A CONTRASTIVE SYNTACTIC STUDY OF THE SENTENCE STRUCTURES OF ENGLISH AND IGALA

BY

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Ph.D/ARTS/P16AREN9042/2016-2017

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF THE DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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FACULTY OF ARTS,
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MAY, 2018

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis, entitled 'A Contrastive Syntactic Study of the Sentence Structures in English and Igala' was written by me and is a record of my own research work. It has not been previously presented anywhere in application for a higher degree. All sources of information have been duly acknowledged.

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis, entitled "A Contrastive Syntactic Study of the Sentence structures of English and Igala", has been read and approved as satisfying the regulations governing the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria-Nigeria.

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DEDICATION

To my baby, Janet and the kids.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am eternally grateful to the Almighty God, the Lord of words; in whom dwells knowledge both the attainable and the unattainable. Without this awesome God, this would have just remained a mere dream. My heartfelt gratitude goes to my supervisors, Prof, Adebayo A. Joshua, Dr. Ahmed Abdullahi and Dr. Isyaku Saminu for painstaking and meticulous supervision in the course of this study, I also remain very grateful to Prof. Gbenga Ibileye of the department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Kogi State and all the lecturers in the department of English and Literary Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for their useful contributions towards making this research work seeing the light of day. Their comments have indeed contributed in shaping the dissertation. I will not forget to mention Prof. Gani - Ikhilama, Prof. Dili Ofuokwu, Prof, Tajudeen Surakat, Dr. Samson Abaya and Dr. Jonah Amodu for their constant encouragement towards making this study a success. I am also grateful to Dr. Auwal and Dr. (Mrs.) Hauwa of the department for their constructive contributions at seminars. These have immensely contributed to making this study successfully attaining this level.

Coming down home to the Department of Languages, Kaduna Polytechnic, I most salute my friends and colleagues for the tremendous assistance they have willingly offered to me in the course of this study. Those deserving special mention are Mallam Abdulrahman Mahaman , Mrs. Saratu S. Isah , Mrs. F. A. Ojo, Mrs. Maryam Kangiwa, Dr. (Mrs.) M. A Onjewun, Mr. Kenneth Anumudu, Dr. M. B. Babayo, Mallam Hassan Suleman and Mallam Yahaya Zubairu. Others are Hajiya Habiba Sule, Hajiya Hauwa Ibrahim, Mrs. R. L. Agamah and Mallam Musa Mahuta.There are sawmany other colleagues whose names I could not mention.You are too numerous, I remain grateful for your care and encouragements.

The next groups of people I must thank most profoundly are members of my family. Here I must begin with my dear wife Janet, the children; Iye, Oma, Inikpi and Kaka. Others are my mother, siblings and those in my care. You really stood by me through the thick and thin. In short, space will not permit me to mention all the wonderful people that contributed to the success of this work. You are all appreciated.

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ABSTRACT

The research, entitled "A Contrastive Syntactic Study of the Sentence Structures of English and Igala" was undertaken as a contribution towards the development of contemporary Igala grammar. The work entailed looking at various constructions in Igala against similar constructions in English. The structural theory as employed by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartik (1985) was adopted as the theoretical framework. Using data from recordings, native speakers intuition, informal conversation and books written in Igala, the research findingshighlighted some characteristics of the sentence structures in Igala that were peculiar to the language including the noun preceding articles and adjectives when the subject is a combination of both. For verbs, Igala lacks morphological inflections as used in English. The past form of the simple or habitual tense is formed by removing an auxiliary verb 'a' instead of simply adding 'd' or 'ed' as done in English. The verb 'be' as found in English with all its different forms does not exist in Igala but replaced by verbs that perform other duties such as 'de' and 'che' the verb 'fu' is use as auxiliary to express the verb 'have' in all situations. While English maintains a 'svo' pattern, Igala has both 'svo' and 'sov' structures. Also, in the 'svo' sentence structures in Igala, the direct object precedes the indirect but always connected by a preposition 'to' or 'for' (ng). For compound sentence, it was discovered that Igala uses different words on particles for the conjunctions 'and' (ngo, langa) and 'but' (Muda, amaa) and for the complex sentence structures the subordinators in Igala are fewer than those of English as one can be used to express more than one different subordinate clauses. In conclusion, the findings of the study highlighted several areas of the organization of the utterances in the language thus proving that Igala was capable of using a high degree of complexities in the sentence structures to express complete ideas just as in English and other languages.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of The Study

The evolution of language is a topic that has attracted considerable attention through human history. So far, linguists have not yet been able to come up with a universally acceptable theory to account for why man has the faculty of speech or language.

Botha etal (2009)have arguedthat the evolution of language required both the development of the anatomical apparatus for speech and also neurological changes in the brain to support languageitself,but other species have some of these capabilities without full language abilities

Crystal (1997:138) has contended that human life in its present form would be impossible and inconceivable without the use of language. He argues that people have long recognized the force and significance of language and this is fully demonstrated by one important aspect of all human societies and cultures, naming: applying a word to refer to persons or things.

In addition, it is interesting to note that human being initiated the use of language to communicate by using words and symbols meaningful to speakers and listeners. Hence, relationships between people, transmission of information, exchange of ideas and expression of feelings, thoughts and experiences became gradually much facilitated and effective. Consequently, societies became more closely knit together having greater consciousness of the need for collective responsibility for the attainment of their goals and objectives. Moreso, as a result of advanced technology, the deaf and dumb, the blind and the mentally- impaired are able to communicate using language. In real life, language

could be realized in the art of story telling, using posters to convey crispy information and even delivering a sermon to a congregation of worshippers.

Many definitions of language have been advanced by linguists and communication scholars alike. These variations reflect the various intellectual dispositions of the scholars. Sapir (1921 in Lyons,1981:3) sees language as “a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols”. From this definition, this study projects that although there are different types of languages: animal, machine and many systems of voluntarily produced symbols, the human language and use of symbols for the production of language is unique. It is man’s unique characteristic that makes the difference between man and other animals. While man talks to communicate, lower animals merely have various instinctive cries which are invariable.

Bloch and Trager, also in Lyons (1981:4), using symbol as one of the defining featuresof human language, see it as “a system of arbitrary vocal symbol by means of which a social group co-operates.” This definition points to the fact that human language performs an invaluable function of co-operation and unification between a group of people that speak it. Also seeing language from the symbolic perspective, Hall (1968) defines it as “the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral auditory arbitrary symbols”. There is an emphasis on language being human specific here and that it binds all members ofany speechcommunity who live within the environment of that language.

Languages could also mark out an ethnic group even where distance in settlement separate such a group. Greenberg (1968 in Galadima 2009) shows after a study of other forms of communication among animal that it is human language that possesses multi-modality, duality and semantic universality. It consists of analyzable grammatical structures and the capability for producing and interpreting infinite number of sentences which might never have been heard. Supporting this, Hregerse (1977) observes that every human language has a word that is adequate for the culture in which it is used. It has a complete grammar and vocabulary which can be said to share certain universal characteristics with other languages. These universal features of language, according to Bolinger (1968:18) are:-

1. All languages have nominal phrases and verbal phrases corresponding to the two major classes of noun and verb. And that in all of them, the number of nouns far exceeds the number of verbs. One can be fairly sure that a noun in one language translates also to a noun inanother language.
2. All languages have modifiers of two classes corresponding to adjectives and adverbs
3. All languages have ways of turning verb phrases into nominal phrases (he went –I know that he went).
4. All languages have ways of making adjective - like phrase out of other kinds of phrases (the man went- the man who went).
5. All languages have ways of turning sentences into interrogatives, negatives and commands.

6. All languages show, at least, two forms of interaction between verbal and nominal, typically “intransitives” (the verbal is involved with two nominal, as in Boys like girls)

Also worthy of consideration is the definition of language given by Chomsky in Lyons (op cit) as it relates to this study. Chomsky sees language as ***A set of sentences each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements***

In this definition, Chomsky talks about language as being both natural and man-made. The focus of this study is the natural language. In describing a natural language, a linguist’s preoccupation is to determine which of the “finite sequences of elements in that language are sentences and which are non-sentences. As a result of this, sentences that are acceptable as Igala sentences are identified and described in this study. Again, from the definitions above, it is clear that language has specific reference to man. That is to say, it is only man who has the capacity to acquire language as a basic tool of communication. Language is therefore a means of symbolic signification and communication used only by man. Infact, itmore than anything else distinguishes man from the lower animals.When people speak their language, they believe that they have a grasp of the grammatical rules of the language. With this notion, they feel they can give a judgment about which of the sentences are meaningful, nonsensical or ambiguous. In spite of this, therethe need toundertake to study the syntax of every language by scholars. Syntax, according to Thomas (1993), seeks to describe the way words fit together to form sentences or utterances. It is primarily concerned with the structure of the sentencethe ways words combine in a language to form sentences. It helps the speaker of a language

to know whether sentences are syntactically wellformed or not and also explains for an ill - formed sentence or utterance.

As an important feature of the grammar of a language, the constituent structure of the sentence needs to be studied in one's attempt at analyzing the grammar of a language.

The Igala People

The Igala people are strategically located within the triangle formed by the confluence of the Rivers Niger and Benue in Kogi State of Nigeria. They are found east of the confluence of these rivers. The land is bounded on the west by the River Niger, on the east by Enugu State, on the south by Anambra State and on the North by Benue and Nasarawa States.`

Igalaland could be said to be a sort of terminus because of its location at the natural cross- roads in Nigeria. For this reason, it has been influenced by trends of events as it is pulled in different directions. The place has enjoyed some degree of encounter with the Yoruba, the Edo (Benin),the Jukun,the Idoma, the Nupe, theIgbo, the Hausa, the Ebira, the Bassa-Komo and Bassa - Nge all of which have left certain imprints on the tradition or culture of the Igala people. This central position may account for the land being considered a cultural melting pot. In spite of this, it might not be quite true to conclude that Igala is totally a conglomeration of other linguistic groups as it existed as an entity on its own before the other cultures were assimilated into its mainstream.

The Igala Language

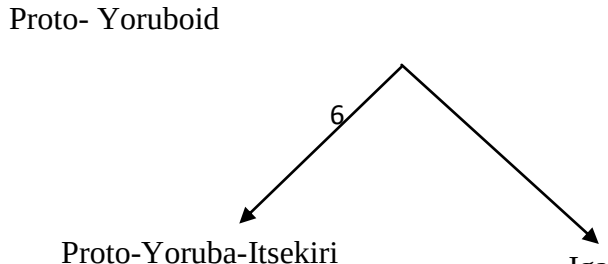
According to Silverstein (1973), in Adaji (2008), Igala Language is classified as a member of the Kwa group of languages.Following Greenberg's (1963) observation in *The Languages of Afri*ca, Igala has both genetic and linguistic relationships with Yoruba

within this Kwa group because of existing lexical and phonological commonalities between the two languages. Armstrong (1953), commenting on Igala says" Igala is about as closely related to Yoruba as German is to English and as close to Idoma as English is to Latin". But, Igala today is a distinct languagesystem following the long period of separation from Yoruba.

Following the 1984 National Seminar on Igala language and its fallout, Igala has been a language like any other language in the world, capable of international intelligibility and social acceptability. One thing to note about similarities on linguistic features with other language communities is that they are not always accidental but as a result of common ancestor.

Although several earlier authors, researchers and scholars in African linguistics such as Armstrong (1955) and Silverstein (1973) have referred to Igala as a dialect of Yoruba, the status of Igala as a language distinct from, although closely related to Yoruba,is a widely accepted one. The most recent genetic classification of Igala is contained in Akinkugbe (1976 and 1978), in Maiyanga (2002).In this two works, cited in Adaji (2008), Igala is classified as one of the two co-ordinate branches of proto-Yoruboid (the common ancestral language of present day Igala, Itsekiri and Yoruba). The other branch of proto-Yoruboid is proto-Yoruba-Itsekiri (the common ancestral language of present day Ishekiri and Yoruba). Below is a diagrammatic presentation of this classification in Akinkugbe as cited in Maiyanga(2002: 4).

