

**A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE NOUN PHRASE IN
GYONG AND ENGLISH**

BY

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**A RESEARCH THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
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APPROVAL

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DECLARATION

I, Rhoda Musa Ibrahim, declare that this report recorded I this thesis was written by me and that all consulted authorities in the research process are well acknowledged.

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work, written by Mrs. Rhoda Musa Ibrahim, in the Department of English and Literary Studies, Faculty of Arts, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, meets the requirements and regulation for the award of a Master of Arts in English Language and has been approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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Date

Dean Postgraduate School

Date

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God for sparing my life to this day and for the enablement to complete this work.

To my beloved husband and children who stood by me to see to its completion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my profound gratitude to God, the Most High and Knowing for all his favour on me; as a result of which this thesis came to a completion.

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The contribution of my husband in bearing all the inconveniences my absence might have caused the family are by no means under-rated. May God bless our partnership.

ABSTRACT

This research work, 'A Contrastive Analysis of the Noun Phrase in Gyong and English Languages' was motivated by the researcher's realization of how Gyong language lends itself in numerous ways to morphological subtypes and morphology at large which are distinct from the English language. The research concentrates on a contrastive analysis of some factors which seem to affect the performance of Gyong learners of English, especially the noun phrase which has been observed to be very problematic because of interference from the grammar and lexis of mother-tongue, choice of appropriate pre/post modifiers of the nominals, etc. The research work identified diverse differences between the Gyong language and English language and how they bring about difficulties for Gwong people learning English as a second language. A contrastive description of the noun phrase in the two languages revealed diverse differences in the following aspects of the noun phrase; pluralisation, article, demonstratives, genitives, concord, syntax and qualifiers. These areas were found to be sources of difficulty to Gyong learners of English. Data about the existing noun phrase in the two languages were gathered, their applications were described, similarities, dissimilarities and effectiveness or otherwise were also considered. This research contains some recommendations for overcoming the difficulties identified such as: carrying out more researches in Gyong language, especially its morphology, syntax and semantics, among native Gwong to fine-tune methods and materials in favour of the language (Gyong). Remedial drills on contrastive analysis should be made into supplementary materials based on findings for teaching English language in such areas under study.

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CHAPTER ONE: THE GYONG LANGUAGE IX

1.0 AN INTRODUCTION

Introducing the Gyong language and its speakers will go a long way in preparing the mind of the reader for a discussion and analysis of the language since the concentration on the linguistic forms and forgetting the people who use the forms in ordinary communication will distort the reality of the language in use. It is therefore important to provide information on the historical background and geographical setting of the people. The people (and their language) are known as Gwong while their Hausa neighbors call them Kagoma/Yeskwa. The origin of these names has been a subject of great debate.

A powerful source has it that when the first Hausa traders visited Gwong/Nyakpa-land, they asked our people what they call themselves. It is said that they were told that we call ourselves Gwong (meaning a multitude) while Khi-Gong means our land and our territory. The Hausa people are said to have found it very difficult to pronounce the words Gwong or Khi-Gong and therefore coined the term KAGOMA. They also coined the name Yeskwa to replace NYAKPA, which they could not pronounce. Evidence abound that both Gwong and Nyakpa have a common origin i.e Gwong Thona and Nyakpa Thona. There are other brothers in addition to Gwong and Nyakpa who are said to have left us and settled across the river of Godogodo district known as Ninem Thona. The brotherly links between these people guided the district officer in charge of Jema'a division to create the Kagoma/Yeskwa district in 1949 A.D, until of recent when the two were divided with each being a district of its own.

1.1 LOCATION

Gwong land, otherwise known as Khi-Gong is found in the Northern part of middle belt in Nigeria. It occupies the area now known as Southern Kaduna in Kaduna State of Nigeria. Khi-Gong is in the Guinea savannah area of Nigeria, the vegetation being largely grassland integrated with medium high trees. There are some clusters of hilly areas scattered all over the area. It is within the climatic zone characterized by wet and dry seasons. The dry season stretches from November-April, while the rainy season starts from April to early October.

The immediate neighbors of Gwong include Bejju and Atyap in the north, Kagoro on the northeastern side; Kaninkong and Fontsuam are to the south eastern side. The Ham (Jaba) spread along a considerable length of the western side.

1.2. AFFINITY OF GYONG

Language is part of culture and culture affects language. Language is the principal means by which people express their experiences, feelings and desires and people identify themselves through language. Language therefore occupies a very important position in the life of man.

In the colonial era, all African languages were considered inferior to Western languages in general and English in particular. To correct this misconception, there is a need to groom the people in general and Gwong in particular to understand and respect their cultural values, norms and beliefs and ways of life in order to discard foreign ones. This will help in self-realization and self-development.

A thorough understanding of Nigerian culture will create opportunities for the people to discover their roots, regain their lost identity and self-confidence and improve their self-knowledge. Some of the indigenous languages that had hitherto been relegated to the background due to the influence of other more developed languages are now coming up - Gyong belongs to this category of languages.

No attempt has so far been made to study Gyong language in detail. There is an urgent need for people to develop interest in preparing textbooks on grammar and structures of Gyong language for use in primary and secondary schools.

This need is more felt now that the Federal Government is placing great emphasis on the mother tongue. It is recommended in the National policy on Education that the mother tongue be used as a medium of instruction in the first three years of primary education and also taught as a subject from upper primary to the end of the junior secondary school.

Gyong, like most Nigerian languages tagged minor languages, is an obscure language at present, but no one knows what it will be in future since languages have potentials to develop. Harrison (1973) in Atsu (1986) confirms this assertion in the following words:

“It is one of the tenets of linguistics that one can do anything with any language given enough time all languages are capable of equivalent development. Language is value-free in relation to potential performance”.

Gyong language is a contrastive study because one learns more about what is common or not common. One can prove on certain theories of linguistics. It is also good to learn it in its own right.

This is a great challenge to which eminent sons; daughters and scholars of Gwong should rise up to by sponsoring or undertaking serious study of the language.

1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The English language occupies such an important position in the society in general and in Nigeria in particular. English language was and to some extent, still is considered as a prestige language, a language of social mobility. It occupies an enviable position, as it is the language of instruction from senior primary school to the tertiary level of education.

In Nigeria, the English language is the language for government at both state and national levels; it is the language for the modernized commerce, industry and other economic enterprises, for education particularly at post primary and tertiary levels; for inert-ethnic, cross cultural and institutional communication and diplomacy.

Even though there are strong advocates for an indigenous language to be used across the country for official business in place of English, this possibility is still some way off. Indeed, English is Nigeria's lingua franca spoken by the mass media, courts, institutions of learning, etc. Even among world languages, English occupies an enviable position in the international circles. It means therefore, that any Nigerian child who wants to participate fully in the affairs of this world has to be proficient in English language.

However, (Atsu 1986), "in spite of all the functions outlined above and many others, English language is in serious crises in Nigeria". Students hardly

meet the standard required thereby failing their examinations and losing chances of admission to higher institutions and losing job opportunities.

1.4 STANDARD OF PERFORMANCE IN ENGLISH AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Recent pronouncements and statistics of the WASSCE/GCE/SSCE result show a steady decline in the performance of students in English language. The Performance of those students who even passed the English language paper leaves one in doubt as to whether they were really the ones who wrote the examination. Despite the efforts made by groups and individuals to avert this trend of affairs, things unfortunately appear to be deteriorating.

The situation becomes even more disturbing when one realizes “that English language being a medium of science and technology is the language of development and the ability to use it qualifies one for entry into an international community of wealth and influence” Parren (1968) in Atsu (1986).

Brain (1977) supporting this assertion says succinctly that,

It has been found that a school certificate with a credit in English language does not necessarily mean that a student has the linguistic equipment required for the work at this level.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Nigeria’s language policy emphasizes the teaching of the mother tongue or indigenous languages as a means of preserving the people’s culture and promoting national unity. With regard to this, it stresses the need for developing standard orthographies in many Nigerian languages before textbooks based on

them can be produced. It is in the light of the foregoing that the mother tongue and English described as L1 and L2 respectively are taught side by side.

The performance of many Nigerian students in English language is below expectation as earlier discussed. The situation in Kagoma zone where most of the Gong students are found is very pathetic and paints a gloomy picture for learners of English in the area.

The standard of performance of a broad segment of the population of Nigerian students in the English language examination (both in the public examination as well as in the classroom) at all levels seems to be getting poorer year after year rather than improving. This, L.A. Boadi et al (1977) seems to confirm by saying:

.... There is a good deal of evidence to show that the present standards of English teaching in our schools are not high. And not only this; it would seem that they are actually becoming lower rather than improving.

Hardly would one read a couple of sentences by a pupil in the secondary school without recording a number of weaknesses which, Boadi et al, quoting from the examiners reports on the performance of students in public examinations include (among many others) “weak handling of sentence structure” and “errors of agreement”.

Among the factors expected to be responsible for this unfortunate situation is the problem of interference, one of which Tiffen (1968) identifies as “interference from the grammar and lexis of the mother tongue” with major areas of difficulty including (among others) “the use of countable and

uncountable nouns, articles...” accompanied by problems of choosing the appropriate pre- or post modifiers of the nominals.

Many causes of students’ poor performance in English have been identified by various committees, examiners, teachers and individuals and recommendations were made on how to remedy the situation based on the identified problems, yet the situation still seems to be a far cry. One area where little attention has been paid is that of how the system of the mother tongue interferes with the acquisition and use of a second language. Some language experts have argued that an effective way of overcoming the problem of interference is to undertake a contrastive study of the two languages - the mother tongue and the target - in our case, Gyong and English. Through such study, areas of difficulties will be identified and means by which to surmount those difficulties can be devised, for example, by restructuring textbooks and rearranging instructional materials for teaching and learning of the target language – English.

This research therefore concentrates on a contrastive analysis of some factors, which seem to affect the performance of Gyong learners of English, particularly the noun phrase which has been found or observed to be very problematic – the problem of interference, one of which Tiffen (1968), identifies as “interference from the grammar and lexis of the mother tongue” with major areas of difficulty including, “the use of countable and uncountable nouns, articles...” accompanied by problems of choosing the appropriate pre or post modifiers of the nominals.

Furthermore, the noun phrase is considered problematic to Gyong learners of English because it is different from English with respect to number and gender

distinctions and therefore creates problems of choosing the appropriate pre – or post –modifiers of English nominals.

1.6 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The central aim of this study is to contrast the noun phrase in English and Gyong languages since adequate research has not been carried out on Gyong language especially in the context of grammar and orthography. The study intends to:

1. Assist teachers of Gyong learners of English to identify areas that present learning problems to their selection of the most appropriate methods and materials for effective teaching for better results.
2. Identify areas of similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages under study.
3. To provide concrete ways for effective teaching of Gyong language, especially the noun phrase, in view of the emphasis being placed on the learning of indigenous languages in Nigeria.

1.7 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Various aspects of the two languages Gyong and English are compared and contrasted in this study with a view to predicting the areas that Gyong learners of English are likely to have difficulties. Attempts will be made to construct test items based on these predictions in order to ascertain their validity or otherwise. These predictions are based on areas where there are marked differences between the two languages. Areas that have been discovered to have

glaringly marked difference and which are envisaged to cause learning problems to Gyong learners of English include:

1. *Pluralisation* of nouns in English. The predictable problems are likely to be found in such areas as:

- En-plurals *examples; oxen, brethren, children*
- Foreign-plurals “ *locus – loci, stimuli, formulae, indices, criteria*
- -Es-plurals “ *-series – a series, species*
- -S-plurals “ *-goods, troops, brains, shorts, alms*
- Invariable plurals “ *classics, economics, mathematics, mumps*

2. The absence of the *indefinite article* in Gyong language is likely to be a predictable source of difficulty because of its existence in English. In this respect the predictable areas of difficulty include:

- The-a- article *examples; a paper, a kettle, a car, a house*
- The –an- article “ *an egg, an orange, an intruder*
- The-o- article “ *Appearance can be deceptive, Things aren't what they used to be, spring, winter, summer, autumn*
- The-the- article “ *the sun, the sky, the stars*

3. Although *demonstratives* exist in both Gyong and English, they operate differently. Therefore, the demonstratives could also be a predictable source of difficulty to Gyong learners of English.

- This These
- That Those

e.g. This – Tula mboh kiwyeh?

Cloths who this?

Whose cloth is this?

These – Ki tula mboh kike?

Clothes who these?

Whose clothes are those?

That – Ki hyah ngu na kike nu

House you is that

That is your house

Those – Wyou hyah sho fimi

These/those houses belong me

Those/these houses are mine

4. Another significant area of difficulty in the two languages is the use of the *genitives*. English language has two, which are not available in Gyong language. These, therefore, are likely to be a source of predictable difficulty to Gyong learners of English.

- The -of- genitive example the hop of the wheel, the title of the book.

5. *Subject-verb agreement* is another likely source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English, particularly

- Plural subject with plural verb agreement e.g.
Mboh suh Gwong
They is Gwong
They are Gwong
- Singular subject with singular verb agreement e.g.

Nga suh dah mi
She is mother my
She is my mother

6. The use of the *relative pronouns* who or whom is predictable source of difficulty e.g.

- A suh ghile nga wute
It is the girl she beat me
It is the girl who beat me
- Ngu rurota moh mboh?
You talking with who?
With whom are you talking?

7. Since Gyong does not have *quantifiers*, the use of quantifiers could also cause some difficulty for English learner's e.g

- Nita gwong in dah
People plenty on farm
There are plenty people on the farm
- Kibi ngu suh yetsi?
Money you how much?
How much money do you have?

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Therefore, this study will seek to find answers to the following questions:

1. Does Gyong share the same notion of gender as English? If not, does the difference constitute a source of learning difficulty for learners?

2. What rules does Gyong operate for pluralizing nouns as distinct from English?
3. What are the differences between English and Gyong systems of noun modification?
4. Why do Gyong learners of English appear to encounter problems in;
 - Identifying nouns derived by stress?
 - Deriving nouns from verbs and adjectives?

To illustrate these questions briefly, let us consider first;

1.8.0 GYONG NOUN CLASSES

This is, without mincing words, the first conscious attempt ever made by anyone, whether Gyong or non-Gyong speakers, to identify and classify nouns in Gyong language. As a result of this situation, therefore, this study may not, as a pioneer study claim any infallibility in the classification to be made below. However, it is hoped that the classification being made here will serve as a model or point of departure for other scholars.

Gyong language, like Bete and Bantu (and unlike English) is a class language. According to Greenberg's classification of the linguistic families in Africa, contained in Alexander (1967), Gyong belongs to the Niger-kordofanian (Negro-African) language family. There appears to be some traces of noun classes in G a class language, which may be arbitrarily numbered 1-8 in this research work, but slightly different from Bantu which relies mostly on prefixation and infixation, Bete on prefixation alone and the Gombe dialect of the Fula language on suffixation, for the classification of their nouns. Gyong language appears to use prefixation and tone switching mainly. The stem of the noun is the constant

element while the prefix undertakes inflectional changes to express number to indicate the class to which the noun belongs, for example:

1. Kidah – farm ridah – farms
2. Landon – enemy bolandon – enemies

From the examples above, it can be seen that /ki/ has changed to /ri/, /l/ to /bo/ respectively for the plural. Every noun belongs to a distinctive class. The nouns are placed in particular class in accordance with the basic prefix. These together with the tone switching class and the non-pluralizing class form the noun classes in Gyong. The nouns are divided into parts, singular and plural under one number.

The form of class prefix determines the form of the pronoun and all concords with the nouns without any reference to the sex indicated by the noun. A majority of noun stems in Gyong are monosyllabic. A few are disyllabic and a very negligible number are polysyllabic. No sex gender is directly recognized in the classes and categories represented by the personal pronouns. The pronouns make no distinction between he/she/it, them (masculine) and them (feminine) of the categories of nominal. A table to illustrate the various classes of the prefix is followed by a class-by-class description of the various noun classes. This is to help clarify the discussion in the Gyong noun classes. Nouns in the classes below are realized through prefixation.

