

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF ENGLISH AND ANNANG STRUCTURAL PATTERNS

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ABSTRACT: *This study postulates that eventhough there are significant structural similarities between Annang and English, there are a number of underlying dissimilarities in these apparent similarities. Annang people live in eight local government areas in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. The Annang speaker of English tends to apply the grammatical rules of Annang in his use of English, often violating the intuition of native speakers of English. Moreover, movement from a relatively free and flexible system of word order in Annang to a syntactically bound system in English also poses grammatical problems for the Annang speaker of English. Three null hypotheses were used in the study to capture differences and similarities in the grammatical structures of the two languages, particularly on how these differences and similarities affect the use of English by an Annang person. The population of the study consisted of Annang speakers of English in the eight local government areas in Annangland. One hundred and sixty respondents were selected using stratified random sampling. Literature was reviewed on contrastive analysis, justifying its use in the study. Literature was also reviewed on grammar and the structural patterns of language. The study made significant revelations on the similarities and differences in the structures of Annang and English. At 0.01 confidence level and 1 degree of freedom (df), the calculated value of X^2 (102.04) was greater than the table value of X^2 (6.63). Consequently, H_0 was rejected in favour of H_1 in hypothesis 1. Again at 0.01 confidence level and 1 degree of freedom (df), the calculated value of X^2 (87.64) was greater than the table value of X^2 (6.63). Consequently, H_0 was rejected for H_1 in hypotheses 2 and 3. The conclusion was that communication in English by Annang speakers is largely affected by similarities and differences existing between the two languages. Teachers of English in Annangland should be sufficiently trained to master the rules of English grammar as well as identify the problems confronting their students in the learning of English. There is need for government and non-governmental organizations to sponsor English language seminars as well as encourage Mother Tongue Education.*

KEYWORDS: Annang Language, Annang People, Contrastive Analysis, Grammar And Structural Patterns.

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Annang people are about two million in number and they live mainly in Abak, Essien Udim, Etim Ekpo, Ikot Ekpene, Obot Akara, Ika, Oruk Anam and

Ukanafun Local Government Areas. Urua (1987), Essien (1990) and Udondata (1993) all indicate that Annang belongs to the Lower-Cross group which is one of the many groups of languages which are traced to the Niger-Congo group of languages. The Niger-Congo is one

of the four major language groups in Africa. Others are the Hamito-Semitic, the Nilo-Saharan and the Khoisan.

Dunstan (1969), Eka (1979) and Essien (1990) observe that Annang, Efik and Ibibio are largely mutually intelligible. Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria is a multilingual community. Among the languages spoken here are Annang, Andoni, Eket, Ibibio, Ibeno, Itu Mbon Uso, Mbo, Okobo and Oron. Among these nine languages, only two (Annang and Ibibio) have gained prominence in linguistic research. For example, prominent studies on Ibibio include Urua (1987), Essien (1990) and Udofot (1991). Studies on Annang include Essien (1973), Udondata (1993) and Udoka (1998).

Annang has a variety of dialects. Essien (1973, p.178) has identified two groups to include Abak/Central Annang and Otoro in Ikot Ekpene varieties. This observation however seems to ignore the major dialects in Annang. We have identified four major dialects. These include the Ikot Ekpene dialect with its sonorants as in the pronunciation of the word “akpere” meaning “if” or “in case”; the Essien Annang dialect with its flare for the palato-alveolar affricates /t S, d Z/ as in the pronunciation of the words “ichíb” (kernel) and “ájob” (oil palm tree); the Ukanafun dialect which is noted for its use of the alveolar lateral /l/ as in the pronunciation of “ùlà” (market); and the Abak dialect which contrasts with the Essien Annang variety as demonstrated in the following examples:

Abak	Essien Annang	Gloss
ídàddá dàbbá idébbé dàbbá	ídàttá dàppá idéppé dàppá	It is not ripe Remove from fire He has not bought dream (V)

There are some minor varieties which can easily be noticed among speakers from Ikpe Annang, Ika, Otoro (Obot Akara) and some villages in Oruk Anam Local Government Area. These differences, however, do not hinder communication among speakers in Annang community.

Nyoyoko (1997, p.8) considers Annang as “one of the minority political groups” in Akwa Ibom State, which situates within the Cross River Basin and is bounded in the North and West by the Igbo while the Ibibio constitute its Eastern and Southern neighbours. The physical geography as well as the natural resources of Annang have been elaborately discussed by Okoji (1997). Much has also been discussed on Annang culture as identified by Umoren (1997) and Udondata (1997).

Statement of the Problem

A sentence is not merely a chain of words but a structure, frame or pattern on which speech forms are built with the intention of conveying a message (Potter, 1957; Quirk, 1962). Moreover, it must conform to certain conventional laws (Darbyshire, 1967). The notions of arrangement (order) and sense (meaning) are traditionally implicit in sentence construction and are traceable to the Greeks. Before the 18th Century, structural analysis was based mainly on

parsing. It was Lowth who introduced the concepts of “proper order” and “complete sense” into structural analysis (Tomori, 1977). Trier’s paradigmatic theory was propounded in the 1920s while Porzig’s syntagmatic theory was put forward in the 1930s. The two camps drew sympathy as to which was relevant in linguistic analysis. Today, however, there is no doubt that the two theories are mutually dependable in any satisfactory theory of grammatical structure. Moreover, a satisfactory analysis of grammar will certainly recognise the bond in surface and deep structure relationship (Lacey, 1976; Lyons, 1977, Eka, 1994 and Chomsky, 1965).