Fig 1





The various Yoruba dialects

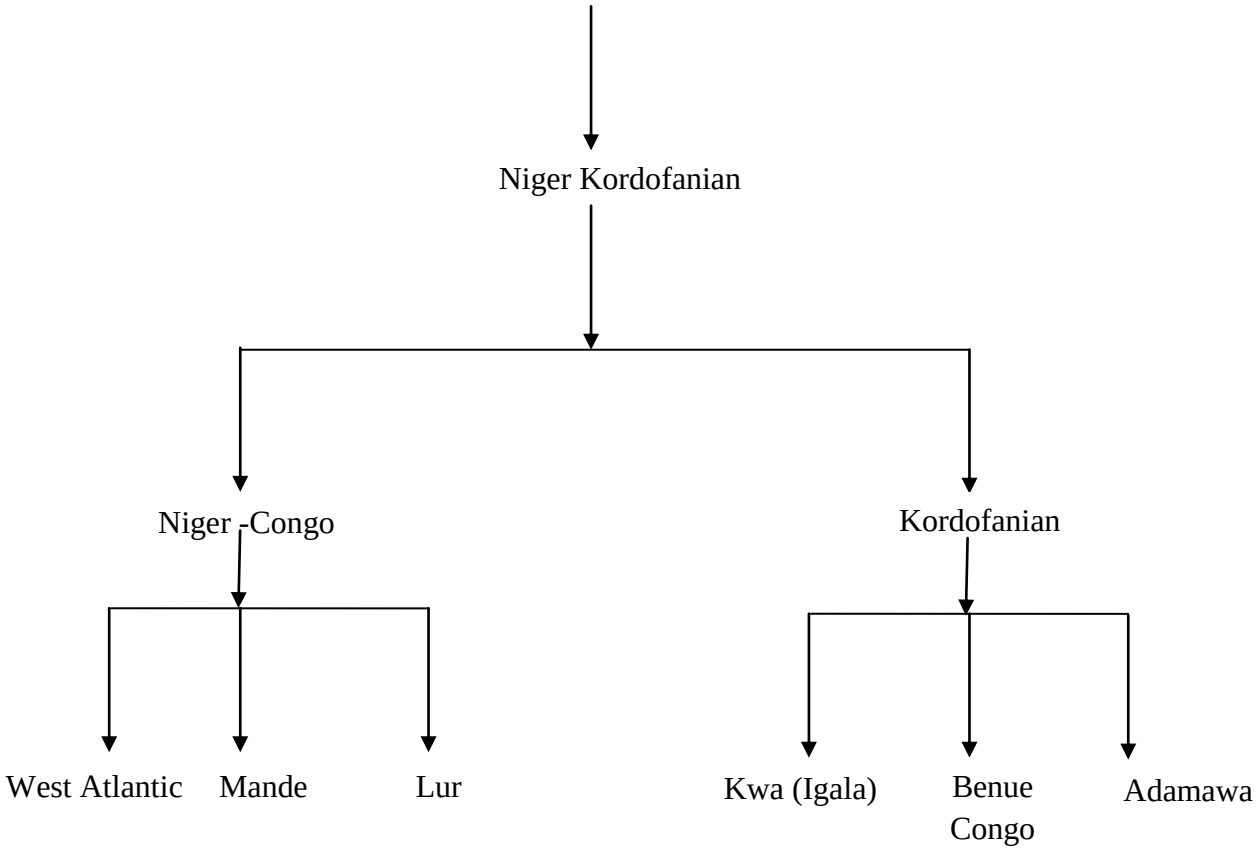
Fig.1 above shows that there was a time in the past when Igala, Itsekiri and Yoruba were one proto-Yoruboid. Using this evidence, Akinkugbe (1976 and 1978) is of the opinion that Igala is neither a dialect of Yoruba nor a language resulting from the fusion of Yoruba and Idoma as claimed by Silverstein.Rather, it shares a"common ancestor" with Yoruba.In her words, "… this common ancestor is neither Yoruba nor Igala but what we have labelled here as proto –Yoruba-Itsekiri –Igala (PYIG). The evidence suggest further, that presumably, Igala separated from the group before the split of Yoruba into the present day Yoruba dialects considering the extent of linguistic divergence found between Igala, on one hand, and the rest of Yoruba dialects on the other".

After the Igala split, the rest of the group remained as one proto-Yoruba-Itsekiri.Later, this group further split into two-an Itsekiribranch, which has given rise to the present day Itsekiri and a proto- Yoruba branch which later gave rise to present day Yoruba dialects. From the diagram, it is clear that Yoruba and Itsekiri are linguistically more closely related than either Yoruba and Igala or Itsekiriand Igala. This is because Igala separated

from the ancestral language group much earlier and remained isolated from it, while the rest of the group still kept together for a much longer period.

Yoruboid, the name given to the genetic group comprising Igala, Itsekiri and Yoruba, is only a sub-branch of a larger group called "Kwa".Other languages believed by contemporary historians to belong to the "Kwa" group are the modern Igbo, Yoruba, Edoid (the Edo languages) Idoma, Ebira, Volta-Potou, Ha-Adangne, Ewe, Niger-Kaduna (e.g. Nupe and Gode) Ijaw and many other ethnic groups in present day Nigeria. Kwa is,inturn a sub- branch of a larger language family called Niger-Congo of the Niger-kordo fanian group. This, according Greenberg's classification of languages as cited in Adaji (2008), is diagrammatically represented below:

Fig 2 GREENBERG'S CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES



Dialects of Igala

According to Petyt (1980:11), "dialects are different forms of the same language". Looking at it from this point of view, a dialect can be seen as a variety of a language spoken in one area in which features of grammar and vocabulary as well as aspects of pronunciation are slightly different from other varieties of the same language. He also explains that using a language may necessarily involves using one of its dialects.

Also trying to define dialects, Gregersen (1977:13) says

> *In formal usage, a dialect is usually taken to mean merely a variety or subdivision of a language…. Mutually intelligible dialects constitute a language. Dialects do not necessarily exhibit clear-cut boundaries but tend to manage imperceptibly.*

This definition uses the criterion of mutual intelligibility and not necessarily clear-cut boundaries. However, the level or degree of intelligibility that will classify the dialects as belonging to the same language is yet to be determined. He also observes that the required degree of intelligibility has never been agreed upon and would undoubtedly be dependent on subjective judgment. In addition to these, Pie in Oluikpe (1979:3), sees dialect as:-

> *A specific branch or form of a language spoken in a given geographical area differing sufficiently from the official standard or literary form of the language in one or all levels of the language (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and idiomatic use of words) to be viewed as a distinct entity, yet not sufficiently different from dialects of the language to be regarded as a separate language"*

This definition views dialect from the point of linguistic deviation from one another in terms of the phonology, syntax and lexis of the language.Basedon this and other definitions earlier mentioned, it is clear that Igala has dialects. This is in line with resolution 7(seven) after the 1984 National Seminar on Igala language which states that:

> *The geographically central dialectto be used as the base for developing the standardorthography of the language. (the one spoken around Anyigba, Egume, Ejule, up to Ugwolawo without border line influence).*

This implicitly agrees that the dialects that exist in Igala language are mostly due to borderland influence. Although no known study has been conducted on the dialects of Igala, we can, by, impressionistic judgment classify them asfollows: Ogwugwu, Ibaji, Ankpa, Ete, Dekina, Anyigba/Egwume, Ife, Ogwuma and Odolu/Akpanya dialects.

Onoja (1984) presents a wordlist of Ogwugwu dialect ranging from general issues, names of crops and food items to domestic animals. This means that in spite of the impact other languages have on the Igala spoken in Ogwugwu, the dialect has a major degree of

originality of the standard Igala. A few items noted by Onoja (op cit) cited in Maiyanga (2002), are as follows:

General Issues

1. OGWUGWU	**STANDARD IGALA**	**ENGLISH**
La	*Lewa, Liya*	come
Fule	*Rule*	Run
Tane	*Gwugwu*	Sit
Okoche	*Ukoche*	Hoe

.

2. Crop and Food Items

Ikeke	*Api*	Melon
Oho	*Oro*	Okra
Akakpa	*Akpa*	Maize/corn
Okede	*Ikachi*	Cocoa-yam
Ichapa	*Odumu, uchu'opa*	Sweet-potato

3. Domestic Animals

Ajire	*Ajuwe*	Hen
Idagbo	*Idagwo*	Duck

The other dialects mentioned above have their uniqueness to be dialects of Igala. It should be noted, however, that dialectal differences are mostly at the lexical level.

The Tone

Like most languages of the world, Igala is a tone language. In all tone languages, changes in the pitch of the voice affect meanings of utterances. It is against the system in which languages use consonants and vowels to build morphemes which are in turn,

joinedtogether to form words. For example, the English word “me” is made up of a nasal consonant followed by a high vowel. If we change the consonant to “b”, we would get a different word “be”, and if we change the vowel to a low vowels we would also get a different word ‘ma’.

In tone languages, pitch patterns are used to build morphemes in the same way consonants and vowels are used. One of the well known of these languages is Chinese in which the syllable ‘ma’, when pronounced, could either mean “to scold, hemp” “mother” or “horse” depending on the pitch pattern. In a nutshell, in all tone languages, including Igala, a substitution of one tone for another on a particular word could change the lexical meaning of the word. Igala language is not an exception. For example, the word ’Oko’ could mean money, husband, shipor boat or millipede depending of the pitch pattern used by a speaker.

To a native speaker of Igala, tonal indication is as important as the consonants and vowels. Many of our words are distinguishable only by tone. The language is so tonal in nature that it bears a great burden of lexical, morphological and syntactic information. In Igala, tone levels are conveniently divided into three: high mid low or acute and, middle or grave as classified by Etu in his unpublished grammar work on Igala language. In Igala lexicon, therefore, there are differences in meaning in the pronunciation of some lexicon items when tone-marked.For example:-

4.

1	Oko-Parrot Oko-farm Okoo-Pig Ooko-hienia	3.	edo-monkey edo-axe edo-bossom/chest, briefly
2.	Omu-voice	4.	oko-money

Omu-salt
Omu-flour

oko-husband
okoo-boat

5. ona-Road/way
ona-tomorrow
ona- dream
Ona-greeting for Muslims

6. olu-sun
olu-sleep

7. Odu-name
oodu-master/Lord
odu- night

8. Ewo-town
ewo-season
ewo-goat

9. adu- load
adu-slave

10. Ubi-placenta
ubi-spitting snake (cobra)
ubi-back

11. abo- people/handle of a hoe and axeAbo- a type of tree/masquerade uniform

12. ogba-fence
ogba-tall/front
oogba-funeral dance

13. Uno-palm kernel
uno-miracle

14. owo-broom
owo-hand
owo-multitude
owo-muslim prayer

15. owe- harmattan
owe-communal farming

16. la-shave/stray
la- to buy

17 du-take
du-darken
du-win/conquer, overcome

18 kpa-kill/fetch
kpa-ripe

19. ko-full/build
ko-write
ko- refuse

20. ama-curse
ama-they(3rd person pronoun)
ama-clay
ama-but

21. akpa-maize
akpa-muslim
akpa-grass hopper
akpa-sky/cloud
akpa-hard dead wood.

As important as the tone marking is, thisresearcher is of the view that not many persons will want to write Igala if this is to be strictly adhered to as it makes writing difficult. Also suggested is that future writing in Igala should be done as it is in the available

literatures that are not tone marked but meanings of words are reading deduced from the context. In addition, the researcher observes that after all, the English language does not have all these tone marks yet people learn and understand it. The researcher further states that in as much as tone marking makes utterances to be clear, unambiguous, emphatic and easily understood, the inability to tone mark, according to Armstrong (1986:108) is likely due to the fact that:

> *Most writers are unable to cope with the complete uses of tone in the language.Most writers believe that the language can be written and understood without thecumbersome tones and accents. It is believed that the native speaker's knowledge of correct pronunciation and spelling can eliminate the need to use tone marking in writing the language.*

Igala and Other Languages in Contact

As earlier pointed out, Igala had had a lot of contact with many other linguistic groups. This experience naturally left certain imprints on the language, tradition and culture of the Igala people. It is also because of this 'close contact' with other Nigerian Languages that Sofunke (1990:47) suggests that Igalabe known as 'Nigerian' and taken as a national language because:

> *It indicates strong linguistic and or cultural links with three major ethnic zones in Nigeria. Shelton (1971), for instance, has highlighted the historical phenomenon represented by the Igala language community. As a result of the contact between the Hausa of Zazzau and the Igala people as well as between the Igala people and the Igbo of Nsukka, the Igala language community has been a cultural melting pot. One fact which gives Igala an edge over Idoma, for instance, is that while Idoma is confined to the Otukpo area of Benue state, Igala extends to three states of the federation i.e. Benue, Bendel, Anambra.*

The strategic location of this linguistic group has enhanced their linguistic influence, collaboration or borrowing from other neighboring linguistic groups .A case in point is

the fact that some words borrowed from Hausa are gradually becoming the Igala words or have extended the meaning of some. For example:

5

Hausa	**Igala**	**English**
Talaka	*otalaka*	the masses
Mugunta	*omugwuta*	wickedness
Zunubi	*ejunubi*	sin
Madaki	*omadachi*	ward head
Jumaa	*ajuma*	Friday
Ladi	*Aladi*	Sunday
Laraba	*Ilaluba*	Wednesday
Fitila	*omutula*	lamp
Bindiga	*obochiga*	rifle/gun
Kalangu	*ikelegwu*	talking drum

Also, the contact with English language has influenced Igala that there are at present no Igala word for messenger, labourer, school and cinema. These words are called*imachoja, ilebula, ichekpulu and ichelema* respectively

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Igala language has really attracted the attention of various scholars following attempts in the past and present to documents, develop modernize and standardize the language.