TABLE 1.0 TABLE OF PREFIXES

<i>NOUN CLASS</i>	<i>SINGULAR</i>	<i>PLURAL</i>
1.	Ki	ri
2.	Root	bo + root
3.	Ki	-
4.	Root	bi + root
5.	Pluralisation	by tone switching
6.	/o/	morphemed

1.8.1 NOUN CLASS 1

Parts of the body

English

Singular

Mouth

Breast

Back

Plural

mouths

breasts

backs

Gyong

Singular

kinyu

kibheing

kimah

Plural

rinyu

ribheing

rimah

Names of nature and other phenomena

English

Singular

Death

Bush

Farm

Plural

deaths

bushes

farms

Singular

kikpoh

kikot

kidah

Plural

rikpyiya

rikot

ridah

Examples of concordial agreement in this noun class

1. Kinyu mi soh kiyini

(noun phrase) (v) (adv)

Mouth is one

I have one mouth

2. Rinyu ni soh kiyini

Mouths our is one

Our mouths are one

1.8.2 NOUN CLASS 2

ROOT/PREFIX bo + root

Human Beings Kinship

Father – fathers

khye – bo khyee

Mother – mothers

da'ah – bo da'ah

Friend – friends

ndohk – bo ndohk

Rival – rivals

keewyup – bo keewyup

Animals/birds/reptiles

Goat – goats

thou – bo thou

Dog – dogs

dyou – bo dyou

Monkey – monkeys

kyah – bo kyah

Snake – snakes

gyus – bo gyus

Bee – bees

yoik – bo yoik

Plants

Groundnut – groundnuts

whyei – bo whyei

Beniseed – beniseeds

pyoing – bo pyoinya

Bitter-leaf – bitter-leaves tyus – bo tyus

Examples of concordial agreement in this noun class

1. Whyei wyu whong bo tah
 Groundnut it is good to eat
 Groundnut is good for eating
2. Bowhyei dari hate risha
 Groundnuts did not yield last year
 Groundnuts didn't yield last year

1.8.3 NOUN CLASS 3

Ki + root/root

Parts of the body

Eye – eyes	kisuu – shuu
Knee – knees	kilung – rungnya
Hand – hands	kibok – thyok
Leg – legs	kpela – kikipela
Ear – ears	khitung – tyung

Miscellaneous

Spear – spears	kipan – kpan
Debt – debts	kifee – feeya
Room – rooms	kigbout – gbout
Ridge – ridges	kitok – tyok
House – houses	kihah – hyah
Bow – bows	kitong – tyong

Examples of Concordial agreement for this noun class

1. Kifee bikyu bina

Debt bad thing

Debt is a bad thing

2. Ki bok ku gwong

Hand your is big

Your hand is big

3. Boka dak chita

Hands nothing strong

Hands are not strong

1.8.4 NOUN CLASS 4

Root + prefix bi + root

Miscellaneous

Farmer – farmers

biwyuh – bi wyuhyuhwa

Follower – followers

dyoh – bi dyohla

Gossip – gossips

rori – rorori

Blacksmith – blacksmiths

binah – bi-nyakinah

Beggar – beggars

fen – feen

Examples of Concordial agreement in this noun class

1. Biwyuh na kpou

A farmer that died

That farmer died

2. Biwyuhwyuhwa nat biwhawhana

Farmers better than butchers

Farmers are better than butchers

1.8.5 NOUN CLASS 5

Nouns that pluralize by switch in tone (from H to L, e.t.c)

Miscellaneous

Ribs – ribs	fyam – fyaam
Stone – stones	tyay – tyaah
Mountain – mountains	gyou – gyooou
Wild animal – wild animals	nyam-kidah – nyam-kidah
Fish – fish (es)	shas – shas
Star – stars	jit – jit
Snake – snakes	gyuse – gyuse
Granary – granaries	gyom – gyom

Examples of Concordial agreement for this noun class

1. Fyam mi thun
Rib my break
My rib broke
2. Fyam bo hyeh chit nyat thi whey
Ribs fathers stronger than that of sons
Fathers' ribs are stronger than those of sons
3. Gyusa shoh bin bi teelee
Snake it is something fearful
A snake is something to be feared
4. Gyusa ki fyet nyita
Snakes they kill people
Snakes kill people

1.8.6 NOUN CLASS 6

Non-pluralizing nouns

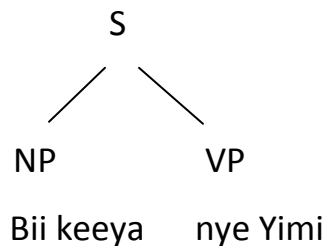
Miscellaneous

Water	kimalang
Millet	mnala
Salt	tok
Smoke	kizong
Milk	kibeing
Sick	ki ghale
Food	binyhe
Soil	kibip
Dew	myeng

1. The Gyong Sentence

a. Simple sentence: Bii keeya nye Yimi

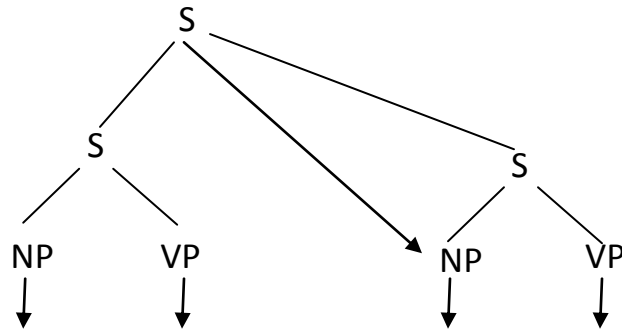
- Wife a saw Yimi
- A woman saw Yimi



b. Compound sentence:

- ki langbah boh zuk bin zyuka moh rewyeka boh zi kikipela

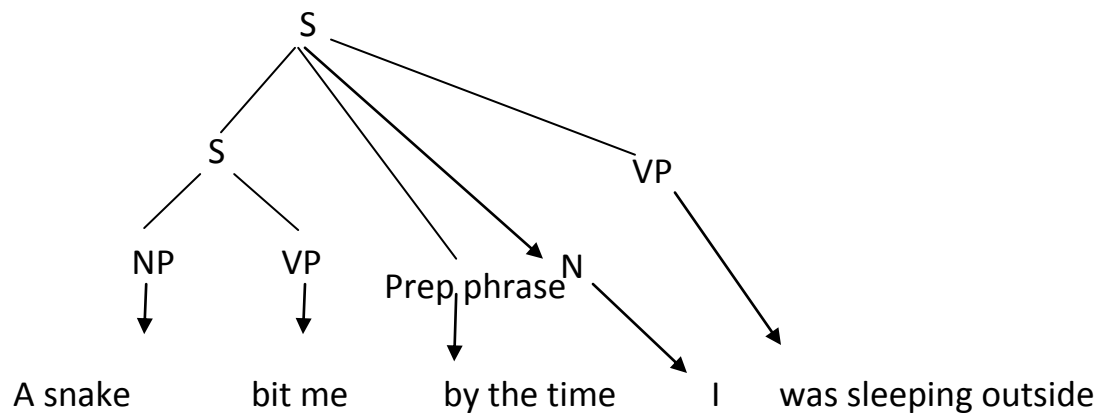
- Elders they driving cars but children they trekking
- The old men are driving cars but the children are trekking.



ki langbah boh zuk bin zyuka moh rewyeka - boh zi kikipela

c. Complex sentence:

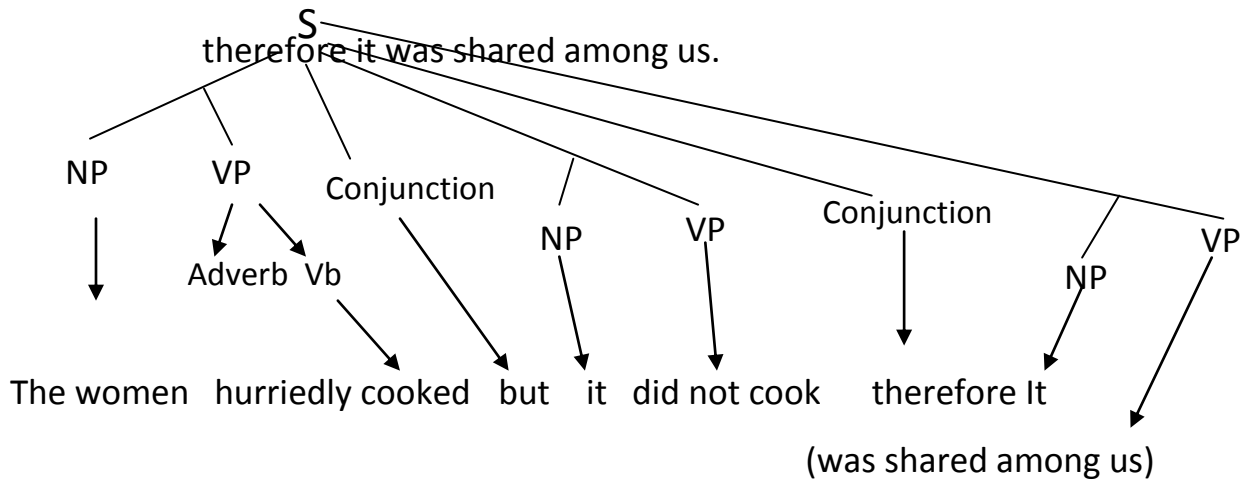
- Yoo gyusa keni mi, byama na mi boh lan in kung nga
- The snake bit me time at I was sleeping outside
- A snake bit me, at the time I was sleeping outside.



d. Multiple sentences:

- Bii keeya pila saik nyama a nyama dya byile yoo boh gap ni
- Woman hurriedly cooked meat but meat did not cook therefore it shared us

- The women hurriedly cooked the meat but it did not cook



1.9 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY AND SIGNIFICANCE

Stern, (1991:120) stated that:

Historical and comparative linguistics attempted to describe and explain the historical changes which languages undergo and to build up scientifically attested knowledge of the evolution of languages and dialects and the relations among them. The scholars compared language forms of ancient and modern languages, described the changes (“sound shifts”) that occurred and formulated explanations or ‘laws’ to account for these changes.

By this, they intend to;

--- draw attention to regularities in the relation among languages by making comparisons between the students’ language and the target language.

The noun phrase is constantly in use in most languages generally and particularly in Gyong and English. Due to the changes involved in its various forms, it has been found to pose problems to second language learners – Gong learners of English in particular. As illustrated above, these problems are more

pronounced in the areas of noun pluralisation, spellings of inflected forms of nouns, the use of possessive and concord (noun/verb agreement).

The continued failure in the standard of performance of Nigerian students in English language at all levels is a matter of great concern to individuals and public organizations interested in education in the country. The aspirations of many promising individuals have been thwarted by their inability to meet the national standard set for English language thereby resulting in a twist in their destiny, with the attendant heartaches and frustrations.

1. This study is intended to suggest ways in which the standard of performance of Nigerian students in English in general and that of Gyong learners of English in particular can be improved.
2. It is hoped that the results of this research will assist teachers of Gyong learners of English to identify areas that present learning problems to their students and to serve as a guide to their selection of the most appropriate methods and materials for effective teaching for better results.
3. It is also hoped to be an added contribution in the field of contrastive linguistics analysis, as it will hopefully provide additional insights into the problem we are concerned with.
4. It will assist textbooks writers and curriculum planners in selection and sequencing of materials and methods of instruction to Gyong learners of English and those of other languages that share similar characteristics with Gyong.

This study may also serve as a catalyst on which those interested in the development of Gyong language could carry out further research on other aspects of its grammar.

1.10 SCOPE AND DELIMITATIONS

Owing to the constraint on time and the diverse nature of the noun-phrases in the two languages in contact (English and Gyong), it will not be possible to exhaust all the areas covered by the noun-phrases. Ideally, one should attempt to describe broader areas of Gyong language, given that not much work has been done on its grammar as a whole but since we are mainly concerned with the problems of the Gyong learners of English, the limited area chosen for this study could serve both our descriptive and pedagogical purposes.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK..... X

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This research is undertaken from the applied linguistics perspectives. Consequently, a structural approach involving the use of the theory of contrastive analysis is adopted. The current study adopts the approach of Bloomfield and others. The choice of structural grammar is predicated on the fact that structuralism seems to be a viable option for language study.

Structural linguistics is based on the idea that language has structures/form. It emphasizes the uniqueness of the structural system of individual languages. In addition, this school believes that grammar should be studied as a true science that is, from scientific and objective perspective in order to describe language properly.

According to Headbloom in Ubahakwe (1979), the basic practice of contrastive analysis is to first write a description of a particular subset of each language to be compared (that is, description of the phonology, morphology or syntax). 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.

There are many languages and groups of languages in which affixes with noun states constitute a major criterion for dividing nouns into a number of noun classes. Welmers (1973), cited in Atsu (1986) observes that: the nature and function of these noun classes, and to some extent, their form, show a number of

striking similarities even when languages belonging to distinct related groups are compared.

In continuation of her analysis of noun classification, Atsu (1986) states that Vall (1974) has recorded for the Ndall language 21 noun classes, which he describes as being:

1. Distinguished morphologically on formal grounds by characteristic prefixes that are affixed to the noun stem e.g

Ming	-	<u>bo</u> -ming	————→	mother	-	mothers
Khye	-	<u>bo</u> -khye	————→	father	-	fathers
Zom	-	<u>b</u> -zom	————→	in-law	-	in-laws
<u>K</u> ikpok	-	kpok	————→	hand	-	hands
<u>K</u> ikot	-	kyot	————→	forest	-	forests
<u>K</u> i tuong	-	tyoung	————→	ear	-	ears

2. On the level of syntax by the occurrence of certain associated sets of concordial affixes that operate the system of grammatical agreements e.g.

- a. Kisitee kho gbah (tree the it fall) the tree fell.
- b. Yo shitee yo gbah (trees they fell) the trees fell.

Still citing those who have made significant contributions in the area of noun classification in various African languages, Atsu (1986) states that Arnott (1970) in his discussion of nominal system of Fula has identified 25 classes marked by distinctive morphological elements while Doke and Mofekeng (1957) described seven noun classes in the southern Sotho language.

In a similar vein, Western man and Bryan (1970) recorded four noun classes for Kebu language. They said that the nouns in Kebu have suffix, sometimes also a prefix in the singular, prefix and suffix in the plural e.g.

Nouns with prefix

ādek	-	waist
ābelem	-	tongue
mbali	-	cat

Nouns with suffix

• ki gbouh	-	byouwa
a hole		holes
• gyoum	-	gyouma
barn		barns

Nouns with prefix and suffix in the plural

• fee	-	fyeeya
debts		debts
• yoik	-	yoika
bees		bees

2.1 THE NOUN PHRASE IN ENGLISH

It is necessary, both for grammatical and semantic reasons, to see nouns as falling into different sub-classes. This is easily demonstrated by taking the four nouns.

Kano, cow, furniture and cake and considering the extent to which it is possible for each to appear as head of a noun phrase operating as object in the following sentences;

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Kano	cow	furniture	cake
I saw* (the kano	the cow	the furniture	the cake
I saw* (a kano	a cow	*a furniture	a cake
I saw* (some kano	*some cow	some furniture	some cake
I saw (kanos	cows	*furnitures	cakes

The difference between columns (1) with its four impossible usages and columns (4), which are all possible, indicates the degree of variation between classes.

Nouns in columns (2), (3), and (4) are common nouns but there are important differences within this class. Nouns, which behave like cow in column two above, for example; desk, table, spoon, chair e.t.c, which must be seen as individual countable entities and cannot be viewed as undifferentiated mass, are called count nouns.

Those nouns conforming like furniture to the pattern in column three, for example; water, warmth, oil, altitude, sand must by contrast be seen as an undifferentiated mass or continuum, and we refer to them as non-count nouns.

Finally in column four, we have nouns which combine the characteristics of count and non-count nouns, for example; cake, stone, paper e.t.c; that is, we can view stone as the non-count material as in column (3) constituting the entity, a stone as in column (2) which can be picked up from a pile of stones and individually thrown.

