in English. The confusion between the English present perfect tense and its simple past tense should be cleared and cases of transfer from Hausa into English be detected and explained to learners:
- c- The learners should be exposed to the carriers of tense in English to avoid confusion and unnecessary generalizations. For example, use of nouns and pre-verbal pronouns should be demonstrated in Hausa. This should be accompanied with examples in English sentences to identify why verbs are the only carriers of tense in English:
- d- Second language teachers need to encourage learners to make sentences in English through writing and speaking. The purpose of this is to enable learners detect wrong tenses from the correct ones. This can be done by:
- e- Asking learners to make frequent use of the problematic tenses of English in context based activities in the classroom. This may include reporting events, narrating past happenings, describing processes and explaining certain phenomena:
- f- Giving the learners well-written passages containing relevant tenses of English and Hausa asking them to identify the tenses by their names: the learners may be asked to translate the sentences into Hausa to demonstrate similarities and differences:

- g- Guiding the learners to use and name the tenses in storytelling, report writing etc. This may include any other activities that may require different types of tenses:
- h- Creating storytelling activities, where individual students narrate stories and experiences orally in the classroom. At this juncture, other students are asked to identify the types of tenses used as well as correct and incorrect tenses:
- i- Guiding learners to identify English tenses from written and spoken texts and asking them to find the equivalents in the Hausa language. This will help in clarifying the nature of tenses of both Hausa and English languages to the learners. The next is suggestions for further studies.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on this research, the following are given as areas for further studies:

- 1- Contrastive analysis of gender issues in both Hausa and English tense formation:
- 2- Contrastive analysis of morpho-phonemic structures in Hausa and English tenses:
- 3- Contrastive analysis of structural changes in the forms of carriers of tense in Hausa and English:
- 4- Contrastive analysis of morpho-phonemic structures of markers of tense Hausa and English.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A

The Hausa Tenses According to Galadanci (1976)

(1) The Habitual Present Tense

The Tense	Examples	Pre-verbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st person sing.	na kan karanta	Na	Kan	Karanta
2 nd pers. Sing. M	ka kan karanta	Ka	Kan	karanta
F	ki kan karanta	Ki	Kan	karanta
3 rd person. Sing. M.	ya kan karanta	Ya	Kan	karanta
F.	ta kan karanta	Ta	kan	karanta
1 st pers. Plural	mu kan karanta	Mu	kan	Karanta
2 nd pers. Plural	ku kan karanta	Ku	kan	Karanta
3 rd pers plural	su kan karanta	Su	kan	Karanta

(2) The General Continuous Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st pers. Sing	I na karantawa	I	Na	karantawa
2 nd pers. Sing. M.	ka na karantawa	Ka	Na	karantawa
F.	ki na karantawa	Ki		karantawa
3 rd pers. Sing. M.	ya na karantawa	Ya	Na	karantawa
F.	ta na karantawa	Ta		karantawa
1 st pers. Plural	muna karantawa	Mu	Na	karantawa
2 nd pers. Plural	ku na karantawa	Ku	Na	karantawa
3 rd pers. Plural	su na karantawa	Su	Na	karantawa

(3) The Relative Continuous Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1st pers. sing.	na ke karantawa	Na	Ke	karantawa
2nd pers. Sing.M. F.	ka ke karantawa ki ke karantawa	Ka Ki	ke ke	karantawa karantawa
3 rd pers. Sing. M. F.	ya ke karantawa ta ke karantawa	Ya Ta	ke ke	karantawa karantawa
1st pers. Plural	mu ke karantawa	Mu	Ke	karantawa
2 nd pers. Plural	ku ke karantawa	Ku	Ke	karantawa
3rd pers. Plural	su ke karantawa	Su	Ke	karantawa

(4) The First Future Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st pers. Sing.	za na karanta	Na	Za	Karanta
2 nd pers. Sing M. F.	za ka karanta za ki karanta	ka ki	za za	karanta karanta
3 rd pers. Sing. M f	za ya karanta za ta karanta	Ya Ta	za za	karanta karanta
1st pers. Plural	za mu karanta	Mu	Za	Karanta
2 nd pers. Plural	za ku karanta	Ku	Za	Karanta
3 rd pers. Plural	za su karanta	Su	Za	Karanta

(5) The Second Future Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st pers. Sing.	na karanta	Na	A	Karanta
2 nd pers sing. M.	ka karanta	Ka	a	Karanta
f.	ki karanta	Ki	a	Karanta
3 rd pers. Sin. M.	ya karanta	Ya	a	Karanta
f.	ta karanta	Ta	a	Karanta
1 st pers plural	mu karanta	Mu	A	Karanta
2 nd pers. Plural	ku karanta	Ku	A	Karanta
3 rd pers. Plural	Sukaranta	Su	A	Karanta