The first published account of the Igala language was in Rev. John Clarkes *specimens of dialects* in 1848. Writing of the language continue throughout that century, the last century and even into the new millennium. For instance, 1935, W.T.A Philpot published a text entitled 'A *short story of Igala'*. In the same vein Prof. R.A Armstrong in 1951 presented a paper titled "Igala: A preliminary report with word list at the Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan. In 1965, he published A Comparative word lists of Igala and Yoruba. Two American peace corps volunteers; Mr. Ray Silverstein and Mr. Edward Fresco did phonological studies of Igala language, and Silverstein (1973) in

particular, wrote a Ph.D thesis on “Igala Historical Phonology” at the University of California, Loss Angles (Armstrong and Miachi, 1986).

Recently, some native linguist conducted some researches on certain aspect of Igala language (Maiyanga, 2002, Omachonu, 2000, 2001,2003 and 2007, Atadoga, 2007, Adaji, 2008, Ejeba, 2008, Ahmad, 2009, Ikani, 2004 and Andrew - Ogidi , 2015). In spite of these developments, the study of Igala language still needs to be taken more seriously for fear of the language going into extinction. More worrisome is the fact that, of the three languages classified as Yoruboid group of languages, Igala is the least described.

This present researcher in tends to do a Contrastive Syntactic Study of the Main Sentence Structures of English and Igala with a view to ascertaining areas of differences and similarities between the two as a step towards development contemporary Igala grammar

1.3 **Research Questions**

In investigating the Igala sentence structure, the following questions are formulated to serve as guide:

1) What are the syntactic elements thatare found in Igala sentence structure?
2) To what extent do structural elements of the simple sentence differ in English and Igala?
3) How are compound sentences formed in Igala?
4) What elements are needed to describe the complex sentence in English and Igala?

1.4 **Aim and Objectives of the Study**

The aim of the study is to analyse linguistic expressions and describe the different syntactic structures of the main sentences in English and Igala. In doing this, attempts will be made to achieve the following objectives:

i) To identify and analyse the elements of English and Igala sentences structure

ii) To Identify and analyse the extent to which English and Igala simple sentence structures differ syntactically.

iii) To identify and analyse the compound sentence structure in English and Igala

iv) To identify and analysis the elements needed to describe the complex sentences in English and Igala.

1.5 Purpose of the Study

According to Halliday (1985:ii), "there is no such thing as a 'complete account of the grammar of a language, because the study of a language is inexhaustible". For this study therefore, the purpose is to analyze the main sentence structures of English and Igala. In doing this, the researcher intents to use the theory of descriptive grammar to discuss the simple, compound and complex sentences of the two languages.

It should be noted that this is merely a preliminary attempt at the description of Igala main sentences as more research effort should be exacted by scholars for a full description of Igala syntax.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study investigates the sentence components of English and Igala and analyses their structures bringing to the fore the dominant sentencepatterns in the two languages. The study, therefore, is significant because as major language in Nigeria after Yoruba, Hausa

and Igbo an in-depth researchinto its structure is necessary to enable other members of the society know its characteristic features as it is believed that studying a language unlocks the secrets of its rich cultural heritage, technological ingenuity and uniqueness. Also, studying a language brings about the development of the written form which makes possible the presentation of the people's history, ethics, philosophy, heroic deeds, exploits, the myths and legends.

Chiweike and Chika (2006) have referred to any language without a developed written form as "spoken language which leaves no archaeology and it is not worth remembering: for when a language dies which has never been written, it is as if it has never existed".

Also worthy of mentionis the Igala elite's clamos that the language be introduced as a medium of instruction in early primary education in Igala land not only in compliance with the National Policy on education (2004) but to heighten the socio –linguistic consciousness of the Igala language. In a nut-shell, this study is significant because it will:

1. ProvideIgala speakers some information about the structure of the sentence in their own language.
2. Also it is believed that the study will serve as a base for other scholars who will want to study other aspects of the language or conduct further investigation on the structure of sentences in Igala.
3. And linguists in general will find the study of interest as it will serve as pathway to tackling other areas of studies in the language.

1.7 **Scope and Delimitation**

This study is syntactic description of the sentence, avoiding the semantic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic descriptions which are also important structures of language study.

It is therefore limited to the analysis of the structural classes of sentence in English and Igala.The functional classes such as commands,exclamations, responses and such other utterances that may be considered as semantically complete sentences but regarded as syntactically incomplete are not investigated.

In short, it is the analyses of the structure of English and Igala simple sentences, describing how sentences are compounded in English and Igala and also looking at the components of the complex sentence structure in English and Igala.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Preamble

In this chapter, the researcher examines contrastive linguistics and the theories on levels of analysis in language that are the main components of the grammar of language. Although, levels of linguistic analysis such as phonology and morphology are reviewed, the discussion of the syntactic level of analysis is more indepth as it isthe main concern or the subject of theresearch work.

2.1Different Approaches to Linguistic Analysis

The word *"Grammar*" has been described byvarious authorities in different ways. It is defined as: "….. well formed statement about the rules of usage," (Ubahakwe Sogbesan, (eds)2001]

Yule (1996) breaks it into pedagogical, sociological and linguistic. While pedagogical grammar involves a description of how to use grammar of the language communicate for people wanting to learn a target language, sociological grammar concerns itself with the study of developing structure and functioning in areas such as meaning andpronunciation and linguistic grammar is a set of structural rules governing composition of clauses, phrases, and words in the giving natural language.

According to Wilkins (1974), knowledge of a language depends upon the mastery of its vocabulary as much as of its grammar. Quirk (1962) warn that enlarged vocabulary is

equally a ridiculous acquisition without the corresponding knowledge of how the words we have learnt are used. Palmer (1971) looks at grammar as:

> …..a device that specifies that set as well-
> formed sentences and assigns to each of
> them one or more structural descriptions.

Based on these views, it can be said that most people see grammar as an aspect of language study that has to do with correctness in the use of expressions or sentences in a language. The aforementioned authorities are of the opinion that grammar studies how words are fitted together to convey the desired information. This is only the syntactic level. However, they may not be conversant with the other components of grammar that contribute to the interpretation of sentences such as the phonological, morphological and semantic components of language.

2.2Contrastive Studies

Contrastive study, which also called "Contrastive linguistics "means a systematic comparison of the linguistic systems of two or more languages (Ringborn, 1994, Dike (2000) goes into a contractive study of Awo – Omamo and standard Igbo conjunctions. Such has, to a great extent, brought to view the full definition not of a contrastive study. Viewing contrastive study (es) as a theoretical enterprises, Olaofe (1982) sees it as a process of determining the formal similarities and differences between languages, for purely theoretical purposes.

Considering CS in a provisional definition James (1980) opines that it is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted two value typologies. This opinion has stressed the importance of contrastive study in such away that no study of such can be done without a focus. The analysis should strive to accomplish such aims and goals of this study. To further elucidate this fact, James (opcit) stresses that CS is always concerned with a pair of languages, and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared. On another note, Richard (1992) offers an elaborate view by looking at it as the comparison of the linguistics systems, of two languages, for example the sound system or the grammatical system. He also affirms that it is a branch of linguistics which studies two or more languages in order to compare their structures and shows whether they are similar or different. This definition has also brought to light the goals behind the contrastive study of English and Igala languages

The phenomena of language change have triggered varied research interests in linguistics and anthropology. The emergence, in fact, of linguistic as a scholarly concern stems largely from question about the history of language, the changes languages manifest and soon. Evidence of interest in language change was present in the though of the ancient Greeks and Hindus, but it was in the eighteen century Europe that one of the most important aspect of historical linguistics developed. Prior to this period, effort were made to compare and examine languages from the point of view of their origins.

At much later researches, read, Lado, Shen (1928- 1960) became prominent in Eastern European this period according to Anderson (1973), language came to be seen as a historical line of development in which constant modification occurred resulting in different and more recent stages. The primary objective such studies was to establish

historical and genetically connections that exist between languages on the basis of their manifest similarities. Particularly between the forms. It was from such studies that the notion of language formularies was developed. The study as presented by Corder (1973), also presents the approach of language as organism and is principally concerned to explain the nature of linguistics lecture confirming the importance of such studies even in African languages in the appendix his lecture:.

> I present comparison between a selection
> of some eight words or word roots which seen
> to have cognate reflexes of each other in various
> languages and which can therefore be taken as s
> evidence, alone with a good deal of other
> genetically related to each other at varying degrees of instance

The fact on this statement proves the presence of 'pure' contrastive study as opposed to 'applied' contrastive study that has a pedagogical implication. Hence, it is this reason among others, that the study seeks to discover the differences and similarities between English and Igala sentence structure

2.2.1 Importance of Contrastive Grammar

Contrastive linguistic is useful in many ways to field of linguistics. It tell the constructions patterns that could be expected in one language for any gives set of construction patterns in the other language, but it does not provide for the automatic selection of a correct sentence in the target languages for any given sentence in the source language. Thus in this case, contrastive grammar could assist a translator but it would not in itself translate.

Contrastive linguistic is very useful in setting up second language teaching materials it.

"Enables an experience teacher

> to predict with reasonable success
> what part of the language structure
> with present the greatest difficulties to
> the leaners. Moreover, they commonly
> define rather precisely the exact
> nature of those difficulties" Gleason, 1975, 207)

Consequently, these provide the teacher or lesson writer with the grounds for choosing a strategy to meet or minimize the constraints evident . Through identifying and defining the problems, constrictive linguistics make room for accumulation of a body of experience dealing with second language teaching. "Without this frame work, there can develop, say a body of experience in teaching French to speakers of English but there is no way to corrective this with experience in teaching Italian to speakers of German" (Ibid 207).

In essence, contrastive linguistic is not a teaching device, rather it is a tool in the preparation of teaching material or guide for the teachers in their use, "because one of the primary aims of this teaching strategy is to help leaners to overcome language related deficiencies (Eyo and Ojukwu (2003:235). Thus a contrastive linguistic scheme of work should be systematically arranged convenient for reference and designing to show the significant structural contrast in proper proportion and inter – relationship. As such, fries who quoted from Lado (1959) says that "the most effective material that is for teaching are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be leaned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the leaner. It should take into account many none linguistic factors. Contrastive linguistic is also useful in the sense that the funding of any contrastive study and analysis usually contribute to the refinement and validation of linguistics Meta theory. It also contributes to the field of linguistic because of its capability in providing insights into the inter linguistic variation

that many exist among languages. These findings of the peculiar variation in them will show them possible different languages and add to the number of language families existing in the world today.

Contrastive linguistics is also significant to the development of linguistics because it serves according Sinclair (1998) as a hatching ground for new models of linguistics analysis.

2.2.2Approaches to Contrastive Linguistics

We do not have the desire of adhering to one theoretical approach or model of analysis. This is because "there is no school of thought that has produced excellent contrastive analysis, probably (this) shows that the choice of a model should be made subservient to the nature of the problem to be studied and to the aim of the investigation (J. Van Roey in Fisiek 1979:194).

There are two basic steps of executing contrastive analysis. These are description and comparison. Even though, these steps are accepted in all C.A Parlances, they are applied differently by different constrastivist as means (approaches) to achieving their desire goals. In contrastive lexicology, there are two major types of analysis lexicons: word field and sematic components.

We would not like to call the steps of carrying out C.A as field approaches because as Lehrer (1974:15) righty puts it " the term theory is loosely used. Perhaps "field approach" might be preferable, since most field studies are not complete enough or formalized enough to be considered coherent, unified theories.

Word Field

The development of field theories emanates from the works German linguistic and American anthropologists. Humbeldt, who may have been influenced by the Saussurean nation of "association", influenced both groups. The proponents of this approach include Triyer ,Welsgerber and Berline and Kay (1970). Specially, this concept is the brain child of Triyer, Welsgerber. It was developed with the sole aim of delimiting lexicons into cohesive subsystems, "it focuses on identifying with a lexicons a number of semantic, cognitive attitudinal and notional areas of concern (James 1983, 86) Even though this approach is the brain child of trier, his made of analysis is rather porous. He is accused of hypothesizing on ground that are highly controversial. For example his approach does not account for the question, if in fact the lexical items in any given field divide up the conceptual space like a Masaic or whether there are gaps or overlap?