One discovers many flaws if the structural patterns of an Annang speaker or writer of English are viewed in the light of the above theoretical considerations. For example, some Annang speakers or writers of English tend to apply the grammatical rules of Annang to their use of English. Instances of crosslinguistic influences abound as some speakers even combine L₁ rules with those of L₂. This problem is very prominent in many areas of grammar. In lexicology, for example, there are numerous cases of transliteration. It is obvious as Ringbom (1987) opines that L₁ learners commit more of such errors than native speakers. Prominent among such problems is the assumption of an identity of semantic structure between L₁ and L₂ words. There are also instances of under-differentiation (Ringbom 1987, p.116) in which the speaker takes over the semantic properties of an L₁ equivalent and uses a previously known L₂ word in an extended sense. For example, for Annang speakers, “tomorrow” and “yesterday” are translated as “m̄ kp̄n”. It is therefore possible to come across such translations as “Tomorrow that will come” and “Yesterday that passed”. L₁ and L₂ procedures often interact, leading to the use of hybrids or blends and resulting in relexifications.

Constructions such as the following are common:

- a) I will branch at the post office *
- b) Do not put mouth in our discussion. *
- c) I hear the smell. *

Considering the intuition of the native speaker of English, one discovers that the sentences above do not make sense as far as the grammar of English is concerned. This is a serious problem and unfortunately, often leads to

... the speaker’s attempt to undertake a literal translation of the mother tongue into the target language. This gives rise to abuse of accepted patterns and omission of verbs, pronouns, prepositions and articles in sentences. In many instances the direct translation of the mother tongue results in meaningless conjectures in the target language (Udondata, 1995, p.46).

There are also problems relating to morphology. For example, in English the past tense is often marked by verbal suffixation whereas in Annang it is often marked by verbal prefixation. Let us consider the following examples:

Annang: Ètìm ámátía bọd m̄ kp̄n̄ .

English: Etim kicked the ball yesterday.

Moreover, in the English number system, some nouns take the –s morpheme for plural. This is not the case in Annang as in:

English: two goats

Annang: ébód íbà

Linguists are of the opinion that English word order rules are abstract in nature and they are concerned with generalized grammatical structures such as subject, object and adverbial and not with concrete crosslinguistic correspondences (Ringbom, 1987; Halliday, 1978). Annang has a relatively free word order whereas English has a relatively rule-bound system of word order as is obvious in:

	1	2	3	4
English	This	is	my	father
4 3 2 1	Annang: Èté àmì ádé àmì			
	(Ete	ami	adem)	

In the English version of this structure, the demonstrative pronoun (DP) is followed by the verb (V). The verb is followed by the possessive adjective (PA) and the noun (N) comes last.

In Annang, the arrangement is a reversal of what obtains in English:

English	DP	→	V	→	PA	→	N
Annang	N	→	PA	→	V	→	DP

Movement from a relatively free and flexible system of word order to a syntactically bound system in English is bound to pose problems to the Annang speaker. This is apparently because he cannot work directly with crosslinguistic contrasts between L₁ and the target language but has to consider abstract categories, which function in a way similar to his L₁. This corroborates an earlier observation that

... the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language. The student tends to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, the number; gender and case patterns (Lado, 1957, p.58).

As an English Language teacher who has served in Annangland for the past twenty years, I have been sufficiently exposed to the problems confronting Annang speakers of English as a second language. The contrastive study of the structural patterns of Annang and English will identify some of these problems and suggest solutions to them.

Research Objectives and Questions

The main features and levels of investigation and the many interacting variables which make up part of any topic of research in L₂ learning form an intricate web. Crosslinguistic studies aim at generally discovering the peculiarities of these languages as well as the similarities and differences between them.

It appears the bulk of Contrastive Analysis (CA) studies undertaken in the Lower-Cross Group of languages is mainly phonological. Particularly, not much has been done on Annang language except Udodata (1993), Udoka (1998) and Udoh (1998).

There is nothing (as far as I know) on any aspects of Anaañ grammar. Informed by this inadequacy therefore, we have decided to delve into this area of study.

Hypotheses for the study

The following null hypotheses were used for the study:

Hypothesis 1:

There are no significant differences between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English.

Hypothesis 2:

Differences between the structural patterns of Annang and English do not significantly hinder communication in English by Annang speakers.

Hypothesis 3:

Similarities between the structural patterns of Annang and English do not significantly facilitate communication in English by Annang speakers.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Population, Sample and Sampling Procedure

The population of this study consisted of Annang speakers of English in the eight Local Government Areas in Annangland. These include Abak, Essien Udim, Etim Ekpo, Ika, Ikot Ekpene, Obot Akara, Oruk Anam and Ukanafun. The inhabitants of these Local Government Areas speak mainly Annang language. Two secondary schools were randomly selected from each of these eight Local Government Areas, one from the urban and one from the rural area. This was not intended to measure differences in performance between the urban and rural communities but to ensure a wide geographical spread.

The sample consisted of one hundred and sixty (160) respondents. Ninety six (96) of these were final year secondary school students while sixty four (64) were secondary school teachers.

Six students were randomly selected from each of the sixteen secondary schools in the study. Four teachers were also selected from each of these schools. The sixteen schools were stratified along urban and rural locations to ensure an adequate geographical spread. The sample was also stratified along sex differences. This was merely intended to cover the entire stratum to make sure the results were reliable. In each school, three male students and three female students were selected. Two male teachers and two female teachers were also selected. There was therefore a total of ten respondents from each school.