(6) The General Past Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st pers. Sing.	naa karanta	Na	A	Karanta
2 nd pers. Sing. M	kaa karanta	Ka	a	karanta
f.	kin karanta	Ki	n	karanta
3 rd Pers. Sing. M	yaa karanta	Ya	a	karanta
F.	taa karanta	Ta	a	karanta
1 st pers. Plural	mun karanta	Mu	N	Karanta
2 nd pers. Plural	kun karanta	Ku	N	Karanta
3 rd pers. Plural	sun karanta	Su	N	Karanta

(7) The Relative Past Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
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1 st pers. Sing	(nine) na karanta	Na	-	Karanta
2 nd pers. Sing M.	(kaine)ka karanta	Ka	-	karanta
F.	(kene)ki ka karanta	Ki	Ka	karanta
3 rd pers. sing. M.	(shine)ya karanta	Ya	-	karanta
F.	(itace) ta karanta	Ta	-	karanta
1 st pers. Plural	(mune) mu ka karanta	Mu	Ka	Karanta
2 nd pers. Plural	(kune) ku ka karanta	Ku	Ka	Karanta
3 rd pers. Plural	(sune) su ka karanta	Su	Ka	Karanta

(8) The Subjunctive Tense

The Tense	Examples	Preverbal Pronoun	Tense Marker	The Verb
1 st pers. Sing.	(bani) na karanta	Na	-	karanta
2 nd Pers. Sing. M.	(karbi)ka karanta	Ka	-	Karanta
F.	(karbi) ki karanta	Ki	-	Karanta
3 rd pers.sing. M.	(bashi) ya karants	Ya	-	karanta
F.	(bata) ta karanta	Ta	-	karanta
1 st pers. Plural	(bamu) mu karanta	Mu	-	karanta
2 nd pers.plural	(ku karba) ku karnata	Ku	-	Karanta
3 rd pers. plural	(su karba) su karanta	Su	-	Karanta

Appendix B

According to Babajo (2006) the following are the Hausa tenses and their practical examples in sentences:

(1) SHUDADDEN LOKACI NA DAYA1(GENERAL PAST TENSE)

S.L.1	Shudadden Lokaci na 1	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL (Tense Markers)	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	na a karanta	Na	A	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	ka a karanta	Ka	A	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	kin karanta	Ki	N	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	ta a karanta	Ta	A	Karanta
5	mutum na iii nm	ya a karanta	Ya	A	Karanta
6	mutum na i jm	mun karanta	Mu	N	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	kun karanta	Ku	N	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	sun karanta	Sun	N	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	an karanta	An	N	Karanta

(2) SHUDADDEN LOKACI NA BIYU 2 (RELATIVE PAST TENSE)

S.L.II	Shudadden Lokaci na Biyu	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	na karanta	Na	-	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	ka karanta	Ka	-	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	kika karanta	Ki	Ka	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	ta karanta	Ta	-	Karanta
5	mutum na iii nm	ya karanta	Ya	-	Karanta
6	mutum na i jm	mu ka karanta	Mu	Ka	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	ku ka karanta	Ku	Ka	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	su ka karanta	Su	Ka	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	aka karanta	A	Ka	Karanta

(3) LOKACI SABABBE (SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE)

L.S.	Lokaci Sababbe	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	nakan karanta	Na	Kan	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	kakan karanta	Ka	Kan	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	kikan karanta	Ki	Kan	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	takan karanta	Ta	Kan	Karanta
5	mutum na iii nm	yakan karanta	Ya	Kan	Karanta

6	mutum na i jm	mukan karanta	Mu	Kan	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	kukan karanta	Ku	Kan	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	sukan karanta	Su	Kan	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	akan karanta	A	Kan	Karanta

(4) LOKACI NA YANZU NA I (GENERAL CONTINUOUS TENSE)

L.Y. I	Lokaci Na Yanzu I.	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	ina karantawa	Ina	A	karantawa
2	mutum na ii nm	kana karantawa	Ka	Na	karantawa
3	mutum na ii tm	kina karantawa	Ki	Na	karantawa
4	mutum na iii tm	tana karantawa	Ta	Na	karantawa
5	mutum na iii nm	yana karantawa	Ya	Na	karantawa
6	mutum na i jm	muna karanta	Mu	Na	karantawa
7	mutum na ii jm	kuna karantawa	Ku	Na	karantawa
8	mutum na iii jm	sunan karantawa	Su	Na	karantawa
9	boyayyen mutum	ana karantawa	A	Na	karantawa