Based on this shortcoming, Lehrer (1974:16) field that "a more useful model for the analysis of semantic fields is that of focal point" as suggested in the work of Berlin and Kay (1970). She also believes that linguistic fields are not isolated but rather they "join together to farm in turn fields of higher order. Until finally the entire vocabulary is included "(Ibids:17). Indeed these, this method of C.A has affinities with Thesaurus and its contrast with conventional dictionary organization that is based on simple alphabetical principles. Meaning is arrived by the selection of lexicon in firms of antecedent speech acts of the speaks presupposition. But it is note all clear just what the relationship between languages and conceptualisation is.

Another short coming is that Trier assumes that lexical field, are closed, well defined sets, this of course is not true. Also, his approach does not reveal difference between basic and peripheral terms in languages.

This approach is also challenged for assuming that lexical fields can be organized into neat rigid patterns based on opposition and difference, whereas the association of words are “loosen more complex and more unpredictable that most theorists are prepared to admit (Spencer, 1961:105).

Folk Taxonomy

Anthropological linguists in American have also contributed to the development of field theories by constructing folk taxonomies” in different cultural domains such as diseases, plant, food medicine etc.

This approach is similarly to Trier’s. It is based on the assumption that classifications are based on culture- cognitive validity. It is the representation of a speaker’s conception of how the world is organized. Lehrer (1974:20) sums up the problem with the word taxonomies as being based classifications. The does not seek for meaning. They are based on the principles of hierarchical classification and these may change as one constructs more of the classifications trees thereby moving a word further away from its original meaning.

The styles (2,3,6) and (2,3,7) seem to agree more with macro linguistic C.A because it involves discourse and text analysis which are not included in our scope theoretical linguistics. Also, we gain the impression that their delimitations are some what arbitrary and so this questions that readily comes to our mind is, what is the objectives basis for selecting a word ‘field? Since’” it is identified on the basis of some sphere of human behaviour or human conceptualization”, (James, 1983:88) as seen in the preceding approaches. In essence, these styles are rather intuitive and psychological and unscientific.

SEMANTIC COMPONENTS

Lyons (1963 and 1968) developed this theory explicitly. The main fact of this theory is that" a lexicologist needs not analyse an isolated word to account for all possible meaning and uses in all possible linguistic an non – linguistics contents, rather the analysis is restricted to the meaning and use of word (and related ones) with in normal domains (Lehrer 1974:22), such as any piece of literary work by an author, a single text, a genes at a particular time.

The theory further states that the analysis of a lexical field should include a contrastive paradigmatic relationship of words that belong to the same word classes and those of other word classes that share morphological and semantic relations. For example, the relationship between lecturer, lecture and lecturing.

Lyons adds that, the meaning of a term should be derived from the function of the relationship that the term shares with other term in the lexical field. Even though, the relationships are primitives, they must still be explained in some detail such that they can be used approximately in the same way by different linguist. Some primitive semantic relationship include synonym, incompatibility, class inclusion, autonym, complementarity and conversances. As earlier said, the relationships should essentially apply to paradigmatic contrasts (which are all nouns objectives and verbs). Syntagmatic relations may also play a role in arriving at meaning. Morphologically, it is convenient to use derivation of phrases for purpose of semantic analysis because semantic units do not necessarily acquiesce with grammatical units.

All these are the elements that add up to give meaning to a lexeme. Components like phonological features may also be universals.

> It has frequently been suggested that
> the vocabularies of all human languages
> can be analysed either totally or partially,
> in terms of a finites set of semantic components
> which are themselves independent of the
> particular semantic structure of any given
> language (Lyons, 1968:472).

Apart from the two steps already mentioned in C.A.: that is description and comparison componential analysis, in the words of James (1983:91) "prove the contrastivist with a third vital instrument for this work. This is semantic feature complex". Our analysis well dwell more on description using Quail etal is descriptive approach.

2.2.3 A Critiquing of C.A

Although fires in James (1983) believe to have firmly instituted contrastive linguistic analysis as an integral constituent of the methodology of language teaching, it was his presentation on the role and relevance of contrastive Analysis that ignite one of the most spirited controversies in the area of language teachings as a eelier mentioned, the fundamental practice of C.A is to first write a description of particular subjects of each of the languages being compared.

This could be in phonological morphological syntactic or semantic levels of linguistic analysis while talking note of the differences and similarities, the linguist compares the two subset. On the basis of this comparison, predictions are made as to what the leaner of any of the two languages would find difficult or easy to learn. Robert Lado's (1957) Linguistics across culture is believed to be the stimulus of this activity. In this publication, Lado explains the importance of C.A. This was the new taken up by others. Lado posits that mother tongue interference is the major cause of errors and difficulties that occur in the course of learning and using a foreign language. He added that,

wherever the structure of a foreign language differs from that of a mother tongue, we can respect. Difficulty in learning and error in performance. Thus, to him essentially, the function of contrastive. Analysis is to predict the likely errors of a given group of learners and thereby provide linguistic impute of materials on language teaching. As earlier mentioned, another use of CA is that it provides insights into the nature of language itself and the system by which other human societies code their meanings thereby providing a way of evaluating linguistics, postulation it also very useful in stylistics, translation and language teaching. This the position held by Adeyanju (1978). However, the literature on C.A is fraught with divergent views and criticism. This came to a head in the 1968 Georgetown 19th round table conference on C.A (Adeyanju 1978).

It is criticizes among other things for its over – inclusiveness " in predicting errors not yet observed in actual classroom performance, the authenticity of its statements, it reliance on any outdated behaviourist model and its Lack of unified theory (Adeyanju 1978:5). What the constitutes a problem with C.A is that it does not tell us much about how a leaner will go about handling the two language systems which may or may not differ.

Also, C.A does not and cannot account for the well – attested fact that the same errors are made by first language speakers from very different language backgrounds. It should also be borne in mind that to carry out any kind of contrastive study of any two languages is a herculean task. Although, C.A can in the aspect of pronunciation indicate with fair probability some areas of difficulty, but the differences between two languages that could be identified by the techniques of C.A cannot adequately predict the difficulties of the new language learners.

2.3 Level of Linguistics Analysis

2.3.1 Phonological Analysis

The concept of phonology has to do with the sound systems of languages. Mathews (1991:2) defines it as being concerned with the functioning of sound units within the system of individual languages. In other words, the phonological system, according to Fromkin and Rodman (1978:114-115), "determines which phonemes can begin a word, end a word and follow each other". It determines the phonetic form of a sentence. To them also, the grammar of a language should include the distinctive phonemic units of the language, which phonetic features are phonemic or distinctive, and which are non-phonemic or predictable.

It is broadly divided into two levels of analysis: segmental and suprasegmental. The analysis of speech sounds atthe phonemic level concerns segmental, while features such as intonation, stress, tone etc. are what suprasegmental phonology deals with. Two languages may have the same phonetic segments but different sets of phonemes. For example, English may have one voiceless labial stop phoneme /p/, but Thai could have two, /p/ and /ph/. The grammar must account for both the phonemes in the language and the way they are pronounced.

Frormkin and Rodman (opcit), have added that the constraints that permit the occurrence of some strings of phonemes and reject others are common to some languages. For example, in English, every speaker knows that a word beginning with /l/ or /r/ must be

followed by a vowel.In Asante Twi, a word may end only in vowel or nasal consonant. In Igala,nouns begin and end in vowel. For example:

6.

Ichamelu	*wa*	*emi*	*onale.*
↓	↓	↓	↓
Samuel	came	here	yesterday.

In English, morpho-phonemic rules specify the phonological realization of phonemes. For example, in the phonological realization of the past morpheme, a single general rule governing the distribution of the past is applied to the different past forms at the syntactic level. Thus, the choice between each ending in a past form is determined by the phonological properties of the preceding unit. While /d/ occurs after a voiced phoneme other than /d/ (rubbed, slammed, moved, cried), /t/ occurs after a voiceless phoneme other than /t/ (kissed, sacked, jumped) and /id/ occurs when the preceding morpheme ends in one of the alveolar stops /t/d/ (loaded, waited, planted).

Examples:

Receive + past – d = received

Cease + past - d = ceased

Want + past - d = wanted

The application of Phonological rules in Igala and English differ. This is because Igala language does not have the same pattern of past realization and the comparative or plural number formation in noun. The plural morphemes used in Igala are *a,ma, a,bo, a,ma,bo,*for animate objects, while the pluralization of inanimate objects varies from

pluralizing the verbs, repeating the object twice and making use of adjectives. For example:

7.

Singular	plural		singular		plural
'ewo	*'amewo*		goat		goats
'one	*'amone*		person		persons
Ela	*amela*		animal		animals
Onobule	*abobule*		woman		women
Enekele	*abokele*		man		men
Imoto	*abimoto*		youth		youths
E'I	*abei*		this		these
E'le	*ab'ele*	that		those	

Although this study is not about the phonology of Igala language, the sentence structure can not be effectively studied without taking a look at some aspects of phonology, especially as it affects word formation and sentence construction.

2.3.2 MorphologicalLevel

Morphology is concerned with the forms of words. And how such words are formed from smaller components into larger grammatical units-phrases, clauses and sentences. The term has been used by linguists for centuries, although opinions have varied as to the precise definitions of the subject area and scope. Lapalombara (1976) defines it as a minimally significant unit which contributes to the grammatical and semantic properties of a word.

In this case, it deals with the components of words and their significance in language analysis. E.g. words are formed by the simple use of affixes in what is described as affixation that deals with derivation, inflection etc. The use of prefixes, suffixes and infixes are made e.g. the word 'disqualified' has 'qualify' as the root with the bound

morpheme ‘dis’ as prefix and a vowel replacement plus another bound morpheme ‘ed’ serving as suffix.

According to Haspelmath (2002:3), “morphology is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words”. The extent to which these morphemes conform to the syntactic rules determine the grammaticality or otherwiseof the sentence. Generally, most linguists agree that morphology studies the meaningful parts of a word looking at two broad ways in which these parts play their roles in language. One way has been to play down the status of the word itself and to look at the role of its parts in the overall syntax.The other has been to focus on the word as a central point.

Morphemes which are the main concerns of morphology are difficult to define notionally as there are several ways in which they recur. Akmajian,Dermas, Farmer and Harnish (1995:16) define morphemes as “the minimal units, of word building in a language.They cannot be broken down any further into recognizable or meaningful parts”. They are of two categories-bound and free. To Thomas (1965:48), “morphemes are certainly parts of the formal or syntactic-structure of language”. Fromkin and Rodman (1978) state that: “the meaning of a sentence is a synthesis of the meaning of the morphemes”.

Morphemes are regularly recurring features in English in which every word contains at least one or more which are either free or bound. Their combination into larger grammatical units to get intended the meaning is guided by certain rules.

Linguists have tried to distinguish between morphology and syntax. While morphology involves the combination of morphemes into words, syntax is the combination of words into sentences. Certain aspects of the morphology have syntactic implications. For

example, there are some words that change their class due to morphological processes like in noun derived from verbs, verbs from adjectives, adjectives from nouns and so on.

Also, bound or inflectional morphemes may not have intrinsic meaning but are grammatical units that are necessary for the completion of certain words.For example:- *ceive, -mit;* grammatical markers that express certain concepts like tense, number, case, gender, and so on. For instance, *-ing, -ed,* do not add lexical meaning to words but are meaningful and necessary in syntactic construction. There are also some grammatical relations that could be expressed morphologically or syntactically Examples are:

1. He loves books- he is a lover of books.
2. The boy's book is blue- the book of the boy is blue.
3. He is hungrier than she-he is more hungry than she.
   (Fromkin and Rodman, 1978:153 in.Galadima,2009).

It was also added that morphology is a feature of every language as every language has its vocabulary, morphemes and words or a lexicon. Some languages are highly inflectional while others are not. For example in Finish, the noun has many different inflectional endings as shown below. The noun used below is "continent, mainland ".

Fromkin andRodman, op cit p.154:

Mantere	nominative singular (sg).
Mantereen	genitive (possessive) sg.
Manteretta	partitive (sg).
Mantereena	essive (sg).
Mantereeseen	illative (sg).
Mantereita	partitive (pl).

Mantereiin illative (pl).

Mantereiden genitive (pl).

The English language is not as inflectional. The noun can only be inflected for plural: country-countries, baby-babies, table-tables, boy- boys, child-children etc. All inflectional morphemes come after derived words and they never change the syntactic category of the words they are attached to.For instance:

Teach + er – teacher

Teacher + s – teachers

The inflectional morpheme come at the end of a word in English and no other morpheme can usually be added after it.In Igala, there are no inflections as found in English or Finish.

2.3.3 Syntactic Analysis

As Yule (1985) notes , the word '*syntax'* originates from two Greek words "*syn*", together and "*taxis*", arrangement. Syntax thus deals with the arrangement of words in particular order permitted by a language or group of languages. It is the description of sentence structure based on certain combinational rules. A typical sentence in Igala, for instance, may havea subject followed by a verb which, in turn, may be followed by an object.