Instrumentation, elicitation procedure and scoring

Three research instruments were used for data collection. The first was a picture containing a house with a tree in front of it, two girls playing on the ground and two boys playing football. The respondents were expected to look carefully at the picture and construct four sentences on it. In Test Two, they were expected to translate the four sentences into Annang. These instruments were intended to elicit spontaneous response from the respondents in the construction of sentences. The Annang and English sentences were meant for the identification of the different structural patterns such as word, group and clause.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature on Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis is a synchronic study which consists of “a series of statements about the similarities and differences between two languages” (Johansson, 1975, p.14-150).

The idea of “confronting” or “comparing” two languages as a synchronic study was conceived by members of the Prague School of Linguistics in the 1920s. They referred to it as “Analytical Confrontation or Comparison” (Fried,

1972, p.5). As Tomori (1977, p.2) rightly observes, CA

... makes systematic comparisons and statements about the structures of two different languages, so as to show where the two structures are similar and where they are different.

Mere comparison and the issuance of statements about the structures compared would reduce CA to a child’s play. CA is much more complex in scope. It is pedagogic in the sense that its aim is to teach L₂ in an efficient manner. CA is also psychological and linguistic in scope.

The psychological rationale has the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) as its basis. The strong form of this hypothesis argues that the major source of difficulty in foreign language learning is interference from the learner’s native language. Therefore, difficulties can be predicted by identifying the differences between the target language and the learner’s first language. The other form of this hypothesis claims that CA can be used to identify which difficulties are the result of interference. However, investigations reveal that

...whereas interference need not be a major factor in naturalistic SLA, it will always be present in classroom or foreign language learning. In naturalistic SLA, learners have the chance or extensive and intensive contacts with the target language, but in classroom SLA, learners will always use their L₁ between classes, and this strengthens proactive inhibition (Ellis, 1985 p.24).

The linguistic rationale of CA emphasises the scientific description of languages based on the description of the categories that constitute the patterns of the language. This is why most CA investigations are based on universal categories which exhibit differences in the way they are linguistically realized from one language to another.

CA has its mode of operation as identified by Headbloom (1979 p.27).

The basic practice of contrastive analysis is to first write a description of a particular subset of each language to be compared ... One then compares these two subsets, noting the differences and similarities. From this comparison a prediction is made as to what the learner will find difficult (or easy) to learn.

Halliday, et al (1964 p.113-114) differs slightly with this process by insisting on "... the establishment of comparability" before comparison.

CA has become very popular in linguistics and Vachek (1972) has identified its usefulness to include.

- a) Description and prediction of the pronunciation problems of speakers.
- b) Revelation of the characteristic features of the languages compared.
- c) Selection and arrangement of teaching materials.
- d) Explanation of different processes involved in the languages compared.
- e) Provision of principles with which language can be taught.

Much research has been undertaken using CA. For example, Lado (1957 p.73-74) compares English and Spanish question patterns with the data:

English: Is he a farmer?

Spanish: Es un campesino?

The author discovers, among other things, that the problems facing a Spanish learner of English in question patterns are that:

- a) He may place "be" before "he"
- b) He may omit subject pronouns
- c) He will use the same pattern with verbs other than "be" and "have".

Vachek (1972 p.12-13) has reported of an "analytical comparison" undertaken by Mathesius in 1928 between Modern English and Modern Czech.

The data include:

ModE: We take our breakfast

ModCZ: Sñidáme

The discovery in this comparison is that

... in confronting ModE and ModCZ one finds the former characterised by a marked trend to nominal predications, while the predications of the latter language are predominantly verbal (Vachek, 1972 p.13).

Headbloom (1979 p.30) has reported that Selinker undertook a contrastive study of some Hebrew learners of English. The study contrasted word order in three post-verbal structures (Obj-place, Obj-adv; and place – time). The result was that:

In the overwhelming number of cases ($p < 01$), the thirteen yearold students used Hebrew word order in their English speech.

Eka (1979) compares segmental and nonsegmental features of Efik and English. He has discovered that:

The nature of Efik sound system exercises considerable influence on the acquisition and use of the English sound system by the Efiks (Eka, 1979 p.136).

Udondata (1993) is an analytical comparison of Anaañ and English phonological systems. The study uses the comparative model introduced by the Prague School of Linguistics and perfected by Robert Lado. The author uses one hundred and twenty students in his analysis and concludes that

The existence of a nonsegmental feature such as tone in Anaañ influences the speech behaviour of Anaañ speakers of English

(Udondata, 1993 p.181)

The list of case studies is inexhaustible as CA is gaining popularity and is yielding much fruit in linguistic studies.

Literature on Grammar

The term “grammar” has undergone much metamorphosis. For example, traditional grammarians modelled English grammar on Latin rules. Grammar at this stage consisted mainly of parsing and clause analysis.

Bloomfield’s Structural Linguistics added new dimensions to grammar. Structuralism recognised the importance of sounds in the operations of language. But some linguists feel that phonology and grammar are mutually exclusive. For example, Hockett (1942) assumes that the line of demarcation between phonology and grammar is sharp.