Categorization of count and non-count nouns cuts across the traditional distinction between abstract nouns, which is broadly immaterial nouns like

beauty, justice, wisdom and joy, which are broadly tangible nouns like pot, lamp, and bottle e.t.c.

While abstract nouns may be count like remark or non-count like beauty, there is a considerable degree of overlap between abstract and non-count noun. This does not proceed from nature but is language specific. Here are examples of nouns that are non-count in English but may be count nouns in some other languages.

Progress, sunshine, safety, parking, poetry, moonlight, anger, smoking, violence, hospitality e.t.c.

Another categorization that cuts across the count and non-count distinction will identify a small class of nouns that behave like most adjectives in being gradable. Though such degree nouns are chiefly non-count, for examples:

His acts of great foolishness – his acts were very foolish. They can also be count nouns e.g. the children are such rogues.

When we turn to the large class of nouns, which can be both count and non-count, we see that there is often considerable difference in meaning involved and that this corresponds broadly to concreteness or particularization in the count usage and abstractness or generalization in the non-count usage. These are examples of count

Musa has had many difficulties

Dorcas was a beauty in her youth

The lamps were eating quietly

Nyesu has had many old experiences.

NON-COUNT:

Kyana had beauty in her youth

Light travels faster than sound

Dahiun has not had much difficulty

This job requires experience

In many occasions the difference between lamb (count) and (non-count) is derived by separate lexical items: e.g.

- 1) A sheep - (some) mutton
- 2) A table - (some) furniture
- 3) A calf - (some) veal
- 4) A loaf - (some) bread

2.1.1 SIMPLE SENTENCE

1. Numma yee dyari tuk.

God called darkness night.

2. Neeta nge yo ghywong.

Man saw it good

2.1.2 COMPOUND SENTENCE

1. Byami yimi zapa mo te wyuhwa.

Byami like beans but hates farming.

2. Pama kizee kidah a nga ki zee hwah kama.

Pama goes to farm and he goes to drink alcohol.

2.1.3 MULTIPLE SENTENCES

1. Kihah mi gong, ko diri mo kasa, a neeta tsi.

House my big and it is far from road and people few

My house is big and it is far from the road and it has few people

2. Nuwa dak ruta, nga dak bichit mo nga towa bina

Nuwa doesn't talk, she doesn't look for trouble but she is greedy

Nuwa is not a talkative, she is not a troubleshooter but she is greedy

2.1.4 COMPLEX SENTENCE

1. Nyee mi khimalanga ko leya neeta, Makarfi lout me bo sim byou khimalanga

Seeing I water is less people, Makarfi said that they dug well water

Seeing that people are running short of water, Makarfi advised that wells be dug

2. Ngu ba lok myemyeya, whok ghesa, bori fyang ngu fyenga

You finish schooling, get a job; you will be paid monthly salary

When you finish schooling, get a job; you will be paid monthly salary

2.1.5 COMPOUND – COMPLEX SENTENCE

1. Whok kibi ghya, mo fyeta fyem, nye byamana doh ni byong

Getting money difficult but spending is easy, seeing time that we in

Getting money is difficult but spending is easy, seeing what time we are in.

Whereas English has many conjunctions to link sentences, Gyong has only two thus – a for 'and', and mo for 'but'. This may be a problem for learners of Gyong in dealing with English co-coordinating conjunctions.

2.2 THE SYSTEM OF NOUN PHRASE (NP) IN ENGLISH

The noun phrase refers to the participants in a syntactic structure as described by the verb. The noun phrase is headed by either of these lexical categories – the noun or the pronoun. For example;

1. The ugly old fool will never stop talking (NP)
2. The room to let was taken by a bachelor (NP)
3. The tall man sits under the tree every morning (NP)

We have three sentences above in which certain words have been underlined. In sentence one; we have about four words underlined of which “fool” is the head. All other words there are either an adjective or a determiner. The word “fool” is a noun. In sentence two, four words were underlined; the head word is room to let and it is a noun phrase. In sentence three, three words have been underlined of which “man” is the head while every morning is adverbial.

The above sentences have shown that we can have a group of words of which there must be a noun or a pronominal as a noun phrase. Adjectives can also be used as heads of a noun phrase. These adjectives will contextually require determiners. For example,

1. The rich will always be with us
2. The masses have been neglected

In the above underlined phrases, we have the adjective “rich” and “masses” as the heads of the phrase, while “the” serve as the determiner. The complexity of the noun phrase varies. Other modifiers such as determiner and adjectives may optionally modify the head noun. E.g. NP [(Det) – (Premodification) Head (Post modification)].

The above test frame simply suggests that a noun phrase will optionally have a determiner, a pre-modification and a post-modification but compulsorily it should have a ‘head’, which can either be a noun or a pronoun or even an adjective.

2.3 THE VERB PHRASE IN ENGLISH

Traditionally, the verb phrase is referred to as the predicate because it contains the 'verb', which is the sentence predicator. Naturally, the verb phrase is headed by the verb. This obligatory head – the verb – may or may not have complements. For examples:

VERB ONLY

Play _____ He plays

Eat _____ He eats

VERB + PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

He ran into the house

She talked to him harshly.

VERB + NOUN PHRASE

Frank kicked the ball

Idris may have cooked the food e.t.c.

The main function of the verb phrase, which is the predicate of the sentence, is to state what the subject (NP) in the sentence did.

The verb phrase also modifies in a specific manner the main verb of the sentence e.g.

- a. He killed the cat
- b. She ran into the house
- c. You would have asked him
- d. They will come tomorrow
- e. He has gone home

In sentence 'a' and 'b' ,the verb phrase tell us what subjects(NP) did while in sentence 'c', 'd' and 'e' the auxiliaries and modal auxiliary indicate the tense of the main verbs.

2.4 THE STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN PHRASES IN GYONG.

2.4.1 THE NOUN AS A SUBJECT IN GYONG

The noun can function as the subject of a sentence. Examples of this are as follows;

1. Dyoh kpyoh
Dog die – N – V
A dog is dead.
2. Kimalangnga bikyu.
Water the not good – (N – det – adj.)
The water is not good.
3. Kihah kena gwong
House this big (N – dem – adj.)
This house is big.

2.4.2 THE NOUN AS AN OBJECT

Besides functioning as a subject, the noun in Gyong can also function as an object. For example:

1. Mi yimi binyhe
I like food (S – V – O)
I like food
2. Nyesu suuik tyay (S – V – O)
Nyesu carry stone
Nyesu carried a stone.
3. Pama hwah kam (S – V – O)

Pama drink wine

Pama drank wine

It can be observed that the Gyong word order or syntax here is similar to that of English.

2.4.3 NOUN AS A PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT IN GYONG

Examples of the noun head as a prepositional complement are as follows:

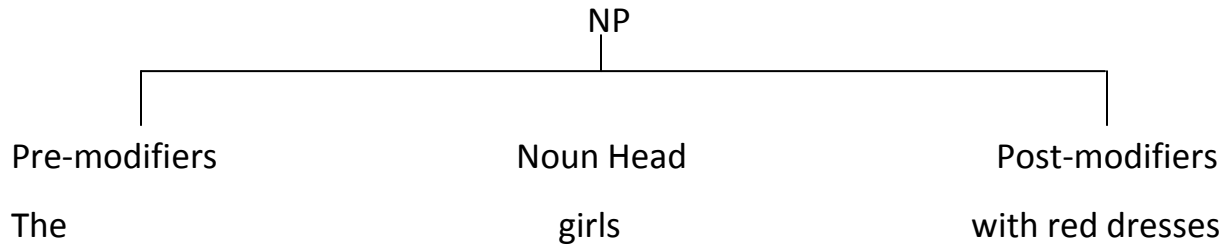
1. Kyola a myeya doh tsinye nya ri cheng kowa
Kyola is learning how to she will write a letter
Kyola is learning how to write a letter
2. Ngu de dye myamya nga moh bine nga ri ruta
You can give be sure of what he will say
You never be sure of what he has to say
3. Ni lout moh hyak righeh
We talked with hope a head
We talked with a ray of hope

2.5 MODIFICATION STRUCTURE IN GYONG AND ENGLISH

Similarly, modifiers in Gyong language often occur after the headword. For example; 'The tall handsome basketballer is a Yoruba'. The noun phrase is the whole of 'the tall handsome basketballer' which can be replaced with a single name, Banjo is a Yoruba, or with a pronoun 'the'.

The noun phrase is typically made up of a noun head which can be accompanied by one or more structural items (e.g. articles, determiners, adjectives etc) known as modifiers. These modifiers may come before or after the

noun head. Thus, those which come before the noun head become the pre-modifiers while those which come after, are called post-modifiers. This can be illustrated as;



2.5.1 MODIFICATION STRUCTURES IN GYONG

The structural possibilities in Gyong are as follows:

1. Modifier + Head ----- MH
2. Modifier + Head + Quantifier ----- MHQ
3. Head + Quantifier ----- HQ
4. Modifier + Head + Modifier ----- M + H + M

1. MH ----- Modifier + Head can be realized in such structures as in the following:

- ❖ Kpona gyashaka jijama
Small masquerade dance (A.N.V)
The small masquerade danced
- ❖ Kizubuk bi kheyba ba nyeh
Old woman she came here
An old woman came here

2. MHQ ----- Modifier + Head + Quantifier

- ❖ Ni gus bonyu biyita tat (N.V.N.Q)
We bought chickens black three

We bought three black chickens

❖ Mboh whot khibogbok bighaka nang

They beat big men four

They beat four big men (N.V.Adj. N.Q)

❖ Kikpong kihah kena sizha. (Ad. N.V)

Big house it destroyed

The big house is destroyed.

3. The third structural possibility in Gyong is Head only.

❖ Nyata gyong. (N.Adj.)

Village big

The village is big

❖ Kisiteh gba rhisha

Tree fell last year (N.V.Adv)

A tree fell last year.

❖ Jejum nga suuik lasa

Jejum she took mirror (N.V.N)

Jejum took the mirror.

4. H + Q Head + Quantifier

The following structures can also be realized:

❖ Nyazum fet nyam kidah

N V N Adj.

Nyazum killed meat bush (N.V.Adj)

Nyazum killed a bush meat

❖ Nyela suuik tyuwa fya.

Nyela carried mortars two (N.V.N Adj)

Nyela carried two mortars

❖ Ni ndak ruma

We do not have farms (N.V.N)

We don't have farms.

A fifth structural possibility is modifier – Head – modifier. (MHM) which does not exist in English. Examples of this are;

a. Nyenyeng khime mi mbo hwah

Sour pap I am drinking.

I am drinking a sour pap. (Adj. N. N. V)

b. Ngu yimi kpyou tsit fi risha

You want seed yam of last year.

You want last year's yam seed.

c. Benza na ghezi

Pawpaw this is ripe (N.D.V)

This pawpaw is ripe.

2.5.2 STRUCTURAL POSSIBILITIES IN ENGLISH.

Zenuske in Akut (1990) claims that the function of the noun phrase in English may be categorized into four different classes.

1. Acting as the subject of a sentence, for example;

The teacher is sick

The girl addressed him rudely.

2. As the object of the sentence. E.g.

She is in the University

He has not seen his son.

3. As compliment of the sentence. E.g.

Dyanet crowned him chief.

She became the headmistress of the new school

4. As the prepositional compliment of the sentence. E.g.

He lives near the University

Kyana is always by my side.

Quirk and Greenbaun (1973) describe the headword as the word around which other components cluster and which dictates concord and for the most part other kinds of congruence with the rest of the sentence outside the noun phrase.

1. The headword may be a personal name as can be realized in structures like:

❖ Nyenum cooks

❖ Fana kyot is a village in Gong

❖ Byami likes beans

2. The headword may be a pronoun. E.g.

❖ He eats in class

❖ It barks but does not bite

❖ They sell grains.

3. They could be pre-modifiers and used as follows:

❖ Five hefty looking men snatched his car

❖ The tall fair girl is my daughter

4. Post modifiers could be realized in such sentences as:

❖ The girl who sang in the Church is my niece.

❖ The house by the road is a shop

❖ The car that was stolen is mine.

2.5.3 **STRUCTURAL POSSIBILITIES OF THE NOUN PHRASE**

There are four structural possibilities of noun phrase, which include:

1. The modifier + Headword + Qualifier, e.g.
 - a. The yellow bird in the cage flew out
 - b. The tattered shirt hanging on a robe was burnt.
2. Modifier + Headword
 - a. The goat is dead
 - b. A man chased
3. Headword in proper nouns
 - a. Kam, Chet, Zala, Khimbus, Chom.
4. Headword + Qualifier e.g.
 - a. Students in the class
 - b. Vehicles on the road.

2.6 **DETERMINERS IN GYONG**

In some African languages, determiners function according to their noun classes. Gyong is similar in a way but slightly different as some determiners occur with more than one noun class. Examples of determiners in Gyong. ‘The’ takes the following forms:

- a. Ko the
 Ko ki sitee (tree the) the tree
 Ko kitonga (bow the) the bow
 Yoh shitee (trees the) the trees
 Yoh tyonga (bows the) the bows

2.7 DETERMINERS IN ENGLISH NOUNS

There are six classes of determiners with respect to their co-occurrence with the noun class singular count e.g. bottle – bottles (plural count) and non count nouns such as furniture.

	Count	Non-count
Singular	Bottle	Furniture
Plural	Bottles	

A. The possessives (my, yours, his, our, hers, their, for example, which, what, some (stressed) and any (unstressed)).

B. Zero article e.g.

They need furniture

Some (unstressed)

Any (unstressed)

Enough

C. This, that

D. These, those

E. A/n, every, each, either

F. Much

a. It should be noted that many of the determiners could be pronominal e.g. either book/either of the books.

You can have either

b. Every/can co-occur with possessives: e.g.

His every statement may mean each of his statements.

2.8 THE CONCEPT OF NUMBER IN GYONG

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) consider number in English thus; “the English number system comprises singular, which denotes one and plural, which denotes more than one.” Gyong and to a large extent some African languages have a similar concept of number to that of English. The difference here may be found in the way nouns realize their plurals in different languages. In some languages, prefixes are added to the stem of the word and in others there may be a change in the consonants or vowels of some words. These changes could occur either in the singular or plural form of the word and this is how the noun classes in most African languages are determined.

2.9 NUMBER IN ENGLISH NOUNS

As earlier stated, the English number system comprises singular, which denote “one”, and plural, which denotes “more than one”. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns are variable, occurring with either singular or plural number (boy-boys), or have invariable plural (cattle).

2.9.0. SINGULAR INVARIABLE NOUNS

Concrete mass nouns have no plurals; gold, furniture.

ABSTRACT NOUNS these have no plural – music, homework.

PROPER NOUNS

These take a singular verb and are in variable – the Niger, the Jos township stadium.

2.9.1 *INVARIABLE NOUNS ENDING WITH – S*

The following classes take a singular verb except where otherwise mentioned:

- a. News: the news is making the rounds in the village
- b. Subject names in ics (usually with singular verb) classics, economics, mathematics.
- c. Some proper nouns: Algiers, Wales, and Flanders.
- d. Some diseases: mumps, rickets, and measles.

2.9.2 *PLURAL INVARIABLE NOUNS*

Summation plurals.

Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts, which are joined, constitute summation plurals. Count ability can be imposed by means of a pair of; three pair of: glasses, trousers, shorts, pliers, socks, shoes, spectacles e.t.c

OTHER PLURALIA TANTUM IN – S

Among other ‘pluralia tantum’, that is nouns that only occur in the plural, the following nouns end in – S, in many cases however, there are forms without – S, sometimes with difference of meaning e.g.

Annals, arrears, ashes goods, brains, (intellect) wages, remains, thanks premises, wits, troops, funds, earnings e.t.c.