According to Wilkins (1974), knowledge of a language depends upon the mastery of its vocabulary as much as of its grammar. Based on this, it is worthy of note to mention that one cannot claim to have known a language when he or she has no knowledge of the way in which words in that language are organized in utterances or sentences in order to communicate the desired information. Quirk (1962) has said that enlarged vocabulary is a

ridiculous acquisition without the corresponding knowledge of how the words we have learnt are used. For example, if one knows the words- Evelyn, with, played, Benjamin- one needs to know how those words can be arranged in a sentence to convey the desired information such as the one below:

1a) Evelyn played with Benjamin.

1b) Benjamin played with Evelyn.

These are the acceptable meaningful sentences that could be realized from these words although they have different subjects and objects. In

2a) Played with Benjamin Evelyn.

2b) Played Evelyn with Benjamin.

2a,though incorrect could be regarded as incomplete sentence but (2b); is completely ungrammatical and both definitely do not convey the same meaning of one playing with another as in sentences 1a and b above. Therefore, when one is said to have known a language, one must be seen to have known how words of that language are put together to convey theintended meaning.

Traditionally, the study of the rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in a language is called the syntax of a language. Alternatively, it is the study of the inter-relationship between elements of sentence structure and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentences in sequences. It seeks to describe the way words fit together to form sentences. As a system of rules that specifies how words belonging to different categories combine to form structured sentences, it helps one to identify which sentences are syntactically well-formed in a language and which are not.

To Roberts (1964), in Galadima (2009), the sentences of any language are extremely complicated with all sorts of possible variations. In studying the sentence, therefore, the principal structures are considered. These principal structures are studied under syntax which he describes as an aspect of the grammar of language that is concerned with the relationship of words in sentences, and the way in which they are put together to form sentences. He differentiates between two kinds of sentences: *Kernel sentences* and *transforms*. The Kernel sentences are the basic elementary sentences of a language; they are used to derive all other forms. Transforms are the structures drawn from the Kernel and they could be produced in all forms of complicated English sentences. He further divides the Kernel sentence into two main parts: a noun phrase (NP) and verb phrase (VP). While the NP functions as the subject of the Kernel sentence, the VP serves as its predicate. In transformations, these phrases are expanded in many different ways to form a variety of sentences that are possible in English. The emphasis Robert (1964) places here is on the function of transformational syntax. This study, unlike Roberts's (1964),concentrates only on the principal structures of the sentences in Igala. It does not extend to studying the transforms.

Freidan (1992) sees syntax as an aspect of grammar while other parts of language study are phonology and semantics. To him, phonology and semantics deal with interpreting the sentence while syntax provides the syntactic representations that are processed by them. In a nutshell, the syntactic component generates a set of structures that are assigned sound in phonology and meaning in semantics. He adds that the speaker of English language could disambiguate a sentence using different structural representation based on the parts of speech or structural categories. For example:

The boy read the book in the study

This could mean that the book that the boy read is in the study or the place where the boy read the book was the study. Ambiguity could also appear in lexical form. In this case, a word within the sentence may be interpreted in more than one way as in:

The boy wouldn't drink the orange juice.

Here, the orange could be taken to be an adjective denoting the colour of the drink or a noun naming the fruit. Ambiguity is common in every language but the way to disambiguate varies from one language to another. In Igala, ambiguous words may be realized on the tone used to convey intended meaning. For example:

8.

1) *Na' -a lo ki eta'aba'le.*
You go that you sell like that.

Go and sell it like that.

2) *Na' 'a-lo' ki e ta abale.*
You go that you shoot like that.

Go and shoot it like that.

3) *I' che ka'a' taki' I lo.*
He do talk before he go.

He said it before he went.

4) *I' che ka' taki' lo'.*
He do pluck before go.

He plucked it before he went.

In the two sets of sentences above, there are no structural changes and two meanings are got only through intonation. The disambiguation of these sentences depends on the tone not on the context of speech as found in English. For example:

Okpanachi must have left because the windows are closed.

This can give more than one interpretation thus:

- Okpanachi was forced to leave because the windows are closed.
- Okpanachi closed the windows while leaving the room.

In this study, the issue of ambiguity is only mentioned at a level where the tone differentiates tense.

Radford (1997) classifies syntax as one of the major parts of grammar. In his opinion, syntax determines the kinds of words that we can or cannot combine together to form phrases and sentences. It is concerned with not only the formation of sentences and phrases but also how they are interpreted in any language. One of the principles of grammatical analysis, according him, is the structure dependent principle which shows that grammatical operations are structure-dependent. Grammatical structure,in this case,shows the different grammatical categories and functions that words are assigned to in grammatical analysis. For example, it is possible for a word to be assigned the grammatical category of noun and the grammatical function of subject in the sentence as in:

Enemies of progress will leave soon..

Enemies and progress will be categorised under noun, leave as verb, will as auxiliary, soon as adverb and of as preposition. They could also be grouped into another category: enemies of progress (NP), leave soon (VP) joined by the auxiliary will. The NP serves

the grammatical function of subject and the VP serves the grammatical function of the complement of the auxiliary 'will'. In the case of the traditional linguists' division of the sentence into two parts, the NP is the subject while the auxiliary 'will' is joined to the VP to serve as the predicate.

Furthermore, Burton-Roberts (1968) sees syntax as the study of the form, positioning and grouping of the elements that go to make up sentences. According to him, it is about the structure of sentences. He identifies other components of language that are necessarily related to the study of syntax as "words structure" (morphology), "meaning of sentences" (semantics) and what "words sound like" (phonology). He added that syntax is closely related to semantics.

He sees the study of syntax as of great importance to the study of other aspects of language. This view is right because if syntax describes the way words are brought together in sentences and the sounds and structure of words are dependent on the sentences for their meaning, it is necessary that the study of syntax should come before any other linguistic analysis in language study.

Carnie (2007) sees syntax as an aspect of cognitive science. He describes cognitive science as a term used to describe a group of disciplines which aim at describing and explaining man ability to think about abstract notions. He sees man's ability to use language in a productive, combinatory way as what distinguishes him from other animals. This reason makes linguistics to be seen as an important sub-discipline in cognitive science. Carnie (opcit p.7) sees science as a method of study as an area which:

Involves observing data, making some generalization about patterns in the data and testing the hypothesis against some more data. Finally, the hypothesis are revised to account for a new data and then tested again.

Carnie (Ibid) applies this methodology to the study of sentence structure. Syntacticians begin observing data about the language they are studying, make generalizations about patterns in the data, generate a hypothesis, go on to test against more syntactic and if necessary re-evaluate. The data collected should be able to show where the hypothesis predicts that a sentence is grammatical (and it is not) or that a sentence is ungrammatical (but it is).

He adds that "in syntax, hypotheses are called rules and a group of hypotheses that describesthe syntax of the language as grammar" (p.8).

Carnies further identifies two ways that grammatical rules are written as *prescriptive* and *descriptive* rules.The prescriptive rules are to tell people how they should speak while the descriptive rules describe how people actually speak, whether or not they are correct. The descriptive rules are therefore more scientifically enriched. He gives a practical example of how scientific method is applied in the study of syntax using reflexives as shown below assuming that: Bill is male and sally is female.

1a. Bill kissed himself.

b. *Bill kissed herself.

c. Sally kissed herself.

d. *Sally kissed himself.

e. *Kiss himself.

Using this data, a generalization can be drawn that an anaphor must agree in gender with its antecedent. Thus, in 1a and b, the anaphor must agree in gender with its antecedent (Bill) and as well as with 1c and d (Sally). This is not the case with 1b and d and that makes them incorrect . Bill cannot take the anaphor "herself" and so also Sally, "himself" respectively to agree in gender. A sentence like 1e shows that an anaphor must have an antecedent to be acceptable. The hypothesis for this data can therefore be stated as follows:

(1) An anaphor must have an antecedent.

(2) An anaphor must agree in gender (masculine, feminine or neuter) with its antecedent.

The next step is the testing of this hypothesis against more data until a straightforward distribution of anaphor is discovered. In the study of different aspects of language, analysis could be effectively done through hypotheses formation, testing, and rejection or acceptance. In this study, hypothesis was not formulated as the main crux is the description of Igala language using a linguistic theory (the theory of descriptive grammar) that has already been established.

The Sentence

The sentence is the largest unit for grammatical analysis and the basis of any form of writing. In other words, grammatical description or analysis begins at the level of the sentence.

Though the sentence, as put by Tomori, is one of the most difficult linguistic terms to define, Fries (1968) postulate that more than "two hundred definitions of the sentence

confront a worker who undertakes to deal with the structure of English utterance. thisdepicts the difficulty associated with defining and describing the sentence.

The earliest definition given to the sentence was in the notion of traditional grammarians. Fries (1952) sees sentence as a group of words expressing a complete thought. Such notional definition does not go down well with modern linguists. Onochie (2000) accepts that the definition given by Fries (op cit) gives a rough ideas on how to recognize a sentence but it is not helpful in the grammatical analysis of the sentence. Fries still goes further to observe that a sentence is a word or a group of words standing between an initial capital letter and a full stop, question mark or an exclamatory mark.

The problem with the traditional grammarian's definition of sentence is what determines a complete thought'. This is because what one person consider as a complete thought or idea may not be seen as such by another. This definition therefore relies solely on meaning. For instance , if we say 'cabbage' 'or' 'man', does that stand a complete thought? If no, why not? And is " If it rains,I shan't come" one thought or two joined together? (Palmer, 1966:66).This has remained a mystery.

Zandvoort (1982) defines a sentence as 'a word or a set of words followed by a pause and revealing an intelligible purpose'. In writing, a sentence begins with a capital letter while the end is always indicated by either a full stop, an exclamatory mark, an interrogatory or a question mark. In speaking, the beginning and end of the sentence are usually marked off from any preceding or following sentence by a pause, the intonation, all coming at the end of the sentence .

One-word sentences which are always exclamation and imperatives include expressions such as *Thanks!, Brother!, Good!, Fine!, Fire!, Stop!, Look!, Come!, Quick! or Quickly! and many others. Vocatives such as Mother!, Darling!, Abdul!, Okpanachi!, w*hich are also used to draw a person's attention at the commencement of dialogue are also example of the one-word sentences.

In Igala, there are a lot of one- word sentences using the verb elements or not as follows:

9.

Eche! (Taboo)

Una! (Fire)

Ejoo! (Snake)

Lia! (Come)

Tono! (leave)

Je! (Eat)

10.

Omi? (I?)

Uwe? (You?)

Ama? (They?)

There are also utterances consisting of more than one-words: for examples:- Thanks immensely!, dear Me!, Hurry Up!, Watch out!. Igala examples include:-

11.

U *wa* *n!*
↓ ↓ ↓
I come not

'I won't come '

U *je* *n!*
↓ ↓ ↓
I eat not

'I won't eat!'

Fu *ola* *we* *de!*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Aux body you guard

'Take care of your self! Or,Be careful!'

Most example of either as one- word or more - word utterances are, as a rule, intelligible only in connection with the appropriate contexts or situations. In addition, the subject *You*gives additional words which are assumed to be *understood*. Examples include:

Table 5

Actual expression as heard	**Expression with possible words "understood"**
Snake	A snake is approaching us
Fire	The building is on fire
Come	You, come here
Eat	You should eat the food
I won't come	I won't come to your house
We disagree	We disagree with your plan of action

Adapted from Ahmad (2009:107)

Lyons (1968) sees sentence as the largest unit of grammatical description. A sentence, he says, is a grammatical unit between the constituent parts of which distributional limitations and dependencies can be established but which can itself be put into no distributional class. Corder and Ruszkiewicz (1985) classify and define the sentence as the earlier linguists. They point out that the sentence may be written which is seen as one or more words punctuated as an independent unit that says something.Onochie (op cit) affirms that the basis of every sentence, considering its form, is defined as a syntactic construction with, at least, a subject and a predicate. While the subject is that part of the sentence which names what something is said about, the predicate is what is said about the subject.Here, a sentence has one clause beginning with a noun group which is either a person or thing that the sentence is talking about. This is followed by a verb group that say what a person or thing is doing. The verb group may be followed by another group which is called the object. The verb group, the object or complement can be followed by an adverb or prepositional phrase called the adverbial. The predicate can be only the verb group or a combination of the verb group and an object or a complement and an adverbial. For example:

i) She | is writing
(Subject) | (predicate)

ii) The man | killed the dog with a stick
(Subject) | (predicate)

iii) Nafisat | ate the food yesterday
(Subject) | (predicate)

iv) Jonathan, the president | came to our school last week
(Subject) |(predicate)

Jesus | wept

(Subject)	(predicate)
Politicians	lie
(Subject)	(predicate)

This definition tends to exclude most commands, exclamations and requests from sentences. Where they are considered, the subject is said to be understood as the thing being talked about. This definition is not without some shortfalls.