However, contemporary definitions on grammar adopt a more comprehensive posture. Essien (1990 p. xvi) contends that the grammar of any language is *a system of rules that the native speaker or hearer of a language internalizes and which he or she employs – albeit unconsciously – in actual language use or performance. Such a system of rules, which is technically known as competence, consists of the sound pattern or phonology, the syntax, and semantics of the language.*

This implies that the grammar of a language should embody all the aspects of that language because language is a system of subsystems and all the subsystems are interrelated. However, it is not just this system of rules that can be referred to as competence but its acquisition. Moreover, it is necessary not only to relate performance to competence but to other factors such as memory restrictions and the state of mind of the performer. And performance necessarily corresponds to the intuition of the native speaker. It is therefore easy (based on this background) to distinguish between deviant and non-deviant structures in grammatical

construction. This all-embracing definition of grammar had earlier been recognized by Lyons (1977 p.378) who observes that

There are many linguists nowadays who use the term “grammar” to subsume everything in a language that is amenable to systematic description: i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

The idea of competence and performance as the main characteristics of the acquisition of the grammar of a language has been recognized by Riemsdijk and Williams (1986) who observe that grammar is concerned with knowledge acquired by a person of language as well as the constitution, acquisition and utilization of language. This, however, is questionable since there may be instances of competence-without-performance and performance-without-competence. This is possible in the language behaviour of some kindergarten children. Corder (1981 p.12) is of the opinion *that the utterance of a correct form cannot be taken as proof that the learner has learnt the systems which would generate the form in a native speaker, since he may be merely repeating a heard utterance.*

Every language has its grammar. McIntosh and Halliday (1966 p.7) observe that “... the sentence and the word are two universal units of grammar”. This concept of grammar as a universal phenomenon is upheld by Haegeman (1994 p.9).

... human beings are equipped with a finite system of knowledge which enables them to construct and interpret an infinite number of sentences.

It means therefore that every normal person has an innate capacity for the knowledge of the grammar of a natural language.

From the above analyses, we wish to assert that grammar as used in this study is a systematic study of the sounds, words, idioms, phrases, clauses, sentences and the meanings associated with a language. It is familiarity with the systems and subsystems of a language that enhances proficiency in the language. This agrees with Eka (1994 p.1) that “grammar deals with the rules which govern combinations of words and groups of words to bring about meaningful sentences”.

Ideas on grammar are numerous. Such ideas include the knowledge which a speaker possesses of a language, descriptive and prescriptive statements about a language as well as the use of language.

Essien (1990) dwells on Ibibio grammar. Ibibio is one of the Lower Cross Languages in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. The book is divided into three parts and they treat phonology, morphology and syntax respectively. The objective of the book is stated thus:

A grammar of the Ibibio Language, ... is an attempt to describe and analyse the Ibibio grammatical structure. The book is divided into three major parts namely: Phonology, Morphology and Syntax. Some aspects of meaning are also described and discussed in some sections of morphology and syntax (Essien, 1990 p.XVI).

This review shall be occupied mainly with parts One and two.

Part One discusses the phonology of Ibibio. The author defines the phonology of a language as “... the sound system of that language” (p.3). He also identifies ten vowels and fifteen

consonant sounds for Ibibio. Nonsegmental issues like tone, stress and intonation have been elaborately discussed.

Part Two begins by contrasting morphology with phonology.

Morphology is that aspect of language which carries meaning or communicative function whereas phonology does not. These include free versus bound morphemes, inflectional versus derivational morphemes, tense, aspect, mood, number, negation, locative affix and emphasis. This book is the first major attempt to carry out an in-depth discussion on aspects of Ibibio grammar. However, not much has been done on the semantic aspect. The semantics of Ibibio should be given a detailed treatment as Ibibio is rich in polysemy, synonymy, antonymy etc. This would agree with the author's definition of grammar to embody all the systems of language. Apart from revealing the mutual relationship between Ibibio and Annang, the book also reveals a number of differences between these two Lower Cross languages as in: Ibibio: Ìkpé é-dí-wèt ñ kpò nòtè Uô mọ Annang: Ìkpé é-rí-gwèt m̀kpò nòtè Uô mọ

(Ikpe writes like Umo)

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) dwells mainly on the grammar of English and maintain that in spite of the multiplicity of the varieties of English, there is, however, some standard of English in pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary. This is borne out by the general acceptance of BBC English. Apart from the treatment of parts of speech, the book dwells exhaustively on phrases, kinds of sentences and word formation. The phonological aspect of grammar is taken care of in the treatment of the various allomorphs of morphemes.

Riemsdijk and Williams (1986) suggest three steps in the writing of a grammar. These are:

1. Providing examples with the appropriate grammaticality judgements.
2. Providing a catalogue of sentences as a basis for discussion.
3. Formulating general principles which will be applicable to further data.

Such provision will certainly distinguish between "well-formed" and deviant structures. But the "productiveness" which characterizes grammar puts a question mark on the well-formedness of sentences. For example, Ubahakwe (1979) is of the opinion that the English spoken and written in Nigeria today is not a deviant but a variant form of the Queen's English. This certainly depicts the controversy surrounding the issue of standard in English usage. English teachers can hardly lay claim to RP as a model in real time situations.

For Eka (1994), grammar is 'flexible' and deals with the construction of sentences which are intelligible and acceptable to the native speaker and nonnative speakers educated in the language. The author uses the systemic model and discusses issues relating to sentence, clause, phrase and word elements, allomorphic variation and morphology, giving relevant examples.

Tomori (1977) presents grammar in a rather broad spectrum. The spectrum embodies such ideas as:

1. the quality of the knowledge of a language possessed by a speaker as inferred from the nature of his utterances.