UNMARKED PLURALS

Cattle

Clergy (but also singular), gentry, people, (but regular when used to mean nation), police, youth (but regular when used to mean “young man”

2.9.3 *VARIABLE NOUNS*

Variable nouns have two forms, singular and plural, the singular being the form listed in dictionaries. (The vast majority of nouns are variable in this way and common) normally the plural (- S suffix) is fully predictable both in sound and spelling by the same rules as for the –S inflection of verbs.

➤ **COMPOUNDS**

Compounds form the plural in different ways but the most usual forms is pluralizing the last element of the word.

a. PLURAL IN THE FIRST ELEMENT

Spoonful	spoonsful
Grant-in-aid	grants-in-aid
Son-in-law	sons-in-law
Passer-by	passers-by

b. PLURAL IN BOTH FIRST AND LAST ELEMENT

Manservant	menservants
Woman doctor	women doctors
Gentleman farmer	gentlemen farmers

c. PLURAL IN LAST ELEMENT (WHICH IS THE NORMAL FORM)

Boy friend	boy friends
Grown up	grown ups
Fountain pen	fountain pens
Assistant director	assistant directors

➤ **IRREGULAR PLURALS**

These are unpredictable and have to be learned as individual items, in many cases, where foreign words are involved, it is helpful to know about pluralization in the relevant languages particularly Latin and Greek. Based on the pattern of

Analysis analyses

We can infer the correct plurals:

Axis axes

Basis bases

Crisis crises

Even then, we can rely on etymological criteria.

Plurals like areas and villas do not conform to the Latin pattern

(areae villae)

➤ **MUTATION**

Mutation involves a change of vowel in the following seven nouns:

❖ Tooth teeth

❖ Mouse mice

❖ Louse lice

❖ Foot feet

❖ Man men

❖ Woman women

❖ Goose geese

➤ **THE -EN PLURAL**

This occurs in three nouns

Brother brethren

Child children

Ox oxen

➤ **ZERO PLURAL**

Some nouns have the same spoken and writing form in both singular and plural. There is however a difference between invariable noun on the one hand which are either singular or plural and the zero plural noun on the other which are variable in taking both singular and plural; e.g.

INVARIABLE: this music is too loud (singular), or all the cattle are grazing in the field plural.

VARIBLE: both singular and plural e.g.

This sheep looks small.

All those sheep are mine.

➤ **ANIMAL NAMES**

Animal names often have zero plurals. They tend to be used partly by people who are especially concerned with animals, partly when the animals are referred to as game. Where there are two plurals, the zero plural is the more common in contexts of hunting e.g. we caught only a few fish, where as the regular plural is used to denote different individuals or species: e.g. the fishes of the Mediterranean.

Animal names that have the regular plural include the following:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
Bird	birds
Cow	cows
Dog	dogs
Rabbit	rabbits
Hen	hens

There are some animal name that may take both plurals i.e. the regular and the zero.

Examples:	crap	crabs	crab
	Duck	ducks	duck
	Reindeer	reindeers	reindeer
	Deer	deers	deer
	Moose	mooses	moose

There are however animal names that take only the zero plural e.g.

Sheep	sheep
Salmon	salmon
Grouse	grouse
Plaice	plaice

➤ **NATIONALITY NAMES**

Zero plurals occur with names in –ese

Chinese	Japanese, Lebanese
Vietnamese	Portuguese

Note that certain nationality and tribal names are sometimes used without /s/

Eskimo(s)	Vawaho(s)	Bedowin(s)
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2.9.4 QUANTITATIVE AND PARTITIVE NOUNS

Preceded by a numeral or other indication of number, these frequently have zero plurals. In general, the zero forms are relatively informal except as promodifiers (two hundred books)

➤ **ZERO PLURALS**

Two	{ dozen glasses Dozen of these glasses
Several	
	{ hundred books Hundred of those books

Many thousand insects

Five } million people
Million

Ten yoke of oxen

Two brace of partridges

A few billion stars

Ten score

➤ **REGULAR PLURALS**

Dozens of glasses

Hundreds of books

Thousands of insects

Billions of stars

Millions of people

It should be noted that nouns denoting measure, quantity e.t.c. normally have zero plural when they are premodifiers in noun phrases e.g.

A two-minute silence

A ten-naira note

A four footed ladder

A five-centimeter space

A six-kilometer track

➤ **NOUNS IN -S**

The following nouns end in -s

Alms – The beggar lives on alms

Barracks – I can't live in a barracks like this one

Means – Language is a means of communication

Works – Glass works, iron works

Headquarters – The headquarters is/are deserted

➤ **NOUNS IN -ES**

A few nouns in -es can be treated as singular or plural e.g.

He gave one series/two series of lectures.

These species are almost extinct in Africa.

➤ **FOREIGN PLURALS**

The foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are commoner's in technical usage whereas the -s plural is more natural in everyday languages; thus formulas (general) formulae (in mathematics) antennas (general and electronics) antennae (in biology).

The aim here is to survey systematically the main type of foreign plurals that are used in present-day English and to consider the extent to which a particular plural form is obligatory or optional. Most words having a particular foreign plural originated in the language mentioned in the heading.

NOUNS IN -US (LATIN) the foreign plural is -I e.g. stimulus – stimuli.

SINGULAR

REGULAR PLURAL (-USES)

Bonus

bonuses

Campus

campuses

Virus

viruses

Genius

geniuses

Chorus

choruses

Impetus

impetuses

Minus

minuses

Some foreign words take both the regular and foreign plurals, for example:

SINGULAR

REGULAR

FOREIGN

Fungus

funguses

fungi

Radius

radiuses

radii

Nucleus

nucleuses

nuclei

Focus

focuses

foci

Alumnus

alumni

Locus

loci

Genus

genera

NOUNS IN -A (LATIN)

SINGULAR

REGULAR

FOREIGN

Arena

arenas

Drama

dramas

Panacea

panaceas

Formula

formulas

formulae

Alumna

alumnae

Larva

larvae

NOUNS IN -UM

The foreign plural is -a

SINGULAR

REGULAR

FOREIGN

Album

albums

Asylum

asylums

Forum

forums

fora

Curriculum

curriculums

curricula

Ovum	ova
Stratum	strata

NOUNS IN –ex, ix (latin)

The foreign pluralist –ices

<i>SINGULAR</i>	<i>REGULAR</i>	<i>FOREIGN</i>
Apex	apexes	apices
Index	indexes	indices
Matrix	matrixes	matrices
Appendix	appendixes	appendices

2.10 GENDER IN GYONG

There is no basic difference between sex and gender in Gyong. The existing gender classes include personal masculine and feminine, personal dual gender, collective nouns. A detailed discussion with examples is as follows:

2.10.1 PERSONAL MASCULINE/FEMININE NOUNS

Gyong unlike English, which has two classes – the morphologically unmarked nouns as a first class and the morphologically marked class, has only one class – the morphologically unmarked nouns example;

Khak/kee	-	male/female
Bikhak	-	man
HyeH	-	father
Bikee	-	woman
Daah/ming	-	mother

2.10.2 PERSONAL DUAL GENDER

Nguna	-	fool
-------	---	------

Fep	-	thief
Ladon	-	enemy
Tseen	-	visitor
Gana	-	slave
Bibok	-	traditional doctor

2.10.3 COMMON GENDER

Rhyewhek	-	child
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2.10.4 COLLECTIVE NOUNS e.g.

Kyuma	-	meeting/together
Gyonah	-	fight
Wyuh	-	farming

2.10.5 HIGHER ANIMALS

Shaa	-	male gender for animals
Shep	-	female
Gyaing	-	cock
Nyok	-	hen
Dyoiing	-	sheep
Tyuri	-	ram
Nyak	-	cow
Kaladi	-	bull

There is no distinction between higher organisms, lower animals or inanimate objects as in English.

2.11 GENDER IN ENGLISH

English makes very few gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close, in so far as natural sex distinctions determine English gender distinctions.

Further, it is typical of English that special suffixes are not generally used to mark gender distinctions. Nor are gender distinction made in the article e.g.

2.11.0 GENDER CLASSES

A. Masculine	uncle	who	-	he
B. Feminine	aunt	who	-	she
C. Dual	doctor	who	-	he/she
D. Common	baby	who	-	he/she/it
E. Collective	family	which	-	it
		Who	-	they
F. Masculine	(higher animal)			
	Bull	which	-	it
		Who	-	he
G. Higher organisms, ship		which	-	it/she
H. Feminine (higher animal)				
	Cow	which	-	it
		Who	-	she
I. Lower animal	ant	which	-	it
J. Inanimate	box	which	-	it

A more detail analysis of gender classes in English than the one given above reveals a number of classes, which include:

➤ **A/B PERSONAL MASCULINE/FEMININE NOUNS**

These nouns are of two types; type 1 has no overt marking that suggests morphological correspondence between masculine and feminine, whereas, in type 2 the two gender forms have a derivational relationship.

Examples of type 1 (morphologically unmarked for gender).

Bachelor	-	spinster	king	-	queen
Brother	-	sister	man	-	woman
Father	-	mother	uncle	-	aunt
Gentleman	-	lady			

Example for type two (morphologically marked for gender).

Hero	-	heroine	waiter	-	waitress
Good	-	goodness	widower	-	widow
Bridegroom	-	bride	host	-	hostess
Emperor	-	empress			

It must be noted that some masculine and feminine pairs denoting kinship have common (dual) generic terms, for example, parent for father/mother, and child for son/daughter as well as for boy/girl. Some optional feminine forms (poetess, authoress) are now rare.

➤ **PERSONAL DUAL GENDER**

This is a large class including for example the following:

Artist	fool	novelist	teacher
Cook	friend	parent	student
Doctor	foreigner	person	writer

Enemy librarian professor servant

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a 'gender marker'

Boyfriend - girlfriend

Male student - female student

The dual class is on the increase, but the expectation that a given activity is largely male or female dictates the frequent use of sex markers: thus a nurse, but a male nurse; an engineer but a woman engineer.

Note, that where such are used generally, neither gender is relevant though a masculine reference pronoun may be used e.g.

If any student calls, tell him I'll be back soon

When they are used with specific reference, they must of course be either masculine or feminine and the context may clearly imply the gender in given cases, e.g.

I met a handsome student but he disappointed me

I met a beautiful student and she impressed me.

➤ **COMMON GENDER**

Common-gender nouns are intermediate between personal and non-personal. The wide selection of pronouns (who, he/she, it) should not be understood to mean that all these are possible for all nouns in all contexts. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby as 'it', but it will be quite possible for somebody who is not emotionally concerned with the child or is ignorant of or indifferent to its sex.

➤ **COLLECTIVE NOUNS**

These differ from other nouns in taking as pronoun substitutes either singular (it) or plural (they) without change of number in the noun e.g. the army take 'it' or

'they' but the armies take only 'they' consequently, the verb may be in the plural after a singular noun e.g.

The committee (has) met and (it has) rejected the proposal.

(Have) (They have)

The different reflects a difference in attitude; the singular stress the non-personal collectively within the group.

Here, we may distinguish three sub classes of the collective nouns.

A. SPECIFIC

Army crew	group	herd	
Clan	crowd	gang	jury
Club	family	flock	majority

B. GENERIC

The clergy	the elite
The proletariat	the public
The aristocracy	the bourgeoisie

C. UNIQUE

The Arab league	the congress
The United Nation	the United States
The papacy	the parliament

➤ **HIGHER ANIMALS**

Gender in high animals is chiefly observed by people with a special concern (e.g. with pets).

Bull	-	cow	tiger	-	tigress
Dog	-	bitch	gender	-	goose

Chock - hen lion - lioness

A further class might be set up with many constitute common 'higher animals' patterning with which –it, (who-he/she to account for horse, cat, tiger e.t.c. when no sex distinction is made or known, in such cases 'he' is more usual than 'she'.

➤ **HIGHER ORGANISM**

Names of countries have different gender depending on their use.

1. As geographical unit, they are treated as inanimate e.g. looking at the map we see Nigeria here. It is one of the largest countries in Africa.
2. In sports, the term representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns e.g.
Zambia has improved their chance of winning the cup.

The gender class tagged higher organism is set up to embrace these characteristics. In this group also, we can place ship and other entities towards which an affectionate attribute is expressed by a personal substitute e.g.

What a lovely ship, what is she called?

This is my car, she speeds like the wind.

If the owner is female, she may refer to her car as 'he'

➤ **LOWER ANIMALS AND IN ANIMATE NOUNS**

Lower animals do not differ from inanimate nouns in terms of our present linguistic criteria i.e. both 'snake' and boxes have 'which' and 'it' as pronouns. Sex differences can, however, be indicated by a range of gender markers for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant e.g. she-goat, he-goat, male-frog.

➤ **PARTITIVES**

Gyong has different ways of showing partitives. Partitives could be represented in the following ways:

Ki-fou – split piece like kola nut, yam e.t.c

Kpin – remaining part (food, cloth e.t.c

Kuri – lump of fufu soil

Kititing – middle half (road, head e.t.c

Listening to speakers of Gyong, one is likely to hear such expressions as:

1. Fou tseta

Piece yam

A piece of yam

2. Kpin ri kpa

Remaining food

The leftover food

3. Kuri ki bep

Lump soil

A lump of soil

4. Titing kas

Middle road

The middle of the road

2.12 GENITIVES

Unlike the English language, Gyong genitives like those of any other African language are possessed/possessor instead of the possessor/possessed found in English for example:

English

Visitors' house _____

Students' hostel _____

Gyong

ki hah tsin

House visitors

ki gbout whey myeya

Hostel students

Alabi's car _____

bin juk Alabi

Car Alabi

The genitives can be:

Materials

1. Kitek koo

Spoon wood

Wooden spoon

2. Ki talap dum

Shoe mud

Rain boot

3. Ki hah nyang

House grass

Thatched house

4. Shan kibep

Building mud

Mud building

Descriptive genitives: In Gyong these could perform the function of post modifiers of the possessors. Examples of this can be found in the following structures:

1. Kpyi dah

Rabbit bush

Bush rabbits

2. Nya tong

Lace neck

Necklace

3. Tula thya

Clothe marriage

Wedding gown

2.12.0 GENITIVES OF ORIGIN

Gyong speakers use possessed possessor in the case of reference to the origin of nouns. Thus one is likely to find such expressions as:

1. Whey dyou

Child dog

Puppy

2. Bi zhe

Man jju

A jju man

3. Nzing nu

Egg bird

A bird's egg

2.12.1 CONTENT:

When Gyong speakers want to speak about content, they mention first the container and then the content. Therefore, one is likely to come across such expressions as:

1. Tuk kam

Calabash wine

A calabash of wine

2. Ki tsis nyak

Oil of cow

Butter

3. Gola chet

Gourd palm wine

A gourd of palm wine

2.12.2 PROPER NOUNS:

Proper nouns also take the possessed possessor format when in use; Examples of such include structures as:

1. Ki hah Dyanet

House Dyanet

Dyanet's house

2. Kpela nyu

Leg hen

Hen's house

3. Whey Gwong

Children Gong

Gwong children

2.12.3 GYONG POSSESSIVES

A Gyong possessive like those of any African language follows the rule of the possessed possessor unlike that of English language, which is the opposite-possessor-possessed. Therefore, the possessives act as post modifiers whereas English language has seven possessives genitives, Gyong has the following:

Mi - my

Ngu - you

Nga - he/she

Nyi - your (plural)

Mbo - their

➤ NOUN CLASS 1 Singular

Ki hah mi whey ngu

House my child your

My house your child

Tula nga thaa nyi (plural)

Cloth he/she marriage your

His/her cloth your marriage

Kilum mbo

Farm their

Their farm

➤ NOUN CLASS 1 PLURAL

Hah mi Wheey ngu Rum mbo

Houses my children your Farms their

My houses your children Their farms

Kitula nga Thaa nyi

Clothes his/her marriages your

His/her clothes your marriages

➤ NOUN CLASS II SINGULAR

Nyu mi Kpela ngu Ki tam nga

Hen my leg your Cheek his/her

My hen your leg His/her cheek

Gop nyi	Nit mbo
Medicine your	Rope their
Your medicine	Their rope

➤ NOUN CLASS II PLURAL

Bonyu mi	Ki kpela ngu	Nyit mbo
Hen my	legs your	Ropes their
My hens	your legs	Their ropes