So far, it is clear that linguistic discussion on the sentence has focused on problems of identification, classification and generation. Identifying a sentence isrelatively straight-forward in writing but problematic in speech where intonation or pause may give uncertain clues as to whether a sentence boundary exists. This shows that phonological description of the sentence is associated with a lot of problems as it is difficult to tell the type of grammatical division indicated by intonation pattern bearing in mind the fact that individuals differ in the way they speak. Moreover, the use of tone to convey different meanings of multiple class words or certain sentence structures in many languages, including Igala, could make it difficult, if not outrightly impossible to decide on the definition of the sentence using the phonological criteria.

As earlier stated, there are many definitions of the sentence and this makes it a herculean task for a person that may want to analyze the structure of an utterance in a given language. As a result of these possible variations in the definitions of the sentence, the one adapted in this study is that given by the American linguist, Leonard Bloomfield who says that a sentence is “an independent linguistic form (unit) not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any longer linguistic form (unit)”.This is based on the

fact that it seems to be the one that most linguists accept as it points to the structural autonomy or independence of the notion of sentence.

In a nutshell, the sentence is that unit of grammar that is independent and does not operate in the structure of any higher unit as it is so far the highest stretch of utterance. In the words of Gannon and Czerniewska (1980:29), a sentence is the maximum unit of syntactic analysis. Other units such as the clause, phrase, group or words are identified as component parts of the sentence which is the maximum unit. According to Halliday (1985), the sentence constitutes a significant border post, which is why the writing systems are sensitive to it and mark it off. It is within the sentence that all the grammatical relations between elements can be fully described.

Some modern linguists refer to the sentence as a complete utterance. This creates some certain analytical problems. How do we handle the case of elliptical sentences or sentence fragments which are themselves incomplete but are regarded as complete utterances or sentences? For instance, *To town* (answer to) *Where are you going?*, '*A vigil*' (answer to)*Where did you go last night?* and several others. In as much as the examples above convey messages which are understood by speakers and hearers, they are themselves incomplete though full utterances. These are minor sentence types that do not serve as good data for syntactic analysis but utterances considered in grammar as complete in themselves.

Sentences are classified and analysed based on different criteria. In this study, the criteria used are the classification of the sentence in terms of its being simple or non-simple. According to Quirk etal (1985), non-simple sentences are those that contain a number of

clauses. The clauses are the main when they carry the message in the sentence and the subordinate when they give more information about the main clause. The sentence is a good starting point in grammatical analysis. In the words of Gregersen (1977:43), " the subject matter of syntactic analysis is the grammatical sentences of language (or language in general)" and this, as commonly agreed upon by most modern linguists, is that of a complete utterance.

The Simple Sentence

Okpanachi (2002) definesa simple sentence as that which expresses one idea as shown by the verb in the sentence. It is that which contains a single clause and expresses a single idea. It is divided into two major parts: the subject and the predicate. The subject of a sentence is the word or a group of words the speaker or writer is talking about. The predicate tells something about the action, condition, or state of being of the subject. The subject may consist of a single word of common or proper noun, a pronoun, a noun phrase or a clause, while the predicate consists of the predicator, complement and adjunct. The subject, which may be long and complex, consists of such words such as articles, adjectives or other nouns followed by prepositional phrase or relative clause,performs the action in the verb. It is that part of the sentence about which something is being said. In short, the subject is the naming part of the sentence. It is an obligatory element of the sentence and normally precedes the verb in a declarative clause. In English, its number determines that of the verb. The predicate is the telling part of the sentence because it is what is said about the subject. This, which could be simple or more complex than the subject, may consist of a verb, a verb phrase and a noun phrase or be made up of various constituents subdivided into various units as verb, complement,

object and adverbial. The verb is a word that shows action or state of being in a sentence; the complement completes the verband the object receives or suffers the action of the verb.The adverbial usually modifies the verb by saying something extra about an action, happening or state of being described by the rest of the sentence. It could be the time(when it happened,) the place(where it happened) or the manner(in which it happened). The various constituents of the predicate have some regularity about their positions in the sentence with the adverbial having a less restrictive position within the sentence. Examples are :-

S	A	V	O	
John	carefully	searched	the room	
S	V	O	C	A
They	make	him	the chairman	every year

(Quirk and GreenBaum, 1973)

In this study, the various components of the simple sentence in Igala in terms of the SVOCA elements shall be described.

Complementation

Alobo (2008) defines complement as "a word or a group of words that completes the meaning of a sentence". Similarly, Harris and Hodges (1995), in Onochie (2001), define it as "the word or words that complete the action of a verb in the predicate of a sentence". Looking at these definitions, complement can be seen to be a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with completing the action specified by the verb. It is therefore a general notion subsuming all obligatory features of the predicate other than the verb. This notion, which is classified into two: subject and object

complements are usually nouns, adjectives or adverbials. The subject complement describes or explains the subject of a sentence by either renaming it or giving it a new attribute. For example, we have:

i) John is fat.

ii) God is love.

iii) The perfume smells good.

The object complement, on the other hand, describes or explains the object of a verb by either renaming it or giving it new attributes or qualities. Examples are:

i) The class elected John a prefect.

ii) The pot called the kettle black.

In English, direct objects normally follow the transitive verbs.For intransitive verbs, the indirect object comes first. In some African languages, the position of the word or an introductory word is used to identify an indirect object. However, Quirk etal (1985:68) have observed that many verbs are versatile enough to allow several complementation types. Based on this, it is therefore likely to be misleading to talk of 'intransitive verbs', 'mono-transitive verbs' and 'complex- transitive verbs'.It is better to discuss them in relation to their use and complementation.

In this study of the Igala sentence structure, data will be examined to discover how objects could be identified and described. The form which complements take in sentences will also be examined.

Compound and Complex Sentences.

Quirk etal (op.cit) describe the compound sentence as consisting of two or more co-ordinated main clauses. Similarly, Okpanachi, (opcit) sees it as a kind of sentence that expresses two or more actions as indicated by the verb in the sentence. In our view, a compound sentence can be said to be one which conveys more than one idea that are joined together by co-coordinating conjunctions. As regards complex sentence, we see it as a complex structure that consists of one main or independent clause and one or more dependent or subordinate clause(s). Here, the first words of the subordinate clause act as the conjunction words and are also referred to as subordinators.

The main clauses in complex sentences carry the main idea, while the subordinate clauses give more information about the main clauses. They are introduced by conjunctions or subordinators such as 'because', 'if'', or a WH-word. In a nutshell, the main clauses dominate the subordinate clauses which depend on the former for their full meanings. Examples of subordinate clauses in the sentences below are rendered on italics:

1) The man saw the boy *who insulted him yesterday.*
2) She did not go to work *because she is sick.*
3) *If you climb this tree* you will fall down.
4) The Woman *who came here yesterday* is my mother.
5) Here is the dog *which my friend bought.*

Unlike the complex sentence, the various parts of the compound sentence are independent of one another. The two or more simple sentences or clauses that are joined together by coordinating conjunctions to form the compound sentences are of equal rank. Examples:

1) My sister bought some apples *and* my brother bought a cake.

2) I beat the boy *but* he did not cry.

3) You can eat the rice *or* I throw it away.

According to Quirk et.al (op cit), the subordinate clauses may be classified either by structural type (in terms of the elements they themselves contain), or by function (the part they play in the subordinate clause). In this analysis, the structural description will be used as this relates more closely to the focus of the study. In compound sentences, the main clauses are seen as equal constituents of the sentence.It should be noted that conjunctions used in bringing clauses together within a sentence in English may not have the exact equivalence in Igala. The different ways sentences are compounded in Igala will be analysed.

The Concept of Structure

The word *structure* is a term with very general application as it can be used to apply to any complete thing that could be divided into many different parts. To authorities such as Akmajian etal and Burton- Roberts (1980), the concept of structure is fundamental to the study of syntax as it considers each linguistic item in relation to the whole system of other items of the sentence.It is of particular importance in distinguishing between strings of words that are well-formed expressions and those that are not.

Halliday (1985) observes that ‘in any language, there is a logical order in which the elements of linguistic structures are combined”. He, therefore, defines structure as “an organic whole in which the different elements play different roles”. In other words, different linguistic elements are put together in different ways to form constituents of grammatical structure which can be analysed in terms of class or function. He analyses

sentences based on functional system where emphasis is placed on the meanings of structures rather than on the structural class of words. In line with this, functional grammar describes language in relation to various kinds of meanings expressed. It also describes the different categories of functions performed through language which are dependent on the *choice* made by the speaker.

Thompson (1996) argues that some students of language have used the functional system of linguistic analysis to analysis sentences. In other words, they concern themselves with the writer's purpose for writing each sentence and the meaning the writer sets out to convey. He adds that others analyse the sentence in terms of their forms by examining the different components and labeling the parts of the sentence using different terms according to how they logically fit together. To him, this logical fitting is the structure in which the words are organized and such terms as verbs, finite or non-finite verbs, prepositional phrase, noun phrase, verb phrase and so on are used to describe the parts.

To effectively determine the function of a sentence, the structure of words, phrases and clauses within the sentence must be established. It is therefore important that the analysis of the Igala sentence begins with the description of structure. In this study, therefore, the structural approach through which the constituent parts of linguistic expression are identified in an attempt to determine their functions employed to describe the structure of Igala sentence.

The English Word Order.

Word order refers to the sequential arrangement of words in language. Akmajain et.al (1995) have observe that 'in no human language may the words of a sentence occur in any random order whatsoever.No matter how free a language is with respect to word order, it will have some word order constraints'. This basic word order in every human language is the dominant unmarked order of grammatical constituents with no recourse to deviation for stylistic or communicative effect. Thus, the simple declarative is favoured for evidence of word order in language.

In a nutshell, words are not haphazardly strung together but they follow certain linear word order to be able to convey the desired message. Contrary to this, some languages such as Latin, Russian and a host of others display considerable freedom of word order. Based on this, languages are sometimes classified in terms of whether their word orderare relatively *free* (as in Latin) or *fixed* (as in English). In studying the structure of sentences, an understanding of the way words are arranged in sentences is of paramount importance. Comrie (1981), in Galadima (op cit), states that in language universals, the word order typological parameter is used to "characterize the relative order of subject, verb and object, giving rise to six possible types. The types are:

Subject	-	Object	-	Verb (SOV)
Subject	-	Verb	-	Object (SVO)
Verb	-	Subject	-	Object (VSO)
Object	-	Verb	-	Subject (OVS)
Verb	-	Object	-	Subject (VOS)
And Object	-	Subject	-	Verb (OSV)

From the foregoing, it is clear that syntax is concerned with the word order in sentences and thatdoes not only convey meaning but also affects meaning of utterances. Thus, an individual's knowledge of the syntactic rules of his language determines how words are ordered in the sentence and the way words are grouped in the sentence. The category of a word and its function determines its position within the sentence structure.

According to Quirk et.al (1985), the following are elements of English sentence structure: subject, verb, complement, object, adjunct-(S.V.C.O.A). Examples include:

1. John (S) carefully (A) searched (V) the room (O).
2. The girl (S) is (V) now (A) a student (C) at a large university (A).
3. His brother (S) grew (V) happier (C) gradually (A).
4. It (S) rained (V) steadily (A) all day (A).
5. They (S) make (V) him (O) the chairman (C) every year (A).

Each of these elements could be realized in a variety of ways. The descriptions of these elements will be used to identify words in Igala that are similarly patterned.

The Word Order in Igala

In Igala, the basic order of sentence constituents is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). Examples are:

12.

1. Onu (s) a gba (v) otakada (o)
   Onu (s) is reading(v) a book(o)
   ("Onu is reading a book")

2. Onu (s) kpa (v) ewo (o)

(Onu (s) killed (v) a goat(o)

Onu killed a goat

As earlier stated, Igala belongs to the kwa group of the Niger-Kordofanian subsection of languages.Some members of this language group (Niger-Kordofanian), as reported by Welmers (1977), are Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo, Fulani, Gbagyi, Zulu, Liganda, Songhai and, in short, most African languages that have subject-verb-object (SVO) as their basic word order. He also emphasized that no African language seems to have a 'free' word order such as found in Latin or Russian where SVO,VSO,SOV etc. are generally equivalent .

2.4Empirical Studies

So many empirical studies have been carried out over the years on Igala and other Nigerian languages. These languages have been studied side by side with English, an Indo-European language serving as both a colonial and official language in many countries of the world. Below are the reviews of some of the empirical studies relevant to this research work.

Maiyanga (1998) carried out a research on a semantico – Pragmatic analysis of proverbs: The example of Igala collections the aim of the research in to investigate the meaning load of proverbs and the various structural principles of proverbs in Igala proverbs. The researcher applied an eclectic method from both semantic and pragmatic instrument to test his data. The also extracted proverbs from the various sources for analysis. He finds out that most proverbs have some specific propositionalconstituents. He also states that some proverbs are synonymous to others and some proverbs collocate with certain words and expressions.