2. a book embodying the morphological and syntactic rules of a particular language.
3. the body of descriptive statements about the morphological and syntactic structures of a language.
4. the body of prescriptive statements about usages that are considered acceptable and those that are considered unacceptable in a particular language.

Other levels of grammar discussed by the author include the diachronic, the synchronic, the contrastive and the pedagogic. Grammar, in this broad spectrum, takes care of performance in the language, the systemic interrelationship within the structures of a language as well as competence in the language.

The ideas of Keh (1991) on grammar are mainly environmentalist. For a learner to benefit from any language-learning situation, meaning-focused (contextualized) grammar should be employed. This approach far surpasses the rules-focused grammar which is traditionalist. Grammar at this level transcends the sentence level into the discourse level and is text-based. These ideas are corroborated by Mei-yun (1991). In fact, Larsen-Freeman (1987) refers to this context-based grammar as the suprasentential level of grammar.

The idea of distinguishing between Surface Structure and Deep Structure grammar is primarily that of Chomsky. Studies in morphosemantics have made such distinction popular as in Lyons (1977), Tomori (1977), Lacey (1976) and Eka (1994) and Chomsky (1965). Surface Structure is concerned with the analysis of form while Deep Structure is concerned with interpretation and meaning.

So far, we have only discussed grammar in terms of form and function.

Palmer (1981) objects to such treatment of grammar and broadens his discussion on grammar to embody such categories as tense, gender and number. Dialectal grammar has been suggested by Wallwork (1969 p.103-104) which refutes the idea of "Standard English" since "every individual speaker of a language uses that language in a way that is unique to himself". The author however agrees that there is "... a certain body of relatively homogenous usage ..." in grammatical construction.

Bright and McGregor (1970) maintain that the attempt to remedy certain errors and omissions requires a knowledge of grammar. Learners of a foreign language must learn to be familiar with the rules of the language in order to master it.

Generally, grammar has been accepted as a complex area of study. For example, Corder (1981 p.22) objects to the concept of a well-formed sentence and accepts every sentence as "idiosyncratic". White (1988) is concerned with variations in word association, conceptual boundaries and collocation while Palmer (1981) is worried about the problem of translation of grammatical structures. These views point to the complex nature of grammar.

Literature on Structural Patterns

Grammatical structures are concerned with how formal devices are systematically employed to convey meaning. A discussion on structural patterns will normally bring us to the domain of syntax and morphology. The construction of meaningful sentences will take into consideration a set of rules which accounts for the distribution of word-forms in sentences

(Lyons, 1977) or "... an ordered arrangement of morphemes" otherwise known as a "Syntagma" (Darbyshire, 1967 p.103) or the principles of arrangement of the "... constructions formed by the process of derivation and inflection (words) into larger constructions of various kinds" (Gleason, 1961 p.128) or "... the arrangement of words in phrases and sentences" (Widdowson, 1971 p.9). Words cannot just be strung together haphazardly. The arrangement must conform with an orderly pattern which is meaningful and acceptable. Norms therefore exist in structural patterning (Udondata, 1995). It is appropriate structural patterning that facilitates meaningful communication. This emphasizes the inextricable bond between syntax and semantics.

Another feature of grammar is that its elements are arranged in patterns. Patterning involves a systematic arrangement of items. Without grammatical patterns, speakers would be exposed to a number of meaningless possibilities in grammatical construction. Wallwork (1969 p.62) has noted that the grammatical patterns of language are made up of five units. These include morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence. Halliday *et al* (1964 p.25) have elaborately discussed the systematic relationship between the various patterns of English thus:

English ... has, if we start with the sentence, five units carrying its grammatical patterns: (in descending order) sentence, clause, word and morpheme ... The fixed relation among the units means that every sentence consists of one or more than one complete clause, every clause of one or more than one complete group, every group of one or more than one complete word, and every word of one or more than one complete morpheme.

Patterns are embedded in sentences and a sentence can be considered as a deliberate and careful selection and arrangement of words for the purpose of intelligible communication of ideas.

Graddol *et al* (1987) is a description of language. Chapter three, which is the concern of this review, dwells on sentence and word structure. Discussing the characteristics of sentence and word structure, the author defines syntax as "... the organization of words into larger sequences" (p.26) and also distinguishes between grammatical and ungrammatical structures on account of inappropriate arrangement of the elements that constitute the structures. An important feature of this study is the identification of differences between the structures of differing languages:

*In English, it is usual for adjectives to come before their nouns. English word order therefore requires 'The round table' not 'The table round'. In French, on the other hand, adjectives often follow their nouns. It would be usual in French to say 'La table ronde' rather than ('La ronde table'.) Similarly, in English it is usual for the subject to come before the verb in a simple declarative sentence (Graddol *et al* 1987 p.65).*

This explains the peculiarity that characterizes structural patterning in different languages. It would therefore be ridiculous to try to apply the patterning principles of one language to another. The scientific analysis of language in terms of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships therefore facilitates grammatical patterning (Tomori, 1977). Whereas a syntagm is a pattern which places restrictions on word order, a paradigm is a set of choices in terms of words that can be used equally legitimately (Graddol *et al*, 1987; Darbyshire, 1967). Graddol *et al* (1987) have identified sentence, clause, phrase and word structures as levels in grammatical construction. Eka (1994), Wallwork (1969), Tomori (1977) and Halliday *et al* (1964) all agree that the units of structural patterning in grammatical construction include morpheme, word, group, clause and sentence. But Lado (1957) differs with them and identifies

the elements that signal grammatical structure to include word order, inflection, correlation of forms, function words, intonation, stress and pauses. Apart from intonation, stress and pauses which are largely phonological features, Lado's elements are however relevant in grammatical patterning.