Tyam nga	Gyop nyi
Cheeks his/her	medicines your
His/her cheeks	your medicines

➤ NOUN CLASS SINGULAR NON-PLURALISING

Myala mi	Byom ngu	Tok mbo
Millet my	music your	Salt their
My millet	your music	Their salt

Kap nga	Ngyok nyi
Sweat his/her	flour your
His/her sweat	your flour

➤ SINGULAR POSSESSIVE + QUALIFIER

Kpin be mi	Kpong kpela ngu	Sheshep kigbout mbo
Short mat my	big leg your	Sharp house their
My short mat	your big leg	Their sharp house

Kpona nyu nga	Dohdon nit nyi	Libik talap ni
Small hen his/her	long rope your	black shoe our
His/her small hen	your long rope	our black shoe

➤ PLURAL POSSESSIVE + QUALIFIER

Kpin kibe mi	Kpong kikpkela ngu	Kpona bonyu nga
Short mats my	big legs your	Small hens his/her
My short mats	your big legs	His/her small hens

Dohdon nyit nyi(plural)	Sheshep gbyout mbo	Libik kitalap ni
long ropes your	Sharp houses their	black shoes our
your long ropes	Their sharp houses	our black shoes

➤ SINGULAR POSSESSIVE WITH COLOUR

Chooing rigya mi	Chooing ki so ngu	Chooing kpou whui mbo
Red wrapper my	red eye your	Red groundnut their
My red wrapper	your red eye	Their red groundnut

Chooing kitso nga	Chooing bip nyi (plural)	Chooing kpou zap ni
Red sore his/her	red soil your	red bean our
His/her red sore	your red soil	our red bean

➤ PLURAL POSSESSIVE WITH COLOUR

Chooing ki rigya mi	Chooing su ngu	Chooing whui mbo
Red wrappers my	red eyes your	Red groundnuts their
My red wrappers	your red eyes	Their red groundnuts

Chooing tso nga	Chooing ki bip nyi (plural)	Chooing ki zap ni
Red sores his/her	red soils your	red beans our

His/her res sores

your red soils

our red beans

➤ SINGULAR POSSESSIVE WITH SIZE AND COLOUR

Kpong libik sha mi

Kpong libik ki tung ngu

Kpong libik tala mbo

Big black he-goat my

big black ear your

Big black calabash their

My big black he-goat

your big black ear

Their big black calabash

Kpong libik ki tong nga

Kpong libik nu nyi(plural)

Kpong libik dyou ni

Big black bow his/her

big black bird your

big black dog our

His/her big black bow

your big black bird

our big black dog

➤ PLURAL POSSESSIVE WITH SIZE AND COLOUR

Ki kpong libik bosha mi

Ki kpong libik tyung ngu

Big black he-goats my

big black ears your

My big black he-goats

your big black ears

Ki kpong libik tyong nga

Ki kpong libik ki nu ngu

Big black bows his/her

big black birds your

His/her big black bows

your big black birds

Ki kpong libik khitala mbo

Ki kpong libik bo dyou ni

Big black calabashes their

big black dogs our

Their big black calabashes

our big black dogs

➤ PLURAL POSSESSIVE WITH NUMMBERS AND COLOUR

Ki tula bibu mi ki tat

Ki tat nyak bi thu ngu nyana

Clothes white my three

three cows white your four

My three white clothes

your four white cows

Nyit bithu nga fya	Hyah bithu nyi tyoh
Ropes white his/her two	houses white your five
His/her two white ropes	your five white houses

Ki be bibu mbo ki nang	Bodyou bibu ni kop
Mats white their four	dogs white our ten
Their four white mats	our ten white dogs

➤ SINGULAR POSSESSIVE WITH PROPER NOUNS

Tyuri Dyeri (ram Dyeri) Dyeri's ram
 Rinas Pyami (horse Pyami) Pyami's horse
 Ndok Dyanet (friend Dyanet) Dyanet's friend
 Fyam Tah (gun Tah) Tah's gun

2.12.4 GENITIVE CASE

According to Quirk and Greenbaum(1973),the English genitive case is analyzed as follows:

➤ COMMON GENITIVE CASE

As distinct from personal pronouns, English nouns have a two case system; the unmarked common case (girl) (is). Since the function of the common case can be seen only in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase (subject, object, etc), it is the functions of the genitive that need scrutiny here.

➤ THE FORMS OF THE GENITIVE INFLECTION

The –s genitive of regular nouns is realized in speech only in the singular, where it takes one of the forms- /iz, z, i, s/, following the rules for –s inflection. The –s form has two spellings –s and –es.

- a) Pronounced /iz/ after bases ending in voiced or voiceless sibilants and spelt –es unless the base already ends in –e e.g.

pass – passes

teach – teaches

catch – catches

search – searches.

- b) Pronounced /z/ and spelt –s after bases ending in other voiced sounds e.g.

bow - bows

stay - stays

pay - pays

slump - slumps

- c) Pronounced /s/ and spelt –s after bases ending in other voiceless sounds e.g.

sleep - sleeps

slap - slaps

break - breaks

In writing the inflection of regular nouns is realized in the singular by –s and in the plural by putting an apostrophe after the plurals. As a result, the spoken form /spaiz/ may be related to the noun /spy/ as follows:

The spies were arrested.

The spy's companion was a student.

The spies' companions were girls in each case.

It could of course also be the –s form of verb as in “the spies on behalf of that industrial firm”. by contrast, an irregular noun like “man” preserve a number of

distinction independently of genitive singular and genitive plural distinction e.g. man ,men ,man's, men's.

It must also be realized that in pre-modified noun phrases, there can be a difference between the genitive and plural because of the different locations of inflection e.g

The palace was the chief of Gwong.

They praised the chief of Gwong.

In addition to its use with the regular plurals, the 'zero' genitive occurs under the following:

- A. With Greek names of more than one syllable as in Euripides /diz/ plays.
- B. With many other names ending with /z/, where in speech, zero is a variant of the regular /iz/ genitive there are changes in both the pronunciation and the spellings of these names, but most commonly, the pronunciation is the /z/ form and the spelling has an apostrophe only. Thus, James's is pronounced irrespective of the spelling /ziz/ or /z/.
- C. With fixed expression of the form for ... sake as in, for goodness' sake /s/, for conscience' sake /s/.

➤ TWO GENITIVES

In many instances, there is a functional similarity (indeed semantic identity) between a noun in the genitive cases and the same noun as head of a prepositional phrase with "of": we refer to the -s genitive for the inflection and to "of genitive" for the prepositional form, for example:

What is the car's name?

What is the name of the car?

Although there are usually compelling reasons for preferring one or other construction in a given case and numerous environments in which only one construction is grammatically acceptable, the degree of similarity and overlap has led grammarians to regard the two constructions as variant forms of the genitive.

2.12.5 GENITIVE MEANING

The meaning of the genitive can be best shown by sentential or a phrase analogue such as presented in the examples below, for comparison, a corresponding use of the genitive is given where possible.

A. POSSESSIVE GENITIVE

My sister's husband

Kyola's room

ANALOGUES

My sister has a husband.

Kyola has a room.

B. SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE

The girl's prayer

The rise of the sun

The girl prayed.

The sun rose.

C. OBJECTIVE GENITIVE

The boy is released

A statement of the facts

(...) released the boy.

(...) stated the facts.

D. GENITIVE OF ORIGIN

The general's letter

The boy's story

The general wrote a letter.

The boy told a story.

E. DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE

The children's day

The day for children

A summer's day

A day in summer

F. GENITIVE OR APPOSITIVE GENITIVE

The city of Zaria

Zaria is a city.

The pleasure of meeting you

Meeting you is a pleasure.

2.12.6 THE CHOICE OF GENITIVES

The semantic classification earlier explained is in part arbitrary e.g. we could claim that cow's milk is not a genitive of origin but a descriptive genitive meaning the kind of milk obtained from a cow. For this reason, meaning and sentential analogues can provide only inconclusive help in choosing between –s and of genitive use.

The choice can be securely related to the gender classes represented by the noun, which is to be the genitive. Generally speaking, the –s genitive is favored by the classes that are highest on the gender scale i.e. favor s genitive.

Animate nouns in particular, persons and animals with personal gender characteristics. Although we can say either the youngest children's toy or the youngest children, the two forms of genitive are not normally in free variation. We cannot say the table's leg or the shirt of Audu.

We therefore infer that the possessive use is especially associated with the –s genitive and that this is because we think of "possession" chiefly in terms of our own species. It is possible to see the partitive genitive at the opposite pole on

comparable grounds; the disallowance of the –s genitive matches the irrelevance of the genitive of a noun which is merely being measured or dissected.

A further factor influencing the choice of genitive is informative focus; the –s genitive enable us to give end-focus to one noun, the –of genitive to another, for example:

- a. The explosion damaged the ship's funnel
- b. Having looked at all the funnels he considered that the most handsome was the funnel of onion.

This principle is congruent again with the preference for the –of genitive with partitive and appositive where an –s genitive would result in undesirable or absurd final prominence e.g. the problem's part.

The relevance of gender is shown also in the fact that the indefinite pronouns with personal reference admit the –s genitive while those with non-personal reference do not; e.g. some one's shadow, but not something shadow.

➤ **CHOICE OF THE –OF GENITIVE**

The –of genitive is chiefly used with nouns that belong to the bottom part of the gender scale that is especially with inanimate nouns e.g. the title of the book, the interior of the room. In these two examples, an –s genitive would be fully acceptable but in many instance, this is not so, “the hub of the wheel”, “the window's of the house”. Related to the point made about information focus, however, the corresponding personal pronoun would normally have the inflected genitive, its hub, and their windows. In measure, partitive and appositive expressions, the –of genitive is the usual form except for temporal measure (a day's rest) and in idioms such as his money's worth, at arm's length. Again, where

the –of genitive would normally be used, instances are found with inflected form in newspaper headlines, perhaps for reasons of space economy.

FIRE AT UCLA: INSTITUTE’S ROOF DAMAGED

Where the subsequent news item might begin: “the roof of a science institute on the campus was damaged last night as the fire swept through.

On the other hand, beside the regular –s genitive in John’s wife, the child’s toy, the idiom, “for the life of me/him requires both the –of genitive and a pronoun.

2.12.7 THE GROUP GENITIVE

In some pre-modified noun phrases, it is possible to use a –s genitive by affixing the inflection to the final pre-modification rather than to the head noun itself e.g.

The farmer’s hut

The farmer of yam’s hut

The group is regularly used with some post-modification as in someone else’s house, the heirs apparent name, as well as prepositional phrases. Other examples involve co-ordination; group genitive is not normally acceptable following a clause, though in colloquial use one sometimes hears examples like;

Old man what-do-you-call-him’s house has collapsed.

A man I know son has just arrived. In normal use, especially in writing, such a genitive would be replaced by –of genitives thus:

The son of a man I know has just arrived.

2.12.8 THE GENITIVE OF ELLIPSIS

The noun modified by the –s genitive may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear, for example:

My bicycle is newer than Dyeris

(i.e. than Dyeri's bicycle)

His memory is like an elephant's.

Pama's is a beautiful house too.

With the –of genitive in comparable environments, a pronoun is normally necessary.

The population of Gong is greater than that of Kwoi. Ellipsis is especially in expressions relating to premises or establishments.

I shall be at Simon's

Here, like "Simons" will mean where Simon lives even though the hearer might not know whether the appropriate head would be house, apartment, flat: "lives" is important however, and hotel room (where Simon could only be staying) would be excluded. So by contrast,

I shall be at the dentist's

Would refer to the dentist's professional establishment and the same applies to proper names where these refer to commercial firms. It would not be absurd to write: I shall be at Simon's/Jacob's/Byami's. This usage is normal, also I relation to small "one-man" business e.g.

I buy my salt at Jacob's

With large businesses, however, their complexity and in some sense "plurality" cause interpretation of the –s ending as in the plural inflection and the genitive meaning if it survives, is expressed I writing by moving the apostrophe e.g.(at

Simon's). On the other hand, conflict between plurality and the idea of a business as a collective unity result in changes in concord.

Byami's is/are very good for cloths.

2.13 ARTICLES IN GYONG

In examining Tyap articles, Akut (1990) said that articles in Tyap do not function in the same way as those of English but that the various noun classes have post modifiers that could be assumed articles. He said that the articles function in concord with the various noun classes. He gave examples of such functions as:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. a) efang ka
Stone the
The stone | 2. a) efwong ka
Spoon the
The spoon |
| b) kefang na
Stones the
The stones | b) kefwong na
spoons the
the spoons |
| 3. a) eying wu
Person the
The person | 4. a) geswong ji
finger the
the finger |
| b) enyet ba
Finger nails the
The finger nails | b) egefwo ba
People the
The people |

He concluded his analysis by stating the article ‘a’ and ‘an’ do not exist in Tyap, and may be implied. He also stated that the definite article in Tyap has many varieties, which include the suffixes ka/na/wu/ba/hu/ji.

The functioning system of the articles in Gyong follows a similar pattern to that of Tyap. In the light of this, it does not function the same way as they do in English.

The English indefinite article a and an do not exist in Gyong, and may only be implied.

➤ REFERENCE AND THE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

SPECIFIC/GENERIC REFERENCE

In discussing the use of the articles, it is essential to make a distinction between specific and generic reference. If we say;

A lion and two tigers are sleeping

In the cage, the reference is specific, since we have in mind specific specimens of the class “tiger” if on the other hand we say tigers are dangerous animals, the reference is generic, since we are thinking of the class “tiger” without special reference to specific tigers.

The distinctions that are important for count nouns with specific reference disappear with generic reference. This is because generic reference is used to denote what is normal or typical for members of a class. Consequently, the distinction of numbers and definiteness are neutralized since they are no longer relevant for the generic concept. Singular or plural, definite or indefinite can sometimes be used without change in the generic meaning, though definite occurs chiefly with nationality names e.g.

The Kenyan

Is a good athlete

A Kenyan

The Kenyans

Are good athletes

Kenyans

The following three forms can be used generically with a count noun.

The lion

Is a dangerous animal

A lion

Lions are dangerous animals.

But with non-count nouns, only the zero articles is possible: music can be soothing. There is however inter-dependence between the dynamic and stative dichotomy in the verb phrase and the specific/generic. Dichotomy in the noun phrase as can be observed in the following examples:

Generic reference/simple aspect,

The tiger lives in the jungle

(Simple aspect, the tiger at the zoo)

Feeds twice a day.

Specific reference (progressive aspect,

(The tiger is sleeping in the cage.

Generic reference/simple aspect

The Birom drink beer excessively. Simple aspect. The teacher who lives here goes to school every day.

Specific reference

Progressive aspect. The teachers are

Just now going to school.

2.13.0 SYSTEM OF ARTICLE USAGE

We can set up two different systems of articles use depending on the type of reference.

		DEFINITE		INDEFINITE	
Specific		The tiger	the ink	A tiger	some link
Reference		The tigers		Some tigers	
Generic	Reference	The tiger	ink	A tiger	
		Tigers			

With definite specific reference, the definite article is used for all noun classes

Where is the ruler	}	I bought
Where are the rulers		
Where is the ink		

With the indefinite specific reference, singular count nouns take the indefinite article a or an, which non-count and plural count nouns take zero article or unstressed “some” (any in non-assertive contexts).

I want a pen/some pens/ some ink

I do not want a pen/any pen/ any ink

➤ **GENERIC REFERENCE**

Nationality words and adjectives as head.

There are two kinds of adjectives that can act as noun-phrase head with generic reference:

- a. Plural personal: e.g. the French nation means the French nation.

The rich means those who are rich.

- b. Singular non-personal abstract, for example,

The evil means that which is evil.

The lexical variation in a number of nationality words, as between an English man/several English men/the English, depending on type of reference, appears from the following table.

Where nationality words have no double form (like English man), the + plural can be both generic and specific e.g

Africa African an African Africans the Africans

Europe European a Europeans the Europeans.