Similarly, Ogala (2007) researched on socio linguistic study of the effects of nonverbal behaviours on the verbal communication of Igala people. The aim of the study is to investigate non verbal behaviour that accompanies verbal communication and how it contributes to better understanding among Igala people. The researcher collected data from secondary sources such as interviewing and questionnaire from traditional marriages ceremonies, chieftaincy installation ceremonies and burial ceremonies. It was discovered that illustrates are part and parcel of the communicative life of Igala people and they are not used indiscriminately. In addition to this, illustrators as interpreted within the context of verbal communication, interpretations as context based. Again that non verbal communication in Igala helps in the understanding of verbal communication as it gives credence to verbal communication.

Furthermore, Andrew – Ogidi (2016) in her work A Semantico- Pragmatic Analysis of selected Igala Deictic terms identification the properties of indexicality in Igala in selected contexts. She also examines how productive deictic are in Igala and also the semantic features and pragmatic functions of deictic in Igala. The researcher used the deduction research method and also relied on introspection amidst other method such as personal observation, unstructured interview and the electronic medium. The data were examine using Halliday's Systemic Functional theory and cutting's approach to examine and analyse the 30 excerpts collected from the different situational contexts. Among other things, it is discovered that deixis as institutionalised in Igala are parts and parcel of the Igala language and deictic terms have distinct uses with more categories than those obtainable in English again it is the finding of the researcher that most lexemes in Igala, if not all, including prosodic features, kinesics and even human names are (pointers)

deictic because they point interlocutor's attention to items, objects or issues in the real world. The work is similar through our present study because it is built on developing Igala language. However, it differs as this lays emphasis on syntax and structures.

Also, Ahmad (2009) studied syntactic linguistics languages: A consideration of English and Igala complementation pattern. The aim of the researcher is to discuss ambiguity in English and Igala and also, the similarities and differences in English and Igala complementation pattern. The researcher's data were got from marriage ceremonies, conflict resolution sittings, market and other major approaches, almighty and complementation as his analytical procedure. It is the finding of the researcher, in relation to his stated research questions that users, use the conventional sentences much more often than sentence laced with idioms. In addition, it is shown that to a very large extent, verb complementation and adjective complementation patterns in the English and Igala languages share same thing in common the work of Ahmad (2009)has some similarities with other present with because it has its focus in syntax and structures as his however, the major difference is on the linguistics variables ambiguity and complementation patterns. The two languages studied Igala and English are also same with this Ahmad (2004) again researched on paralinguistic phenomenon in Igala communication pattern. The study is set out to investigate the importance of communication on human interaction, highlight the role of interpersonal relationships in our day to day interaction and investigate the extent to which verbal speech production depends on non verbal communication and non verbal behaviour to make meaning clearer in interpersonal relationships. The work utilized an eclectic approach: The speech act theory as advanced by Austin (1962) Grice's (1975) cooperative principles and etholinguistic approach to

the study of language were employed to analyse data got in different conversational exchanges of interaction . Data on paralinguistic variables were also analysis using statistical methods. The researcher used direct observation oral interview video taping an questionnaire as his methods of data collection. The work discovered that paralinguistic variables such as voice, volume or pitch, gesture, touch, facial expression and proxemics come into play during face – to – face interaction among the Igala people of Kogi state. One important point to note is that since the area of study was culturally determined non verbal communication is subject to different interpretations is different cultural climes.

Andrew Ogidi's (2006) work on a comparative analysis of English as :Igala morphological process is also relevant to this work. The aim of the study is to study the morphological processes of both languages and investigate the existence of possible differences or similarities as they occur.

The researcher also aims at establishing how morphological processes affirm the universality of morphology in all languages of the world it is based on this compassion that data was generated for analysis on the findings of the research. The researcher therefore used the concept of Hallidays (1975) scale and category theory said Nida's (1949) six principles for identifying morphemes in the study of both languages. The researcher observed that the component of morphology in the study of natural human languages is exhibited the structure of two languages.

That the concept of universality morphology as widely acclaimed in the study of natural human languages exits in the structure of both languages. Above, all it is established that not all morphological process are applicable in both languages while these exits some

points of commonalities, there equally exist points of dissimilarities .The also convergence between Andrew Ogidi's research and the present work is that they both focus on the structures of both English and Igala.

Ibrahim – Musa (2014) carried out a research on at contrastive analysis of the noun phrase in Gyong and English and discovered that there is a huge influence of mother tongue in pluralisation of nouns in English by studied. On the students on absence of indefinite article in Gyong languages, the analysis 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. In addition, is the shown mother tongue impacts significantly on the use of demonstratives in English by students of Gyong background. It is also discovered that the statistical result indicates that the use of genitives by Gyong learning of English is a source of difficulty due to mother tongue influence. This work likewise the present one under investigation pays attention to the syntactic structures of two languages: English an African language Igala.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

There are various approaches to the study of *'grammar'*. We shall review a few of them in this section.

Various Grammar and Their Theories

Thevarious schools of grammar are traditional, structural systemic model and the transformational generative approach. Each of them has its mainstay, which distinguishes its basic operation from that of others. It is pertinent to note that the rise of these approaches have been occasioned by the need to understand human language. Therefore, it can be deduced that subsequent perspectives came into the fore to explore the

inadequacies of preceding once however, there are many instances where there exists unanimity of standpoints among all the approaches. Nevertheless, there are sameness of basic technical terms found in all contemporary approaches which are offshoots of the earlier ones.

The traditional grammar makes the assumption that all languages have to conform to the grammatical structures of the Latin without any regard to their difference. Lyons, (1974) says the traditional grammar is over 2000 years old, it includesthe works of classical Greek, Roman grammarians, Renaissance writers and 18th century prescriptive grammarians. Many linguists like Lyons (1974) and Palmer (1971) are of the opinion that, the term '*traditional'* is used in pejorative sense, identifying an unscientific approach to grammatical study in which languages analysis in terms of Latin, with scant regards to rules of empirical facts. The categorization of syntactic elements known as 'parts *of speech'* or Pryse (1984) tags '*Tribes of Words*' is a basic contribution of this grammatical thought. Another contribution includes the elements such as case, mood, voice and person which until today are used as important terms in syntactic analysis.

According to Palmer (1979), the traditionalist approach consists of normative rules, rule which tell us what wee ought to speak and write. Aliyu, (2006) supports this idea and sum this approach as *'rather canonical'*. The traditionalist rigid syntax is traceable to Latin. For instance the rule that one must not end a sentence with a preposition or, that the preposition is a word we must never end a sentence with comes from Latin. In fact, it is true that Latin does permit sentences with final preposition, and it is even true that

‘*form* ’words, as they are often called, like prepositions and conjugations are not permitted at the end of the line or verse, even when this is not the end of the sentence.

Context- sensitivity is used by the traditional school; Lyons (1968:235-247) a grammar is context – sensitive if atleast one of its rules refers to the symbols that are required to occur to the left and or to the right of the rewrite rule. The right rules indicate a restriction in the context in which they are to be applied. For instance x y/a-b/. Reads as follows:- Xis to be re-written as Y only in the context indicated between the slants (where the dash shows the place in the string which the replacement occupies). Therefore, in many languages, the constituents of a particular syntactic construction are said to agree or be in concord with respect to such features as gender, number, case and person. The problem of this approach is that it makes the assumption that all languages must conform to the grammatical structures of the Latin without regard to their uniqueness.

Ferdinand De Saussure was founder of modern Structural Linguistics. He sees a word as a linguistic sign which is a two – side entity, consisting of sound – form and a concept referred to by it, De Saussure, (1916). This idea received a wide acclaim in structural linguistics . A concept representing our knowledge about a real –world object is viewed as having an almost infinitely large number of attributes characterizing this object from all facets, its characteristics and relations with other objects. Aliyu (2006) sees the structural approach as a slight deviation from and or advancement of the traditional.

The main preoccupation of this school of thought was that language had a structure. All linguistics try to establish regularities, patterns and rules in languages; however the

structuralists, most especially the Bloomfieldians envisaged language structure in a very precise and limited way. To them, the structure of a language consists of the unit of phonology – phonemes (sound system) and the morpheme as the unit of grammar. There is a sharp contrast between the traditionalists and the structuralists because while the structuralists emphasise the structural function of grammatical elements as the pattern in syntactic structures, the traditionalists categorise elements as fixed entities using parsing, and presenting them as parts of speech. Structurally, elements well positioned in construction could have different grammatical labelling due to their function load. For example, "The young lady is here", would have "The young lady" as subject by function and noun phrase by name. The idea of "S.V.C.O.A" pattern (S- Subject; V- Verb; C-Complement; O-Object and A – Adjunct) is a structuralists orientation.

The structuralists also formulated the idea that any linguistic element exists and derives its value through relationships with other linguistics elements, Saussure (Ibid). Lyons (1977) says linguistics elements at any level of analysis are interrelated in two dimensions- the language as a system and the language in use (" Langue and parole in Sasssurean terms") or language – system and language behaviour . The relationships in the language system which are known as paradigmatic, and syntagmatic elements relate with one another in a horizontal or linear pattern. For instance, "we beat Hassan" ("We" as the subject relates with the verb "beat" which finally makes Hassan the object, a victim"). Paradigmatically, different grammatical structures could be regarded as the same in pattern due to the substitution possibilities existing between the elements. For instance

We beat Hassan

He ate the meat

She killed a goat

Have the same pattern: “We”, “He”, “She” as subjects and nominals; “beat, ate, killed as verbs (active and transitive) and “Hassan, meat, and goat” as objects and nominal.

For this present study, the theoretical framework is descriptive/ structural or what some linguists refer to as neo- traditional grammar. The specific descriptive approach is that of Quirk et al (1972).This was used because it concerns itself almost exclusively with description.Crystal (1980) in Galadima (op. cit) sees the following as the advantages of descriptive grammar:

1. It attempts to make precise statement about the morphology and syntax of a particular language;
2. Gives a comprehensive, systematic, objective and precise account of a specific language or dialect at a particular point in time.
3. Describes the facts of Linguistic usage as they are not how they ought to be.

Similarly, Finch (2000) gives a concise description of the theory:

> *The most forward treatment of syntax is that provided by descriptive grammars. These attempts to make precise, systematic statements about the morphology and syntax of a particular language… Descriptive grammars will outline the rules governing the way nouns inflect to form plurals, verbs to form the past tense, and adjectives to form comparatives and superlatives (nice-nicer-nicest)… Higher up the ladder, they will specify the types of phrases to be found and the kinds of dependent words, which can modify heads. And so on up to clauses and sentences.*

He sees descriptive grammars as one that show how language works in practical terms. To him, therefore, Quirk etal, (1972)’s descriptive method is recognized as one of the most widely used descriptive approaches in language study.

In their description of the English sentence, Quirk et al (opcit) identify and discuss the elements that make up the structure of the simple sentence and analyze how these elements are put together in different clause types. They also describe sentences in terms of their syntactic complexity. Their technique is what is used in this study to identify the main sentence structures in Igala and in describing their components.

It should be noted that only some rules of the theory were applied to the analysis of data. This was done mainly to curtail the amount of data and the scope of analysis as it is not easy to attempt applying every rule in descriptive grammar to the analysis of the data under study.

2.6 Summary

This chapter basically presented the literature review previous related studies and the theoretical framework on which this research is premised. Concept their relevant the study such as the different approaches to linguistics analysis: morphological homological syntactic levels, sentence , structures, word order and complementation have been reveled. Using Quirk etal description approach, the work conducts contrastive study of the sentence structure in English and Igala . Also, reviewed are a historical overview of contrastive studies and related previous study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

3.0 Preamble

This chapter is concerned with the methods used in gathering data for the study. There are various methods of gathering data for language analysis and the one a researcher uses depends on the aspect of language study and the type of analysis to be carried out. A common method of data collection for syntactic study which is known as corpora (Corpus based) is used for this study. It involves the collection of data from either spoken or written texts. As invaluable as these sources are for data gathering, Carnie (2007) observes that they are only a partial representation of what goes on in the mind because they contain instances of only grammatical sentences. Carnie (op cit) furthermentions that:

> *Even corpora of naturalistic speech complete with the errors every speaker makes don't necessarily contain the data we need to test the falsifiable predictions of our hypothesis.*

To effectively gather and analyze data in a linguistic study therefore, it is advisable to blend a native speaker's subconscious knowledge of the syntactic rules of his or her language with written literatures on the language. This, which is often referred to as a native speaker's intuition about his or her language, is what enables the speaker to judge whether a sentence is well-formed,grammatical, marginally formed or ill-formed, unacceptable or ungrammatical.