Apart from proposing four clause elements, Eka (1994) has elaborately discussed structural patterning with regard to nouns and nominals, verbs and verbals, adjectives and adjectivals as well as adverbs and adverbials.

Boadi *et al* (1968) is a detailed discussion on grammatical structure and its teaching. Here grammatical structure is defined as "... a systematization of sequences of linguistic events" (p.26). Systematization here involves an organized and orderly arrangement. Linguistic events can be either the written or the spoken mediums. The authors also distinguish between lexical and structural words and identify form classes as formal structural signals. Patterns are the way the words are combined and arranged in the structure. Many authors do not seem to have any clear distinction between pattern and structure. While structure "... applies to all units in the grammar of a language except the smallest, which ... has no structure" (Halliday *et al*, 1964 p.28), pattern applies to the different ways these units are systematically combined to give meaning. Like Eka (1994), the authors have painstakingly described nouns and nominal groups, verbs and verbal groups, adjectives and adjectival groups, adverbs and adverbials as well as sentence patterns. All these elements are the constituents of a syntagma (an orderly arrangement of parts which respects conventionality in the use of language).

Traditionally, grammatical structures were based on proper arrangement of parts of speech into slots. The parts of speech occupied strategic positions depending on their operational functions in the grammatical structure. Such functions were determined through clause analysis and parsing (Allen, 1958; Widdowson, 1974; Greenberg, 1966; Hawkins, 1980). Essien (1990) departs radically from the traditional treatment of grammar. Grammatical structures treated in his work relate mainly to morphology and syntax dwelling on such items as nouns, determiners, quantifiers, numerals, pronouns, verbs and verbals, adverbs, and adjectives. The author considers a sentence as a unit of syntax and describes sentences according to the functions they perform in a structure. His sentence types include the Imperative, the Declarative and the Interrogative. Hornby (1975) is a description of the different patterns and their usage in English with relevant illustrations and demonstration tables. Structural patterns treated include those of verbs, nouns, determiners, adjectives and adverbials. The author stresses the importance of patterns in English sentences because "... today the emphasis has shifted from vocabulary control to structures and patterns" (Hornby, 1975 p.V).

Nowadays emphasis has shifted from knowledge of vocabulary to control of the structural patterns. Knowledge of individual items in a sentence may not necessarily help one to make meaning out of the structure. Gleason (1961 p.149) is of the opinion that the meaning of a structure can best be analysed in terms of its Immediate Constituents (IC). It is IC that helps the learner realize the relationships between the words in the structure. What matters therefore is for the learner to be familiar with the devices which signal the IC structure of a particular sentence and we have already seen that structural signals may differ from one language to another.

Summary of Findings

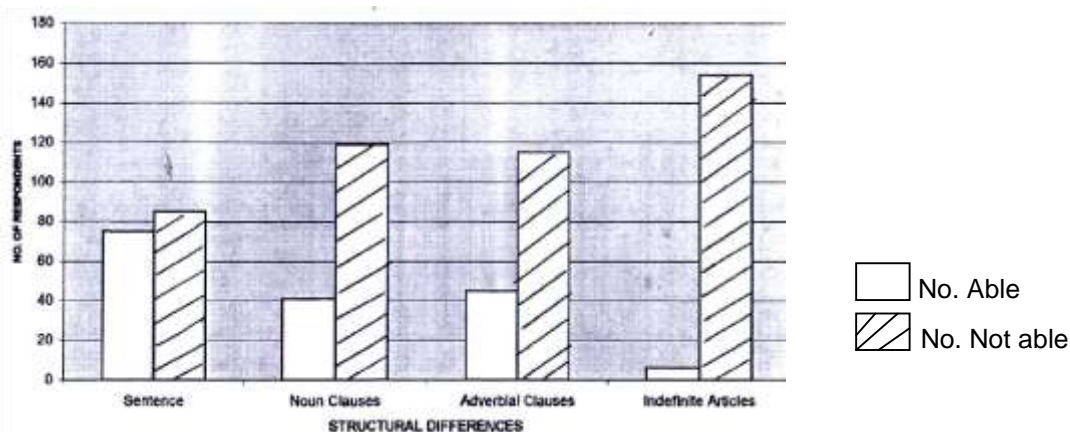
It was the intention of this research to:

- a) Identify the structural patterns of Annang and English with concentration on the structures of word, group, clause and sentence.
- b) Identify any existing differences and similarities between the structural patterns of Annang and English.
- c) Examine if the differences and similarities between the structural patterns of Annang and English facilitate or hinder communication in English by Annang speakers.