Israel Israeli an Israelis the Israelis.

Germany German a German Germans the Germans.

Note that adjective Grecian refers to ancient Greece e.g. a Grecian urn. Arabic is used in Arabic numerals and in Arabic language or he speaks Arabic fluently but we say an Arabian camel.

The inhabitant themselves prefer Scots and Scottish to scotch which however is commonly used in such phrases as scotch whisky, contrast the Scottish universities, the Scottish highlands denoting nationality rather than type. Nationality names tend to be used only of men. He is a Spaniard but she is Swedish.

➤ **NON-COUNT AND PLURAL COUNT NOUN**

When they have generic reference, both concrete and abstract non-count nouns and usually also, plural count nouns, are used with the zero article: e.g. (the wine, wood cream, milk

(The music, literature, history, skiing lakes.

Post modification by an off-phrase usually requires the definite article with a head noun, which thus has limited generic. (Partitive) reference.

He likes { the wine (s)
the music
the lakes } of Uganda.

Similarly, "the wines of shop" is an instance of limited generic reference, in the sense that it does not refer to any particular wines at any one time. Post modification with other prepositions is less dependent on a preceding definite article:

Venetan glass	}	the glass of Venice
Mrs Nyats adores		<u>glass of Venice</u> the glass from Venice glass from Venice.

This type of post modification structure should be compared to the frequent alternative with an adjectival post-modification. In comparison with some other languages, English tends to make a liberal interpretation to the concept "generic" in such case so that the zero articles is used also where the reference of the noun is restricted by premodification.

NON-COUNT NOUNS: Togo lese history- the
History of Togo.

African literature – the literature
Of African.

Plural count nouns: Japanese watches – watches
From Japan.

Oriental woman – the woman of

The orient.

The zero articles are also used with other plural nouns that are not unambiguously generic:

Appearance can be deceptive

Things aren't what they used to be

Just as non-count can be used as count, so count can be used as non-count in a generic sense:

This bread taste of onion; has it been alongside onions

SPECIFIC REFERENCE

DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE:

Just as there is a correspondence between aspect and reference in respect of generic and specific, so is there a correspondence between the simple and the perfective in respect of what must be regarded as a basic articles contrast.

An intruder has stolen a donkey.

The intruder stole the donkey in a fenced ranch.

The gate fence was smashed open.

As can be seen in this (unusually explicit) example, the definite article presupposes an earlier mention of the items so determined. But in actual usage the relation between presupposition and the definite article may be much less overt: e.g. a conversation may begin:

The house on the corner of the street is for sale and the post –modification passes for some such unspoken preamble as:

There is, as you know a house on the corner. Compare also, “what is the climate like – that is the climate of the area being discussed. Even more convert are the presupposition, which permit the definite article in examples like:

Audu asked his wife to put the kettle while he looked in the paper to see
What programmed was on the television.

No prior mention of a kettle, a paper, a television is needed, since these things are part of the culture situation.

On a broader plane, we talk of the sun, the moon, the sky as aspect of experience common to humankind as a whole; these seem to require no earlier indefinite reference because each term is specific as to be a fact unique for practical human purposes. This gives them something approaching the status of those proper names, which are based on common count nouns for examples:

The bible, the United States.

Note that the indefinite articles used with a proper names, “a certain”.
“One giving his name as”.

Mr. Dyeri wants to speak to you.

Also the definite article given heavy street is (especially information) to indicate superlative quality:

Assop is the place for young people.

Are you the Mr. Dyeri (=the famous)

COMMON NOUN WITH ZERO ARTICLES

There are a number of count nouns that takes the zero articles in abstract or rather specialized use, chiefly in certain idiomatic expressions (with verbs like be and with preposition)

Go by car sit in/look at---the car

Be in bed make/sit---the bed.

Go to school go into/take a look at---the school (a building)

The following list gives a number of common expressions with zero articles; for comparisons, usage with the definite article is also illustrated.

SEASONS: dry season, rainy, harmattan, spring summer, autumn, winter e.g.

During harmattan, Nigerians rush for warm clothing.

INSTRUCTIONS: (often with at, in, to etc) e.g.

Be in) (bed lie down on the bed.

Go to) (prison walk round the prison.

Be at) (school drive past the school
(college

Go to) (sea look out towards the sea.

(University be at/go to/study at the university.

MEANS OF TRANSPORT (with by)

(Bicycle sit on the bicycle

(Bus be on the bus

Travel) (car sleep in the car

Leave) (boat sit in the boat

Come) (train take the/a train

(plane be on the plane

MEALS

Before (breakfast the breakfast was good

Have (lunch he enjoyed the lunch

At (tea

After (dinner prepare (the dinner)

Stay for (supper.

PARALLEL STRUCTURES

Arm in arm he took her by the arm

Hand in hand a paper in his hand

He's neither man nor boy

Face to face

From beginning to end, from the beginning of the day to the end of it.

From right to left keep to the right

2.13.1 ARTICLES USAGE WITH COMMON NOUNS IN INTENSIVE RELATION

Unlike many other languages, English requires the definite or indefinite with the count noun complement in an intensive relation. With indefinite reference, the indefinite article is used for

i. Intensive complementation

John become a businessman

ii. Complex transitive

Complementation

(active verb) Mary considered James a genius.

iii. Complex transitive

Complementation

(passive verb) Kyana was considered a linguist.

The complement of turn and go. However, have zero articles.

Donatus stated as a medical student before he turned musician.

Definite reference requires the definite article;

- a) Ali become
 - b) Raliya considered Ali
- } the head of the family

c) Ali was taken for

However, the zero articles may be used with the noun complement after copulas and “naming verb”, such as appoint, declare, elect, when the noun designates a unique office or task:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------|
| a) Kuri is (the) captain of the team. | (the) chairman of Gong |
| b) They elected him | } |
| c) He was elected | |
| | youth organization. |

➤ **RELATIVISATION (NP + S) +V + (NP + S)**

Relativisation implies introducing a subordinating clause by a relative pronoun such as, who, whose, that, what, whoever, which e.t.c, sometimes the relative pronoun could be present or implied in a sentence. As a rule, the relative pronoun is placed next to the noun to which is related. For examples:

1. The young woman you are waiting for just left now.
2. The girl he said was coming never showed up.
3. The decision that woman should cover their hair always is a good one.
4. His argument that engineering is a masculine vocation is baseless.

➤ **RELATIVISATION IN GYONG**

1. English: The woman you are waiting for just left now.
Gyong: Bikyeya na ngu a zepa ko suk nyeki.
Literal: Woman the you are waiting for just left now.
2. English: The girl he said was coming never showed up.
Gyong : Kherbikyeya na nga lout me aba daa nyemiye.
Literal: Girl the he said that coming never showed.

3. English: The decision that women should cover their hair always is a good one
- Gyong: Myatsa na me bikyeya tsiki kim hyeh mboh gbagbama a ghwong hyini.
- Literal: Decision the that women should cover hair their always is good one.

The word order in the noun phrase, that is where modification, location and relativisation to nouns in section A differ as seen in the various examples given when comparing with the English language word order. This can be a learning difficulty for any Gyong learner of English language.

➤ **CONSTRAINTS**

In Gyong language, only two to three pre and post modifiers are allowed in any construction otherwise the meaning will be marred. The length and number of pre- and post modifiers in each position does not matter but there's restriction semantically. For examples:

Gyuna libik hyeh ki whey.

Foolish black father this.

This foolish black father.

When two adjectives are used, the order can be reversed and still maintains the same meaning but more than two, the first three adjectives used will be appropriate in any construction. When changed, it sounds awkward and is frowned against by users of the language and it renders the meaning useless. It is also considered too much in the construction. This too, is another area of difficulty to Gyong learners of English language.

2.14 THE NUMERAL SYSTEM IN GYONG-NOMINALS AND ORDINALS

The counting of numerals start from one to ten after which eleven becomes ten and one up to nineteen and twenty becomes to tens up to ninety-nine. A hundred has its own name and from here the numerals take a similar form to the ordinal system of the English language. One thousand has its own name and from here again it continues in the same pattern as the English language counting system up to nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand. One million is counted as one hundred thousand.

Examples:

Yhini - one

Thah - two

Tyat - three

Nyang - four

Tyow - five

Tyondyi - six

Tyonfaa - seven

Nyanyang - eight

Gyubok - nine

Kop - ten

Kop mo yhini (ten and one) - eleven

Kop mo thah (ten and two) - twelve

Kop mo tyat (ten and two) - thirteen

Kop mo nyang (ten and three) - fourteen

Kop mo tyow (ten and four) - fifteen

Kop mo tyondyi	(ten and five)	- sixteen
Kop mo tyonfaa	(ten and seven)	- seventeen
Kop mo nyanyang	(ten and eight)	- eighteen
Kop mo gyubok	(ten and nine)	- nineteen
Shokathah	(ten two)	- twenty
shokatyat	(ten three)	- thirty
shokanyang	(ten four)	- forty
shoka-tyow	(ten five)	- fifty
shoka-tyondyi	(ten six)	- sixty
shoka-tyonfaa	(ten seven)	- seventy
shoka-nyanyang	(ten eight)	- eighty
shoka-gyubok	(ten nine)	- ninety
gbong	(hundred)	

➤ **CADINALS AND ORDINALS**

The system of cardinals (one, two e.t.c.) and ordinal (first, second e.t.c.) numerals will be clear from the following list. Both types can function pronominally or as premodifiers, except that naught occur chiefly as the name of the numeral, being replaced by the determiner no or the pronoun none in the general use. With hundred, thousand, million, the indefinite article often replaces one. Pronominally, the ordinals are preceded by an article (Today is the eleventh of December) and resemble superlative with ellipted heads.

0	naught	zero
1	one	1 st first
2	two	2 nd second
3	three	3 rd third

4	four	4 th fourth
5	five	5 th fifth
6	six	6 th sixth
7	seven	7 th seventh
8	eight	8 th eighth
9	nine	9 th ninth
10	ten	10 th tenth
20	twenty	20 th twentieth
30	thirty	30 th thirtieth
40	forty	40 th fortieth
50	fifty	50 th fiftieth e.t.c

2.15 PREDICTABLE AREAS OF DIFFICULTY

It is a known fact that, just as there are no two human beings that are exactly the same in any way, no two languages possess exactly the same linguistic characteristics nor operate exactly the same systems. Most especially when the two languages in question belong to different groups or families, like the case of English and Gyong. In the course of this exercise, however, a comparative study of the noun phrases in the two languages has been undertaken to establish the similarities and dissimilarities. Based on the above, Gyong learner of English will likely have learning difficulties in;

- The use of inflectional suffixes in expressing the notion of 'more than one' which Gyong does not.
- English possesses many foreign words with many irregular plurals but Gyong is devoid of this.

- The choice of the correct form of the demonstratives since English has the singular and plurals of ‘this-these’ and ‘that-these’ but Gyong does not have these distinctions.

Attempts will be made to construct test items based on these predictions in order to ascertain their validity or otherwise. These predictions are based on areas where there are marked differences between the two languages. Areas that have been discovered to have glaringly marked difference and which are envisaged to cause learning problems to Gyong learners of English include:

1. Pluralisation of nouns in English. The predictable problems are likely to be found in such areas as:

- \$ En-plurals
- \$ foreign-plurals
- \$ -Es-plurals
- \$ -S-plurals
- \$ Invariable plurals

2. The absence of the indefinite article in Gyong language is likely to be a predictable source of difficulty because of its existence in English. In this respect the predictable areas of difficulty include:

- \$ The-a- article
- \$ The –an- article
- \$ The-o- article
- \$ The-the- article

3. Although demonstratives exist in both Gyong and English, they operate differently. Therefore, the demonstratives could also be a predictable source of

difficulty to Gyong learners of English i.e. when using item with adjectives and nouns.

\$	This	These
\$	That	Those

4. Another significant area of difficulty in the two languages is the use of the genitives. English language has two, which are not available in Gyong language. These, therefore, are likely to be a source of predictable difficulty to Gyong learners of English.

\$ The- of- genitive

5. Subject verb agreement is another area of a predictable source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English. predictable area of difficulty in concord are:

\$ Plural subject with plural verb agreement.

\$ Singular subject with singular verb agreement

6. Synatax or word arrangement is a predictable source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English.

7. The use of the relative pronouns who or whom is predictable source of difficulty.

8. Since Gyong does not have quantifiers, the use of quantifiers is a predictable source of difficulty.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY..... XI

3.0 DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

A total of about 250 subjects were used for the study. These were selected from secondary schools in Jema'a Local Government Area. The schools are situated predominantly in Gwong and they include:

1. Government Secondary School Fadan Kagoma.
2. Government Day Secondary School, Asso.
3. Government Day Secondary School, Kyayya-Kagoma.
4. Government Day Secondary School, Barde.
5. Government Day Secondary School, Takau.

There are other schools but only well established schools were chosen for this study as listed above. These schools were chosen because of the large concentration of Gong students found in them and for easy accessibility. A general survey showed that Gong students formed more than half of the students' population in the schools used for this research. All of these schools mentioned are co-educational institutions.

To avoid a sense of isolation and confusion in the subjects, the researcher administered the test to the whole class of JSS 2 and SS 2 out of which only those students whose mother tongue was Gyong were selected for this study by the researcher. This was to ensure that the samples were made up of only those in whom the rules/habits of Gyong language system have been internalized from birth not just those who grew up to learn the language.

The test was administered in JSS 2 and SS 2. This is because students in SS 2 have been more exposed to English language than those in JSS 2 who were likely to

have the L1 habits still lurking in their brains. Both male and female respondents were used for this study. The overall performance of the JSS 2 students will be compared with those in SS 2. Also to be compared is the performance of JSS 2 females with that of JSS 2 males, SS 2 females with SS 2 males. In the same vein, the performance of JSS 2 females with SS2 females, JSS 2 males with SS2 males is compared.

The comparison between JSS 2 and SS 2 performance is meant to help the researcher to find out whether the SS2 students who are more mature and more exposed to English language than the JSS 2 students have learnt to differentiate between the two language systems better than their JSS 2 counterparts.

The comparison of the males' performance with that of the females is also meant to help the researcher to find out whether the difference in sex plays any significant role in acquiring a second language.

It is important to note that remediation can be given at the JSS level where the students' vocal organs are still flexible and therefore can easily adapt to change.

To ascertain the student's sex and the authenticity of his/her origin, provision was made for the respondents to supply the following information name, class, tribe, father's tribe, mother's tribe, the language he/she can understand and speak and sex. This was also to ascertain, in situations where parents do not speak the same language, the significant effect this has in their children's ability to acquire a second language.

3.1 INSTRUMENTS

Some predictions were made in chapter two as to the likely difficulty areas speakers of Gyong may encounter when learning the English noun phrase. In line

with these predictions, a total of eighty objective test items were drawn up to ascertain the validity or otherwise of these predictions. Prominent among those aspects of the noun phrase include;

1. Pluralisation: ies/es plurals

Plural that end in – s – e.t.c

2. Articles: the use of a/an/the and articles since these are completely lacking in the Gyong language system.
3. The use of quantifiers
4. The use of demonstratives: that, those, this, these.
5. Genitives: the – of – genitive.

For some test items, sentences were constructed with blank spaces and respondents were required to fill in these blank spaces with the correct options, while for some, respondents were required to tick the correct response.

3.2 ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEST AND ITS EVALUATION

The researcher went to the schools personally, sought permission from the principals and solicited the co-operation of the English language teachers to assist her so that the test is written at the same time by both the JSS 2 and SS 2 students. The test items were then marked and the responses organized. The researcher used percentages. Both right and wrong responses were analyzed for each item. This is an attempt to identify the source and typology of error for each item. Results were then tabulated to facilitate easy analysis and interpretation.

To find the percentage, the total numbers of right responses was divided by the total number of respondents and this was multiplied by one hundred. If 20% and above of the total number of respondents had wrong responses, such an item

was confirmed as a significant problem area which called for remediation. If less, it was considered insignificant and dismissed as no area of difficulty.