(5) LOKACI NA YANZU NA II (RELATIVE CONTINUOUS TENSE)

L.Y.II	Lokaci Na Yanzu Na II	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	nake karantawa	Na	Ke	karantawa
2	mutum na ii nm	kake karantawa	Ka	Ke	karantawa
3	mutum na ii tm	kike karantawa	Ki	Ke	karantawa
4	mutum na iii tm	take karantawa	Ta	Ke	karantawa
5	mutum na iii nm	yake karantawa	Ya	ke	karantawa
6	mutum na i jm	Mukekarantawa	Mu	ke	karantawa
7	mutum na ii jm	kuke karantawa	Ku	ke	karantawa
8	mutum na iii jm	suke karantawa	Su	ke	karantawa
9	boyayyen mutum	ake karantawa	A	ke	karantawa

(6) LOKACI NA GABA NA I (FIRST FUTURE TENSE)

L.G. I	Lokaci Na Gaba Na I	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	zana karanta	Na	Za	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	za ka karanta	Ka	Za	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	za ki karanta	Ki	Za	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	za ta karanta	Ta	Za	Karanta

5	mutum na iii nm	za ya karanta	Ya	Za	Karanta
6	mutum na i jm	za mu karanta	Mu	Za	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	za ku karanta	Ku	Za	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	za su karanta	Su	Za	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	za a karanta	A	Za	Karanta

(7) LOKACI NA GABA NA II (SECOND FUTURE TENSE)

L.G.II	Lokaci Na Gaba Na II	Misali	Lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	na a-karanta	Na	-a	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	ka a-karanta	Ka	-a	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	ki a-karanta	Ki	-a	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	ta a-karanta	Ta	-a	Karanta
5	mutum na iii nm	ya a-karanta	Ya	-a	Karanta
6	mutum na i jm	mu a-karanta	Mu	-a	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	ku a-karanta	Ku	-a	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	su a-karanta	Su	-a	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	a a-karanta	A	-a	Karanta

(8) LOKACI NA UMURNI (THE SUBJUNCTIVE TENSE)

L.U.	Lokaci Na Umurni	Misali	lamirin Suna	LL	Aikatau
1	mutum na i nm	na karanta	Na	-	Karanta
2	mutum na ii nm	ka karanta	Ka	-	Karanta
3	mutum na ii tm	ki karanta	Ki	-	Karanta
4	mutum na iii tm	ta karanta	Ta	-	Karanta
5	mutum na iii nm	ya karanta	Ya	-	Karanta
6	mutum na i jm	mu karanta	Mu	-	Karanta
7	mutum na ii jm	ku karanta	Ku	-	Karanta
8	mutum na iii jm	su karanta	su	-	Karanta
9	boyayyen mutum	a karanta	A	-	Karanta

Appendix C

The English Tenses according Bdliya (2011)

NO	Type of Tense	Examples in Sentences	Tense Markers in English
1	The simple present tense	She eats food.	S
2	The present continuous tense	She is eating food.	Ing

3	The present perfect tense	She has eaten food.	En
4	The present perfect continuous tense	She has been eating food.	Ing
5	The simple past tense	She ate food.	Ed
6	The past continuous tense	She was eating food.	Ing
7	The past perfect tense	She had eaten food.	En
8	The past perfect continuous tense	She has been eating food.	Ing
9	The simple future tense	She will eat food.	Ed
10	The Future continuous tense	She is eating food.	Ing
11	The future perfect tense	She will have eaten food.	En
12	The future perfect continuous tense	She will have been eating food.	Ing
Total 12			

Appendix D

The English tenses as demonstrated in sentences by Raymond (2015)

NO	Types of Tense	Examples in Sentences	Front and End Tense Makers in English (as separated by the sign +)
1	The simple present tense	The man writes a letter.	
2	the present continuous tense	The man is writing a letter.	Ing
3	The present perfect tense	The man has written a letter.	aux+en
4	The present perfect continuous tense	The man has been writing a letter.	aux+aux+ing
5	The simple past tense	The man wrote a letter.	Ed
6	The past continuous tense	The man was writing a letter.	aux+ing
7	The past perfect tense	The man had written a letter.	aux+en
8	The past perfect continuous tense	The man had been writing a letter.	aux+aux+ing
9	The simple future tense	The man will write a letter.	aux+verb

10	The future continuous tense	The man will be writing a letter.	
11	The future perfect tense	The man will have written a letter.	aux+aux+en
Total 12	The future perfect continuous tense	The man will have been writing the letter.	aux+aux+aux+ing

Appendix E

The Gradman's Description, Detection and Explanation (DDE) Model