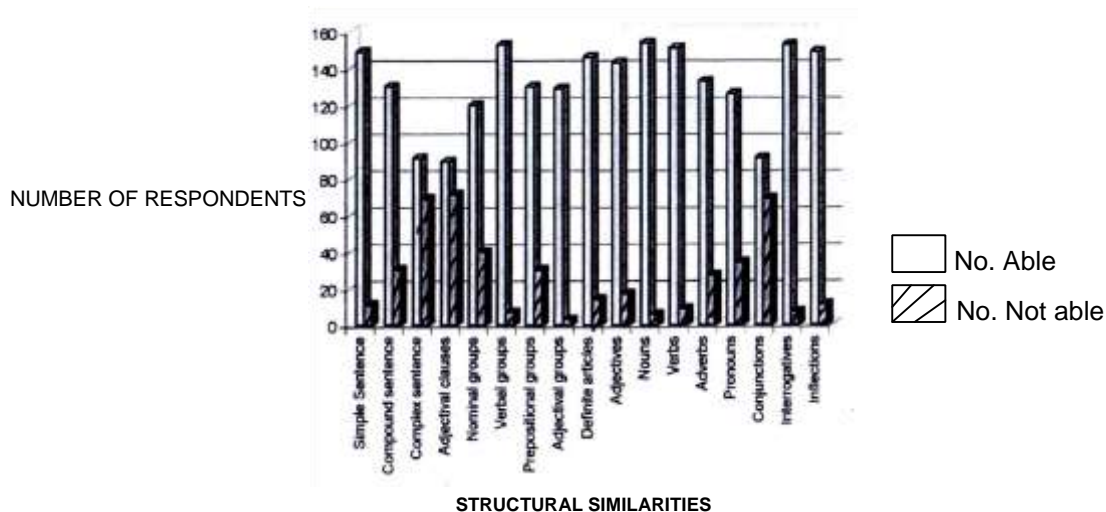
The following were the major findings:

1. The structures of simple, compound, complex and compound complex sentences exist in Annang and English.
2. The structures of noun, adjectival and adverbial clauses exist in Annang and English.
3. The group structures of nominal, verbal, prepositional and adjectival exist in Annang and English.
4. The definite article, adjectives, nouns, verbs, adverbs, pronouns, conjunctions, interrogatives and inflections exist in Annang and English.
5. Some English nouns take the –s morpheme as plural inflections; Annang nouns do not.
6. Some Annang adverbs inflect for number; English adverbs do not.
7. The English conjunction “and” joins all forms of structure in the grammar by in Annang “ne” joins nouns while “anuñ ” joins verbs.
8. English grammar is characterized by verbal suffixation while Annang is characterized by verbal prefixation.
9. In English, cardinal numbers come before nouns whereas in Annang nouns come before cardinal numbers.
10. English tends to be richer in vocabulary than Annang.
11. Instances of synonyms, idioms, homophonic variants, vowel elision, interrogatives and conversion occur in Annang and English.
12. There are instances of noun and verb reduplication in Annang.

BAR CHART OF STRUCTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ANNANG AND ENGLISH



BAR CHART OF STRUCTURAL SIMILARITIES BETWEEN ANNANG AND ENGLISH



Implications of the study

For an effective empirical and contrastive analysis of Annang and English structural patterns, three null hypotheses were used for this study:

Hypothesis 1

There are no significant differences between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English

Table of Expected Frequency (Fe) for Hypothesis 1

Structural Patterns	Number Able	Number Not Able	Total
Difference Similarities	A 87 B 87	C 73 D 73	160 160
Total	174	146	320

Calculated Value of D for Hypothesis 1

	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
A	42	87	-45	2025	23.28
B	132	87	45	2025	23.28
C	118	73	45	2025	27.74
D	28	73	45	2025	27.74
					102.04

$$X^2 = \sum \left(\frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \right) = 102.04$$

At 0.01 confidence level and 1 degree of freedom (df), the Calculated value of X^2 (102.04) is greater than the Table Value of X^2 (6.63). Consequently, we reject H_0 in favour of H_1 .

Hypothesis 2

Differences between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English do not significantly hinder communication in English by Annang speakers. Table of Expected Frequency (Fe) for Hypothesis 2

Communicative Structure	N	Number Not Able	Total
Difference Similarities	A 91.5 B 91.5	C 69.5 D 69.5	160 160
Total	181	136	320

Calculated Value of X2 for Hypothesis 2

	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
A	49	90.5	-41.5 41.5	1722.25	19.03
B	132	90.5	41.5	1722.25	19.03
C	111	69.5	41.5	1722.25	24.79
D	28	69.5		1722.25	24.79
					87.64

$$X^2 = \sum \left(\frac{O - E}{E} \right)^2 = 87.64$$

At 0.01 confidence level and 1 degree of freedom (df), the Calculated value of

X^2 (87.64) is greater than the Table Value of X^2 (6.63). Consequently, we reject H_0 in favour of H_1 . This implies that differences between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English do significantly hinder communication in English by Annang speakers. This finding tends to conform with earlier discoveries on the phenomenon of transfer in language contact (Lado, 1957; Kellerman and Smith, 1986; Ellis, 1985 and Corder, 1981).

Hypothesis 3

Similarities between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English do not significantly facilitate communication in English by Annang speakers

Table of Expected Frequency (Fe) for Hypothesis 3

Structural Patterns	Number Able	Number Not Able	Total
Similarities	A 90.5 B 90.5	C 69.5 D 69.5	160
Difference			160
Total	181	136	320

Calculated Value of X^2 for Hypothesis 3

	O	E	O-E	(O-E) ²	$\frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$
A	132	90.5	41.5	1722.25	19.03
B	49	90.5	-41.5	1722.25	19.03
C	28	69.5	41.5	1722.25	24.79
D	111	69.5	41.5	1722.25	24.79
					87.64

$$X^2 = \sum \left(\frac{O - E}{E} \right)^2 = 87.64$$

At 0.01 confidence level and 1 degree of freedom of (df), the calculated value of X^2 (87.64) is greater than the Table Value of X^2 (6.63). Consequently, we reject H_0 , as stated, in favour of H_1 . This implies that similarities between the structural patterns of Annang and those of English do significantly facilitate communication in English by Annang speakers. This tends to be in agreement with the Universal Hypothesis which maintains that there are certain language elements and principles which can be generally applied by learners in certain language learning situations, no matter the language (Ellis, 1985, Berko, 1958; Bellugi, 1965; Bernstein, 1961 and Brown and Fraser, 1964). Moreover, it confirms the assumption of Lado (1957 p.2) that those.