3.3 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

A research of this magnitude calls for more than five hundred respondents and more items on the test, but due to financial constraints, the researcher could only administer slightly below half of this number.

The study also faced the problem of lack of written literature in Gyong language. Apart from Professor Turaki's outline on Gyong dictionary and Gyong Traditional Council anthropology, little or no literature was available. The researcher had to rely on her knowledge of the language and experience.

The researcher had to be physically present when the test was administered to guard against malpractices or influencing of answers by other students. That notwithstanding, the possibility of other students and invigilators influencing students' answers cannot be totally ruled out, since the researcher could not possibly be in all classes at the same time. The high level of co-operation exhibited by the invigilators however, assured the researcher of the safety in the administration of the test.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS..... XII

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The data collected on contrastive analysis of the noun phrase in English and Gyong are analyzed statistically in this chapter. The process of analysis is structured along the research hypothesis, which provides solutions to the research study.

4.1 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The researcher administered two hundred and fifty test items on the noun phrase in English language and those two hundred and thirty eight students with no mixture of parental ethnic groups that is, both parents are Gwong. By implication, all the students are of Gyong speaking group. Areas they were tested were in the use of the En-plurals, foreign-plurals, Es-plurals, S-plurals and invariable plurals. Other areas tested include the indefinite article, demonstrative, the genitive, subject-verb agreement syntax or word arrangement and quantifiers.

For this research, six (6) noun classes have been identified for Gyong language.

These are:

Noun class	Singular	Plural
1.	Ki	ri – as in
	Kihah-house	rihah-houses
2.	Root	bo + root
	Hyeh-father	bohyeh-fathers
3.	Ki + root + root	as in

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------------|---------------------|
| | Kilung-knee | rung-knees |
| 4. | Root + prefix | bi + root e.g. |
| | Fen – beggar | bifyefyen – beggars |
| 5. | Pluralisation by tone switching e.g. | |
| | Fyam – rib | fyam – ribs |
| 6. | Non-pluralization, noun like | |
| | Sick – kihyale | |

4.1.0 DEMONSTRATIVES

In his examination of the demonstratives in Tyap, Akut (1990) explained that in Kataf, demonstratives function relatively according to noun classes. A few examples here may suffice.

Noun class I (singular)

This: kani, Eni, huni, jinni, wuni

This: Kanyeu, enyeu, hunyen, jingen, wunyen.

These: nani, bani, jinni

Those: nanyeu, banyeu, jinyen

Analyzing Margi language, Hoffman (1963:85) explained that the demonstratives of Margi express different ideas of relation to the speaker.

1. Something is near ('English' this) e.g. kuku – this ; ku – this; kukuyeku – these

2. Something is far but visible (English that)

e.g. ta – that; tata – that; tatanyarta - those

3. Something is (usually) not visible but known (English that).

4.1.1 GYONG DEMONSTRATIVES

Just like the demonstratives of Margi language, the Gyong demonstratives express three different ideas of relation to the speaker. Gyong demonstratives operate according to noun classes and look like this:

1. This – kike/kiwhey
2. That – kiko (something far but visible)
3. That – kiko (something not visible but known)
4. Those – kibo (something far but visible)
5. Those – kibo (something not visible but known)

Even though the Gyong demonstratives operate according to noun classes, some of them cut across various noun classes. Sometimes, two or more different forms of demonstratives operate in one noun class. ‘That’ and its plural counterpart ‘those’ both take the singular demonstrative ‘kike’ ‘kiko’, the third gyong word for ‘that’ is also used to refer to something not visible but known.

DEMONSTRATIVE + NOUN

NOUN CLASS 1 – SINGULAR

This + NOUN

ENGLISH

GYONG

This tree

kisitee kike

This father

hyeh ki whey

This basket

seing ki whey

This son

whey ki whey

This pawpaw

benza ki whey

THAT + NOUN

ENGLISH

That (far but visible) that

That monkey

That snake

That bed

That thorn

That language

GYONG

whyo (not visible but known)

kyah kighye kyah kigho

gyus kighye beep kigho

beep kighye beep kigho

tyum kighye tyum kigho

gyong kighye gyong kigho

DEMONSTRATIVE + NOUN

NOUN CLASS 1 – PLURAL

Those + Noun

ENGLISH

Those years

Those beds

Those bones

Those shoes

Those lungs

GYONG

kimyek kiko

kibeep kiko

kikup kiko

kitalap kiko

kikhwa kiko

DEMONSTRATIVE + ADJECTIVE + NOUN

This + Adjective + Noun

ENGLISH

1. This foolish father

2. This small basket

GYONG

gbyabin hyeh kiwhey

Foolish father this

kpona seing ki

Small basket this

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| 3. This stubborn son | kpangtung whey kiwhey
Stubborn son this |
| 4. This rotten pawpaw | fou benza kiwhey
Rotten pawpaw this |
| 5. This big tree | kpokkpok kiseteeh kike
Big tree this |

THAT + ADJECTIVE + NOUN

ENGLISH

1. That low bed,
2. That black snake,
3. That sharp thorn,
4. That smelly he-goat,
5. That reddish mouth,

GYONG – *Adj + Noun + that*

- delek beep kiko (low bed that)
libik gyus kigho (black snake that)
sheshep tyum kigho (sharp thorn that)
kpungkpung sha kigho (smelly he-goat that)
whoong kinyu kike (reddish mouth that)

THOSE + ADJECTIVE + NOUN

ENGLISH

1. Those weak bones
2. Those torn shoes
3. Those dirty mats
4. Those short legs

GYONG

- luluk kikap kiko
Weak bones those
ki sesela kitalap kiko
Torn shoes those
libik kibe kiko
Dirty mat those
ki kpin kikipela kiko
Short legs those

DEMONSTRATIVE + 2/3 ADJECTIVES + NOUN

1. Guna libik hyeh kiwhey
Foolish black father this
2. Zhubuk, kongong zum whey kiwhey
Old thin wizard son this
3. Dohdong kpong, dyeliling, pepet shashh kiwhey
Long, big slippery white fish this
4. Gbawhong, pwart, luluk, bikee, kiwhey
Beautiful, fair, plumpy woman this
5. Sheshep, kpin kyap kiwhey
Sharp short arrow this
6. Libik, dohdong, zuguzugu hyeh kiwhey
Black long rough hair this
7. Kpungkpung whoong libik kinyu kiwhey
Smelly red dirty mouth this
8. Kpagbang, kpong, kpin, ryewhek tsena kiwhey
Strong big short young in-law this
9. Gbawhong, samsam, chooing, kpong rigya kiwhey
Beautiful shiny red big wrapper this
10. Ndandang lulung, samsam gbum kiwhey
Cold quiet shinny body this

DEMONSTRATION + 2/3/4 + ADJECTIVES + NOUN IN ENGLISH AS IN GYONG

1. This foolish black father
2. This old, long, slippery white fish

3. This old thin wizard son
4. This beautiful fair plump woman
5. This dirty long black hair
6. This short sharp arrow
7. This dirty smelly red mouth
8. This big short strong young in-law
9. This beautiful big red shinny wrapper
10. This shinny quiet cold body.

Hypothesis One

Likely problems in the use of plurals.

This hypothesis was tested by the score of the students on pluralisation of nouns of students. These include the use of En-plurals, Es-plural, S-plurals and invariable plurals. To test the hypothesis, the score of the students in this section were summed up and the total score was expected to be ten, if the students had problem in the pluralisation, it was due to their mother-tongue or father-tongue. Where the scores were below the average of five, the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem because on this basis, the one sample T-test was therefore used to determine the impact of the mother-tongue or father-tongue on the pluralisation of nouns in English. For this test, a fixed mean of 5.0 was used to determine the impact of father or mother-tongue on the students' pluralisation of nouns in English. A summary of the test is presented in table one.

TABLE ONE: SAMPLE T-TEST ON PLURALISATION OF NOUNS BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY.

Variables	Mean	S.D	S.E	T-Value	DF	P	M.D	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Pluralisation	6.280	2.088	0.135	9.435	237	0.000	1.277	1.010	1.540
Fixed Mean	5.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test (i.e. 6.28) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 5.00 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 9.435 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P \leq 0.005$) all indicated that the students are influenced by their mother-tongue in pluralisation of nouns in English. Therefore the null hypothesis is thus rejected.

Hypothesis Two

The absence of the indefinite article in Gyong language is likely to be a source of difficulty because of its existence in English.

This hypothesis was tested by the score of the students on the use of indefinite article which has to do with the absence of the indefinite article in Gyong language. The components considered in this hypothesis are the a-article, the an-article, the o-article and the –article.

The total sum of all scores is supposed to be eight, the fixed value used for the comparison is therefore 4.0. The result of the one sample T-test is therefore presented in table two.

TABLE TWO: SAMPLE T-TEST ON THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY.

Variables	Mean	S.D	S.E	T-Value	DF	P	M.D	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Indefinite art	5.210	2.156	0.140	8.687	237	0.000	1.214	0.940	1.490
Fixed Mean	4.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The above mean score for the test (i.e. 5.21) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 4.00 used for the test.

Therefore the observed mean score for the test i.e. (5.21) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 4.00 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 8.687 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P < 0.005$) all indicates that there is the absence of indefinite article in Gyong language which is likely to be a predictable source of difficulty because of its existence in English. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Three

Demonstration exists in both Gyong and English, though the demonstratives could be a predictable source of difficulty to Gyong learners of English. These include the use of demonstratives such as ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘these’, and

'those'. To test the hypothesis, the score of the students in the section were summed up and the total score was expected to be five and where the students had problem the use of demonstratives was due to their mother-tongue or father-tongue. Where the scores were below the average the average of five, the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem because on this basis, the one sample T-test was therefore used to determine the impact of the mother or father-tongue on demonstratives in English. For this test, a fixed mean of 5.0 was used to determine this impact. A summary of the test is presented in table three.

TABLE THREE: SAMPLE T-TEST ON DEMONSTRATIVES BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>S.E</i>	<i>T-Value</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>M.D</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</i>	
								<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
<i>Demonstratives</i>	7.23	2.182	141	15.775	237	0.000	2.231	1.95	2.51
<i>Fixed Mean</i>	5.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test i.e. (7.23) is significantly higher than the fixed score of 5.0 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 15.775 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P < 0.005$) all indicated that the use of demonstratives by

Gyong learners of English is a source of difficulty due to mother-tongue. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis four

A significant area of difficulty in both Gyong and English is the use of the genitives which are likely to be a source of predictable difficulty to gyong learners of English. These are the –of – genitive. To test the hypothesis, the total score of the students in the section were summed up and the total score was expected to be twelve, and where the students had problem, the use of genitives was due to their mother-tongue or father-tongue. Where the scores were below the average of six, the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem because on this basis, the one sample T-test was therefore used to determine the impact of the mother or father-tongue or genitives in English. For this test, a fixed mean of 4.5 was used to determine this impact. A summary of the test is presented in table four.

TABLE FOUR: SAMPLE T-TEST ON THE USE OF GENITIVES BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>S.E</i>	<i>T-Value</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>M.D</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</i>	
								<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
<i>Demonstratives</i>	5.04	2.022	0.131	4.104	237	0.000	0.538	0.28	0.80
<i>Fixed Mean</i>	4.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test i.e. (5.04) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 4.5 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 4.104 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P < 0.005$) all indicated that the use of genitives by Gyong learners of English is a source of difficulty due to mother-tongue. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis five

Subject verb agreement is a significant area of a predictable source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English. These areas of difficulty in concord are plural subject with plural verb agreement and singular subject with singular verb agreement. To test the hypothesis, the total score of the students in the section were summed up and the total score was expected to be nine (9), and where the students had problem the use of subject verb agreement was due to their mother or father-tongue. Where the scores were below the average of six (6.0), the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem because on this basis, the one sample T-test was therefore used to determine the impact of the mother or father-tongue on subject verb agreement in English. For this rest, a fixed mean of 6.0 was used to determine this impact. A summary of the test is presented in table five.

TABLE FIVE: SAMPLE T-TEST ON THE USE OF SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY.

Variables	Mean	S.D	S.E	T-Value	DF	P	M.D	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference

								<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
<i>Demonstratives</i>	7.48	2.414	0.156	9.451	237	0.000	2.231	1.17	1.79
<i>Fixed Mean</i>	6.0	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test i.e. (7.48) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 6.00 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 9.451 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P < 0.005$) all indicated that the use of subject verb agreement by Gyong learners of English is a score of difficulty due to mother-tongue. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis six

Syntax or word arrangement is a predictable source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English. To test the hypothesis, the total score of the students in the section were summed up and the total score was expected to be twenty six, and where the students had problem the use of syntax or word arrangement was due to their mother or father-tongue. Where the scores were below the average of thirteen, the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem because on this basis, the one sample T-test was therefore used to determine the influence of mother or father-tongue on syntax or word arrangement in English. For this test, a fixed mean of 2.5 was used to determine this influence. A summary of the test is presented in table six.

TABLE SIX: SAMPLE T-TEST ON THE USE OF SYNTAX OR WORD ARRANGEMENT BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY.

								95%
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Variables	Mean	S.D	S.E	T-Value	DF	P	M.D	Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Demonstratives	4.60	0.961	0.062	33.710	237	0.000	2.101	1.98	2.22
Fixed Mean	2.5	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test i.e. (4.60) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 2.5 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 33.710 and a probability level of 0.000 ($P < 0.005$) all indicated that the use of syntax or word arrangement by Gyong learners of English is a source of difficulty due to mother-tongue. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis Seven

Quantifiers are also a predictable source of difficulty for Gyong learners of English. Going by this hypothesis, the total score was expected to be twenty six and if students had any problem with quantifiers, it was likely due to their father – or mother - tongue. If scores were below the average of thirteen, then the encountered difficulty will therefore not be considered a problem. On this basis, the one sample T-test was used to determine the impact of the mother/father-tongue on the quantifiers in English. A fixed mean of 13 was used to determine the impact of father/mother-tongue on students’ use of quantifiers in English. A summary of the test is presented in table seven.

TABLE SEVEN: SAMPLE T-TEST ON QUANTIFIERS, BY STUDENTS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>S.D</i>	<i>S.E</i>	<i>T-Value</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>M.D</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</i>	
								<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
<i>Demonstratives</i>	16.46	6.381	0.414	8.361	237	0.000	3.458	2.64	4.27
<i>Fixed Mean</i>	13.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

The observed mean score for the test i.e. (16.46) is significantly higher than the fixed mean score of 13.00 used for the test. From the observed T-value of 8.361 and a probability level of 0.00 ($P < 0.005$) all indicated that the students are influenced by their mother-tongue in quantifiers in English. Therefore, the null hypothesis is thus rejected.

4.2 STATISTICAL SUMMARY

T-TEST 1

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 9.435$, $P < 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is a significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of pluralisation.

T-TEST 2

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 8.687, P \leq 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of indefinite article.

T-TEST 3

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 15.775, P \leq 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of demonstration.

T-TEST 4

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 4.104, P \leq 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of gentives.

T-TEST 5

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 9.451, P \leq 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of subject verb agreement.

T-TEST 6

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 33.710, P \leq 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of syntax or word arrangement.

T-TEST 7

Rejected H_0 : $t(237) = 8.361$, $P < 0.001$

Explanation of outcome

There is significant statistical difference among the Gyong learners of English in the use of quantifiers.

4.3 SUMMARY

A contrastive analysis of the noun phrase in English and Gyong languages was undertaken by the use of scale instrument to determine the impact of the mother-tongue on English. Headbloom in Ubahakwe (1979) notes similarities and differences in languages and predicted what difficulty may exist. Welmers (1973) in Atsu (1986) and Atsu (1986) in Vall (1974) have highlighted the nature and function of noun classes.

On pluralisation of nouns, a certain benchmark was fixed to determine whether the difficulty faced was due to mother-tongue influence. Going by the statistical result obtained, there is a huge influence of mother-tongue in pluralisation of nouns in English by the students.