.. who come in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him.

Discussion

The study has provided a number of interesting revelations concerning the structures of English and Annang Languages. Our investigation reveals that nominal group structures feature in Annang as well as English as in:

English	Annang
... this picture	̀̀niché ámi
... a house	úfók
... his father	Été ámo

It is common in Annang to find the demonstrative adjectives “ámì” and “ádè” undergo elision when they pair with nouns or pronouns. ànyé ámi → ànyém = this one

úfèn ámi → úféném = this suffering

Another interesting feature was that in all cases, the indefinite articles “a” had no equivalent in Annang. “A house” therefore became “úfók”

In Annang the determiner “no” forms part of a rather complex structure.

when	I had no	money
nán á	̀̀kerinyiéghé	àkùk

n + yié + ghé = I + have + not ̀̀ké + ̀̀nyiéghé = participle + I have not

̀̀kérí + ̀̀nyiéghé = I came (to) have not

The verbal structure analysis reveals that English and Annang possess the present and past forms and have auxiliary and main verbs. However, cases of verbal prefixation make Annang verbal group structures differ from English verbal group structures.

Another interesting feature is the process in which the noun “beauty” converts into “beautify” in the sentence: “This tree beautifies the compound” (“Éto ámi ánam àtũn ámi ájáiyá”). In Annang there are instances where significant differences underlie similar-looking structures in the process of conversion as in:

Annang	English
Udọ àmà ñ waán ámo blind.	Udọ <u>loves</u> his wife <u>Ìmá</u> ádé ñnàn Love <u>is</u>

A significant feature of the study is that all the prepositions identified for English – “in, in front of, under, on, at, inside”, are reduced to “ké” in Annang. The study does not discover any other preposition in Annang. Moreover, wherever “ké” combines with a noun which begins with a vowel, the “é” in “ké” is elided as in:

Ké + úfòk > kúfòk (in the house)

Ké + iràk > kiràk (under)

Ké + ísòṇ > kísòṇ (on the ground)

Syntagmatic relation is an important part of every language system. If we consider the expression “... two beautiful girls” as grammatically appropriate, it is because they belong to a structure whose combinational possibilities are determined in the language system. An attempt to pair them up with other words may result in an awkward structure. The following are examples:

	English	Annang
1.	two beautiful girls	m̃ fòṇ ibaàn ìbá'
2.	a big compound	èkámhá ikúré

A look at sample 1 above reveals the following internal structure

English: Determiner + Adjective + Noun Annang: Adjective + Noun + Determiner

Eventhough these structures are syntactically different, they are semantically acceptable in their respective language systems.

An interesting revelation with regards to nouns was that Annang does not appear to have items in the collective category. Moreover, most English nouns change for number by taking a plural suffix. On the other hand, plural nouns in Annang are identified by the adjectives which modify them or the nouns they govern.

Generally, most English words inflect through affixation. This phenomenon also prevails in Annang. Reduplication is a common feature in Annang especially in colour description, adjectives and adverbs as shown below:

Item	Reduplication	Gloss
afia	afia-afia	white
anwen	anwe-nwen	black
sana	nsana-nsana	clean
nyioṇ	nyioṇ -nyioṇ	tall
sòb	usòb-usòb	fast

CONCLUSION

Much research needs to be undertaken on Annang language and culture.

Only a few very scanty works have been done on the phonology of Annang. Apart from the present work, no serious attempt has been made on the syntax and morphology of Annang. There is absolutely no serious work on the semantics of Annang.

There are significant structural similarities between Annang and English. Such similarities are common among structures that are universally present in natural languages. But within these apparent similarities, there are a number of underlying dissimilarities and these differences are rather subtle and need the careful eyes of an expert to detect.

Communication in English by Annang speakers is largely affected by similarities and differences existing between the two languages. Similarities in structures enhance communication.

In all SLAL situations, familiarity with the systems and subsystems of both languages is a major step in the understanding of these languages. Our studies confirm the finding of Luelsdorff (1988) that there is interlinguistic and intralinguistic interference among bilinguals. We also conclude with Harder (1988) that CA could be an avenue for the facilitation of L₂, turning L₁ into an operational asset for the learner.

Specifically, the Annang speaker of English may omit the indefinite articles “a” and “an” in his sentences. He may also avoid the use of the plural morpheme –s and may attempt to reduplicate English adjectives as in “tall-tall boys”.

Seminars and symposia should be organized for secondary and primary school teachers to equip them with current knowledge on the teaching and learning of English. Government, organizations and individuals should encourage research and sponsor the publication of materials on MT education. Such materials should be updated and in conformity with current trends in language education.

Another means through which Government can assist in the enhancement of MT is to supply our school libraries with materials on MT education. A situation where our school libraries are invested with materials on foreign language acquisition and learning should be de-emphasized. The policy on MT education requires that charity should begin at home.

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