On the absence of indefinite article in Gyong language tested against a benchmark to determine the difficulty students' face, the statistical test result ($P < 0.001$) shows a very strong significant level that the absence of indefinite article in Gyong language is a predictable source of difficulty because of its existence in English.

On the use of demonstratives in both Gyong and English languages, the statistical test conducted ($P < 0.001$) shows a strong significant level of statistics, in

rejecting the null hypothesis that the mother-tongue impacts significantly on the use of demonstratives in English by students of Gyong background.

On the use of genitives in both Gyong and English, the statistical test conducted ($P \leq 0.001$) reveals a strong significant level of impact or influence of mother-tongue in Gyong learners of English. This statistical result indicates that the use of genitives by Gyong learners of English is a source of difficulty due to mother-tongue influence.

On subject-verb agreement by Gyong learners of English, the statistical test result ($P \leq 0.001$) based on a conventional alpha level (0.05) shows a significant influence of mother-tongue on Gyong learners of English as a source of difficulty.

On the use of syntax or word arrangement by Gyong learners of English, the statistical test result ($P \leq 0.001$) based on a conventional alpha level of significance indicates an impact or influence of mother-tongue on Gyong learners of English as a predictable source of difficulty.

Conversely, all the noun classes that were subjected to statistical tests using the conventional alpha level (0.05) show very strong statistical significance giving rise to non support of the entire hypothesis.

Generally, all these statistical test results ($P \leq 0.001$) indicate very strong impact or influence of mother-tongue on Gyong learners of English.

4.4 CONCLUSION

Since the colonial era, particularly with the creation of the Nigerian Geographical Area in 1914, English has continued to serve as the language of interpersonal communication among diverse language communities. Furthermore, the importance of English language to Gyong people in particular

and to Nigerians in general can be seen in the light of the fact that it is the official language of the government both at the local and international levels. It is the language of education and subsequently language of the social mobility. In the light of the above truism about the importance of English language in Nigeria, that Gwong people who are members of Nigerian community need little or no further mention. The Gwong child certainly needs a good grasp and usage of the English language for effective communication both in school and outside the school. Besides, the child needs mobility and effective participation in any local and international functions but this depends on his competency in English e.t.c.

In conclusion, the researcher has come to a tenable conclusion that structural grammar would form part of Gyong models for analysis in this work. The preference for structural grammar as a theoretical framework is predicated on the fact that morphological study is essential based on structure itself. It will help in both Gyong and English in the information from texts present; present a very reliable background for testing our hypothesis. Both the text-oriented, speeches from Gyong/English native speakers and interactions with writers and academics of both languages would provide a powerful clout of originality that will further validate our claim in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION..... XIII

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This work is aimed at discovering and discussing the areas of difficulty faced by Gyong learners of the English noun phrase.

To guide the researcher, two assumptions were made. The assumptions were that there are differences in the characteristics and functions of the noun phrase in Gyong and English, and secondly, that these differences are possible areas of predictable difficulty faced by Gyong learner of the English noun phrase.

After the review of related literature, a contrastive analysis of the two languages was carried out in the following areas: noun classes, demonstratives, gender, article, the genitive and concord. Differences and similarities were discovered and some of them were highlighted as inhibiting factors in the acquisition of English as a second language by Gyong learners of English.

An instrument made up of eighty test items based on these predicted areas of difficulty was constructed and administered to 250 students. Out of this number, only 215 were used while 35 subjects did not respond. The purpose of the test was to validate or reject the predictions made earlier.

In chapter 4, the results of the test were quantified, analysed and discussed. The general performance revealed that a high percentage of errors existed. This error margin and typology confirmed all the predictions. The following is a summary of such findings.

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The questions posed at the beginning of the study and the predictions made at the end of chapter 2, guided the researcher. The facts gathered from the contrastive analysis and the results analysed in chapter 4, provided needed answers to research questions. Below are the questions, followed by a summary of the answers:

1. Are there any differences in the number system or pluralisation of nouns in Gyong and English? It was discovered that English rules of pluralisation are greatly different from those of the Gyong language. English admits different and multiple sets of rules and exceptions for regular, irregular and foreign plurals and for invariable nouns. On the other hand, Gyong language operates different rules according to the noun class. For example, prefixation is used for some, where a set of prefixes are added to the stem, there are some where the prefix is deleted from the stem and there is tone switching.
2. Does the absence of the article in Gyong language constitute any difficulty for Gyong learners of English as a second language where the article exists? It was discovered in the study that the use of the articles a, an, the, and \emptyset created a lot of problems for both levels of students. The absence of the indefinite and \emptyset articles in Gyong was seen to be a possible reason for the students' inability to use some of them properly especially the use of the \emptyset article. Students were found to fill in the gap with any article where none existed.
3. Although both languages have demonstratives yet, the question was whether the demonstratives function similarly in both languages.

In answer to this question, it was discovered that although both languages have demonstratives, Gyong learners of English had a lot of difficulties in using English demonstratives. The arrangement and use of the demonstratives in the two languages is different. This is because the English language is the reverse in which case the arrangement is noun + demonstrative.

4. Do any differences exist in the use of the genitive in the two languages? It was discovered that English language uses a possessive whose position on the possessor noun changes for singular and plural noun in the written form. Gyong nouns are not inflected for possession. Furthermore, in word arrangement of a possessive noun with another noun in associative – construction, English places the marked possessor noun before the possessed noun, while the reverse is the case in Gyong where the order is that of the possessed before the possessor.
5. Does concord (that is subject/verb agreement) play any significant role in the functioning of both languages?

The researcher discovered that the English rule for concord requires a plural verb for a plural noun; this leads to changes in the verb form and a singular noun requires a singular verb. But in Gyong, the form of the noun prefix controls the form of all other categories – verbs, adjectives, etc in the sentence that refers or relates to the noun.

6. Does the syntactic arrangement of words in a sentence, that is the structure of the sentence differ in the two languages? If so, does the acquisition of the rules of one language affect the other?

As already discussed in the genitive, it was discovered that the syntactic arrangement or structure of the English sentence allows for the possessor + possessed arrangement while in Gyong, the arrangement is the reverse – possessed + possessor. This affects the way words are structured in the English sentence by Gyong learners of English as a second language. Students transferred the structural arrangement of rules acquired in the L₁ to L₂.

7. Does the absence of quantifiers in Gyong language constitute any learning difficulty in English as a second language where quantifiers exist?

This, too, was discovered that respondents had a lot of difficulty in the use of quantifiers. Students mixed up most of the quantifiers since no previous rules had been formed in the area due to its non-existence in the Gyong language.

What consequence, if any, do the possible differences in the various aspects of the noun phrases in the two languages have on the Gwong child learning English as a second language?

The response to this question invariably provides an answer to the second assumption earlier mentioned; Chapter 4 provided a basis for the answer. The predictions made at the end of Chapter 2 will be validated or rejected by the answers in this section. Generally, the points of differences discovered constituted sources of learning difficulty. The difficulties arising from differences in the following aspects will be treated. The aspects are: pluralisation, use of articles, use of demonstratives, the genitive, concord, syntactic or structural arrangement of words and the use of quantifiers.

5.1.0 Pluralisation: as already established, English language operates different rules for regular, irregular plurals and for invariables. These difficulties manifested themselves in the patterns of answers in the test items. Difficulties with regular plurals were manifested in:

- a) Incorrect choices of the allomorphs (-es, -ies) of the number of plural.
- b) Incorrect choices of the allomorphs (-s) of the number of plural.
- c) Inability to change inner vowels -oo-, (-es plurals)
- d) The use of foreign plurals, that is change from (-um to -a; -i to -e)
- e) Difficulties with invariable nouns were manifested in the addition of -s, -es, -e, -ies, to invariable nouns like 'statistics' and 'sheep'. (See table 1)

5.1.1 Articles: Gyong does not have the article as opposed to the English language which has three types: the definite 'the', the indefinites 'a', 'an' and the \emptyset articles. Difficulties rising in the use of the articles were manifested in such areas as: inappropriate use of 'a', 'an', 'the', and insertion of articles where there should be none. (See Table 2)

5.1.2 The use of demonstratives: difficulties arising from the use of demonstratives included: substituting singular for plural and wrong choice of the proper demonstrative. These demonstratives are: this, these, that, those. Result as computed in Table 3 shows the error.

5.1.3 The genitives: difficulties arising from the possessive form include:

- a) Wrong choice and use of the -s- genitive
- b) Wrong choice and use of the -of- genitive

(See Table 4)

5.1.4 Concord: difficulties were revealed in the subject-verb agreement. (Refer to Table 5)

5.1.5 Word agreement: students revealed the difficulty they had in this area by their inability to pick out which agreement was correct. The analysis on Table 6 reveals the error.

5.1.6 The use of quantifiers: the last prediction was on the use of quantifiers: some, each, any, every, both, many, much, a few, a little, number, all and amount. Since these do not exist in Gyong language, the possibility of Gwong students using them correctly becomes low. The test results of Table 7 show this.

5.2 SOURCES OF ERROR

Two sources of error have been revealed in this study. These include:

- a) Such peculiarities inherent in the English language constitute a major source of error.
- b) The interference of elements of the mother-tongue in the second language.

Some of the errors were caused by the ambiguities, inconsistencies, anomalies and irregularities that characterize the structures and systems of the English language. Most of the language rules with very few exceptions seem to contradict the rules and introduce confusion in the mind of the learner. This leads to over-generalization, misapplication of the rules resulting in grammatical constructions and other developmental errors.

Language is a set of habits. The acquisition and use of language is a process of habit formation. Since the learner has imbibed the structures and systems of the mother-tongue from childhood, these have permanently been fixed in his mind. An attempt at acquiring another language, a foreign one for instance, prompts the habits of the L_1 , in which he thinks, to readily come up for use. They get in the way and the learner either transfers some elements from L_1 to replace

those that are non-existent in the target language or he may ignore completely those elements or features of the L₂ that he may not be familiar with. This leads to omission of vital elements and the misapplication of the rules.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Similarities and differences in languages exist on their own rights. It is the interest and preoccupation of linguistics to always point them out.

Venturing into this kind of research work, creates in me a strong feeling that there is the need to lavish more of our efforts in finding out how our native languages as systems operate. With this realization, I suggest that more studies in the Nigerian native languages be encouraged.

Gyong being a class language with unique features summarized above operate in very unique ways and has a lot of advantages.

I here fore want to categorically state that there is need to carry out more elaborate researches in the language and not only in the other facets of the language but including its morphology, syntax and semantics as well. This is because due to numerous constraints, a research of this type can only set a prelude for further researches.

Ultimately, I want to recommend that the findings of this research highlighted by means of the collected raw data should be used by curriculum planners as well as teachers of English language among native Gyong people to fine-tune methods and materials in favor of the Gyong second language learner of English.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This research has provided more insights into the areas of difficulty the Gyong learner of English encounters in the target language. To arrive at this point, assumptions were made, a test administered, and error analysis made. The assumptions have been upheld and remedial materials have been suggested in the following areas:

1. Pluralisation of nouns
2. Articles
3. Genitives
4. Concord
5. Demonstratives
6. Word arrangement
7. Quantifiers

It is therefore important to suggest that more research work be carried out on other parts of speech e.g. characteristics and functions of the adjective, the preposition, the adverb, the conjunction; if this is done, it will greatly assist in arriving at a more comprehensive description of the language.

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APPENDIX

**SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY
ZARIA, KADUNA STATE.
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEST**

Name: Sex:
School: Date:
Class: Father's Tribe:
Tribe: Mother's tribe:

TEST ITEMS

SECTION A

Change the underlined words in the following sentences to plurals where possible

1. I met the boy in the library
2. The man came late
3. It is not possible to get the box
4. He lost his tooth in the fight
5. The hunter could not kill the wolf
6. Remove the sharp stone from here
7. The house collapsed last year
8. They could not find the knife
9. I could not trace the sheep
10. The carpenter has repaired the roof blown off by the storm

SECTION B

Fill in the blank spaces with correct answers chosen from the alternatives in brackets.

- 11..... is a natural phenomenon (That, Those)
- 12.I have not heard Story. (This, Those)
- 13.James has never been to Town. (These, This)
- 14.Please, wash pair of shorts for me. (This, Those)
- 15..... carpenter is excellent. (Those, This)
- 16..... men over there are medical doctors. (That, Those)
- 17.I enjoy readingstory. (That, These)
- 18.You better stop playing with Girl. (That, Those)
- 19.....car belongs to my wife. (This, These)
- 20.....hens are sick. (This, These)

SECTION C

Tick the correct expression in these pairs of sentences.

- | A | B |
|-------------------|--------------|
| 21.Cows three | three cows |
| 22.Teacher's room | room teacher |
| 23.House small | small house |
| 24.Kyana's dress | dress Kyana |
| 25.Dog Dyanet | Dyanet's dog |

SECTION D

Fill in the blank spaces with appropriate article (a, an, the,) where necessary or where no article is required.

- 26.Yimi is beautiful girl
- 27..... criminal you are talking about was put in prison.
- 28..... woman who lives next door is very kind.
- 29.You have to consultchairman of the occasion.

30. What he said is insult to humanity.
31. You need exercise book for that assignment.
32. Fimi has only envelope on her desk.
33. Dyeri has umbrella.

SECTION E

Fill in the blank spaces with correct answers chosen from the brackets.

34. The sick our care (need/needs)
35. These bicycles new (is/are)
36. Mathematics a difficult subject (is/are)
37. The people here kind to visitors (are/is)
38. The cattle grazing down the hill (is/are)
39. The news not reached us (has/have)
40. Politics a dirty game (is/are)
41. Dodo carelessly (talk/talks)
42. Dyeri a black goat (have/has)
43. Kyuma French very fluently (speak/speaks)
44. The rich also (cry/cries)
45. Theya a white hen (has/have)

SECTION F

Tick the correct expression from these sets of sentences.

Example: This is Yimi's bag

This is the bag of Yimi.

This is Yimis' box.

The correct expression is: This is Yimi's bag.

46. This College is for training teachers. (It is a teachers' College/ It is a teacher's College)
47. The tyres of the car are bad. / The car's tyres are bad.
48. This is not your shirt. (It is Kure's/It is Kures')
49. That is James house. / That is James' house.
50. Daddy bought a car yesterday. (It is Daddys'/ It is Daddy's).
51. The table's leg is broken/ the leg of the table is broken.
52. This hostel is for students. (It is a student's hostel. / it is a students' hostel)
53. This book belongs to Laraba. (It is Laraba's/It is Larabas').
54. The toys are for my children. (They are my childrens'/ They are my children's).

SECTION G

Choose from the words in brackets the one that correctly fills in gaps in the following sentences.

55. You just need to put in effort and you will pass (a few/many/a little/ the)
56. It requiresof water to complete that work (many/few/plenty/a little)
57. The principal addressed the students this morning (all/some/each/any)
58. body caught stealing will be punished (some/all/each/any)
59. I need salt (some/each/all/any)
60. She has met him times (all/any/each/several)
61. Foni has four children and of them are in secondary school (all /any/any/both)

62. I have gotboys to do the work (each/some/all/any)
- 63..... member must participate in the work (all/each/any/some)
64. Kure and Thyeza are my brothers, of them live in Kaduna
(any/some/both/two)
65. Howmoney do you have? (many/little/much/plenty)
66. There isoil left (many/a few/ little/any)
67. The trader bags of rice (a few/a little/much/a)
68. The meeting is formales and females (both/each/few/some)
69. There arestudents who cannot spell their names
(little/much/plenty/many)
70. We need onlymore hours to get home (a little/a few/ the/much)
71. A goodof students cannot speak English (number/amount)
- 72..... of the pupils will pass this test (a little/much/many/a large
amount)
73. The Fulani man has cows (much/many/a little)
74. You have seen a goodof our houses already (number/amount)
75. A largeof sand is needed for that work (number/amount)
76. Kyana talks too (many/much)
77. Howtime do we have for this test? (many/much/few/little)
78. Tene assisted a goodof us financially (amount/number)
79. Yimi inherited a largeof money from her father (amount/number)
80. The salt does not have to be (many/few/much)