3.1 Sources of Data

In the course of gathering data for this study, two categories of informants: literate and illiterate native speakers of the central dialect of Igala language in the rural area and also

in urban settlements. The central dialect of Igala is the one spoken in Anyigba, Ejule and the environs where there is no border contact with other linguistics groups. Thisprocedure was adopted to be able to obtain data that will reflect Igala from various educational levels. A talk at a marriage ceremony in an Igala village, Anyigba, was recorded and some sentences were later extracted for analysis.

Another material used as source of data was a book with a collection of seven hundred and fifty- one Igala proverbs: *ItaIgala*. Although proverbs are sometimes not seen as typical sentences of a language, a few were used to serve as sentence varieties. A pedagogical text *Ukoche Igala Ejodudu*(First Learning in Igala) was used. Other sources of data include recorded traditional Igala and Christian songs, *Eli Abolojo* (Christian Hymn), Plays (Drama) and the Holy Bible translated into Igala. Also used was 'Igala without tears' a book specially prepared to assist Youth corps members and other visitors to Igala land to easily learn how to greet and conduct basic transactions in Igala. Sentences were selected from written and recorded materials as data for the study. All the corpora used were rigorously and meticulously examined before passing grammaticality judgment and used as data for this study.

Although a native speaker, the present researcher does not claim to present a perfect and exhaustive description of the structure of Igala sentence. As a matter of fact, anybody's knowledge of a language is always partial, including that of a native speaker. As a result of this, the data generated through the native speaker's intuition were subjected to scrutiny to ensure authenticity. Among those used to authenticate data for this study are: four Igala linguists –Dr. Alex Maiyanga of the National Commission for Colleges of

Education, Abuja, Dr. Sunday Ogala of Federal Polytechnic, Bida, Mr. Francis Tijani Atadoga, Head of Department of Igala Language, Kogi State College of Education, Ankpa, Kogi state and Dr. Ahmed Abdullahi of Department of English and Literary Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. Others are Mr. Wada Ata, Rev. (Dr.) Abdullahi Baba, Rev. (Dr.) Joseph Onuche and Elder Usman Ata Adaji

3.2 Instruments of Data Collection

In going about the collection of data certain instruments were use:-

1) **Observation**

This study involve the collection of data from native speaker of Igala in face- to- face interactions. This was done through the informal conversation with two category of informants: literate and illiterate native speakers both in the rural areas and urban settlements.

2) **Unstructured Interview**

Data were collected through unstructured interview. This method was used in among friends in family, district, local government,Igala central meetings and the Church (United Evangelical Church which is dominated by Igala Christian worshippers in Kaduna).

3) **Books**

Books written in Igala in by some authors were read. From these books sentences were selected for analysis

4) **Recording**

Data were also collected through recording. The first was recorded a programme at a marriage ceremony. Some other recorded sources were Christian hymns, traditional music and drama in Igala. These were presented in their natural state as they were. They were played repeatedly to enable mastering the contents for easier transcription and translation of items relevant to this study.

3.3 **Analytical Procedure**

In analyzing the Igala main sentence structures, the grammatical patterns of sentences taken as representative sample data were scrutinized and analyzed using English sentence structures as points of reference to determine how they exhibit similar features or characteristics to those of the English grammatical patterns. The major clause types of the independent clause or simple sentence as given by Quirk et al (1985) were used as points of reference for the analysis of the Igala simple sentence structure.

The analysis of compound and complex sentence structures was also based on the descriptive method of Quirk etal (opcit). Examples include:

13.

a) Igala text *Oma* *iye* *mi*

Gloss child mother me

Meaning My brother /sister

14.

b) Igala text *Ochimana wa emi*

Gloss Ochimana came here

Meaning Ochimana came here

15.

c) Igala text: *Igbele ka le kwu onale*

Gloss: young girl one walk die yesterday

Meaning: A young girl died yesterday

16.

d) Igala text: *Abilo a la opa*

Gloss:Abilo (aux) buy groundnut

Meaning: Abilo is buying some groundnuts.

17.

e) Igala text: *Idakpo wa ichochiI muda le te unyi me*

Gloss: Idakpo come Church he but walk (prep) house already

Meaning: Idakpo came to the church but he has gone home.

18.

f) Igala text: *Ame che ma ki ọya un a ji oji*

Gloss: Ame do know that wife his (aux) steal head

Meaning: Ame knows that his wife is a thief.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.

4.0 Preamble

This chapter contains an anaysis of data collected from various sources and the discussion of each of them. In analyzing the sentences, the researcher scrutinized them and carefully examined the relationship between their parts. In doing this, samples of sentences regarded as full sentences are taken as representative data for scrutiny.

4.1 Data Presentation

The data used for analysis are represented in the appendixes. This method of data presentation was used in order to make it easier to repair go the research question and thus able to follow the analysis.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Elements of the Igala Simple Sentence Structure

In describing English simple sentences, Quirk et al (op cit. p. 721), have pointed out that they consist of only one independent clause. They give the elements of the basic independent clause or simple sentence as subject, verb, object, complement and adjunct (SVOCA). In discussing the data here, some of the characteristic features of these elements in Igala sentences are examined.

The following elements are used for the analysis of both English and Igala sentences.

S – Subject
V – Verb
O- Object
C – Complement
A – Adjunct

These elements perform a meta- function in the sentence. Quirk el tal (op cit) defined them thus:

Subject: It is the doer or the topic of the sentence.It composes noun or noun equivalent

Verb: The action performed by the subject. It is the first element that mediates between the subject and the rest sentence elements

Object: That part on which the subject usually acts; directly or indirectly. If you have two objects in the clause we must determine which is direct or indirect.

Complement:It is a word or phrase especially, a noun or adjective which follows the verb and describes for instance, a noun or pronoun coming before it. In other word, the complement usually completes the sense of clause.

Adjunct: It is an adverbialword or phrase which limits or gives a special meaning to another word or part of the sentence. It answers how, when, why, where, at what extent, in what condition, how often etc. Thus, and adjunct is roughly equivalent to traditional notion of "adverb of adverb equivalent".

4.2.2 Subject Elements in Igala

While there are certain features that are unique to the subject in Igala, there are also cases where there are similarities between the subject in Igala and its equivalent in English sentence structures. For example, Igala subject which may consist of a single noun, a pronoun, a noun phrase or a noun clause comes before the verb. It can be long or complex consisting of articles, adjectives or other nouns followed by prepositional phrases or clauses as in the case of English.

Also, there are several distinguishing features of the subject in Igala. A case in point is the position of the modifiers in the noun phrase. As against English where determiners

come before the noun, in Igala they come after. The adjectives also act in a similar manner (post modifying the noun) making post modification to be seen as a general phenomenon of modifiers in Igala sentence structure. Examplesincludes:

N Adj

19. Igala text: *Igbele le*

Gloss: girl the

Meaning: (The girl)

N Adj

20. Igala text: *Oma yi*

Gloss: child this

Meaning: (This child)

N Adj

21. Igala text: *Unyi efufu*

Gloss: house white

Meaning: (whitehouse)

Another distinction is in the use of apostrophe s'/'s to indicate genetives in English, as the possessor normally precedes the possessed. In Igala, the possessed precedes the possessor and there is no use of apostrophes. An example is as below:

22. Igala text: *unyi onobule*

Gloss: House woman

Meaning: (Woman's house)

When a sentence begins with a subordinate clause, the subject still comes before the verb as in normal English word order. Examples:

23. Igala text: *ToduleImu oma unokpono du che ele*

Gloss: Because hecatchchild heonly carrydo gift

Meaning: (Because God loves the world, He gave his only begotten son)

24. Igala text: *Alu ki fu ome oya ra kpai I imudu* aloke

Gloss: As he do debt wife pay finish, he do take away

Meaning: (Having paid the bride price, he can go with his wife)

25. Igala text*: Ima de abelen, u ma ka nwu me*

Gloss: If it do like that not I, dosayto you

Meaning: (If it were not so, I would have told you)

As in English, imperative construction in Igala always omit the subject- With this therefore, the addressee is taken to be the subject of the verb. Example:

V N Adv Adv

26. Igala text: *Kwo ane pio pio*

Gloss: Leave ground quick quick

Meaning: (Get up quickly)

V N Pron

27. Igala text: *Du oko mi*

Gloss:Give money me

Meaning: (Give me some money)

Reflexivisation in Igala, like many Nigeria languages can be said to be effective in that actual parts of the body are used to register the idea of something coming back to the 'self' or the speaker. This is clearly for the fact that there is no gender distinction as found in English reflexive pronouns. It is from subject that the gender can be known.

Example are:

28. Igala text: *Ola* *mi* *onugo* *kpa*

Gloss:Body my myself ripe

Meaning: ("I am tired")

29. Igala text: *Omi* *onugo* *a* *wa*

Gloss: I myself will come

Meaning: ("I will comemyself")

30. Igala text: *Oun* *ka* *kpai* *ọtọtọun*

Gloss:He say with himself

Meaning: ("He said it himself")

4.2.3 The Features of Verb Elements in Igala

The verb is an invaluable element of a sentence as it is central in determining the meaning of an utterance. In English, verbs are words used to express the condition or state of the subject or the action in which the subject is involved. The major difference between the English verbs and those of Igala is the fact that there is hardly any form of

morphological inflection in Igala verbs. That is, the different verbal forms in English – the - s form, the past, the –ing participle and the –ed participle are not expressed in Igala.

In this section the first distinctive feature to be discussed is the use of morphological markers (-s, -es, -ing) used to distinguish tenses in English. In Igala, tenses are distinguished through tone marking or the context in which they are used. Some sentences in Igala may depict more than one tense when translated into English. Examples includes:

S AUX V O

31. Igala text: *Aduku a che ukọlọ*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Aduku is do work

Meaning: (Aduku works (habitual)

(Aduku is working (simple *progressive*)

S AUX V

32. Igala text: *Omi a lọ*
↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Water is fall

Meaning: ("It rains" – (*habitual*)

("It is raining" (*simple progressive*)

In Igala, the past is divided into three categories of:*past today*, *past yesterday* and past *beyond yesterday*. So, to express the past of the structures above, the auxiliary 'a' is removed and the category of the *tense* is introduced as:*'engini'*(today), *onale* as yesterday and *ọjọle* (that day).

S V

33. Igala text: *Idakpo che ukolo onale*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Gloss:Idakpo do work yesterday

Meaning: (Idakpo worked yesterday)

34. Igala text: *Omi* *lọ* *ọjọlẹ*

Gloss:Water fall that day

Meaning: (“It rained that day”)

Another distinction of the Igala verb element is splitting and bringing an object in between them in a sentence structure. Examples are as in the data below; that is, if the objects are removed from in between the two verbs and the verbs are brought together to act as a single word, they will convey one meaning.

S V O V

35. Igala text: Akubo du oko maja

Gloss:Akubo take money hide

Meaning: (“Akubo hid money”)

S V O V

36. Igala text: Ma fa unyi ko

↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Gloss:They do house build

Meaning: (“They built a house”)

The verbs are:

du *maja*

↓ ↓

take hide

fu *ko*

↓ ↓

do build

It is necessary to note that if only ‘du’ is used without ‘*maja*’, the sentence will mean something else. So, in Igala, the following sentences give different meanings, from the original with the omission of *‘du’* and *‘fu’* or they be come outrightly meaningless.

36a)* *Akubo* *oko* *maja*

↓ ↓ ↓

Akubo money hide

36b)* Ma unyi ko

↓ ↓ ↓

They house build

In 36 a , *Akubo money hide* is ungrammatical because of the omission of *“mu”“du”* and so meaningless. The same analysis applies toitem in 36 b.

Igala distinguishes transitive from intransitive verbs, but there are certain verbs that are used in cognate constructions. In this case, a noun similar to the verb is joined together with it as a word.

S V O

37. Igala text: *Ikani* *kpa* *ewo* *le*

Gloss:Ikani kill goat that

Meaning: (“Ikani killed that goat”)

38. Igala text: *Ata* *kọ* *ẹkpẹ* *ọnalẹ*

Gloss:Ata plucked palm fruit yesterday

Meaning: (“Ata harvested some palm fruits yesterday”)

39. Igala text: *Abalaka* *gwu* *ọjẹ* *lẹ*

Gloss:Abalaka pound food that

Meaning: (“Abalakapoundedthefood”)

40. Igala text: *Ojoma* *nyi* *anyi*

Gloss:Ojoma laugh laugh

Meaning: (“Ojoma laughed”)

41. Igala text: *Okpanachi* *kwa* *ukwa*

Gloss:Okpanachi shout shout

Meaning: (“Okpanachi shouted”)

42. Igala text: *Ape* *a le olu*

Gloss:Ape is sleep sleep

Meaning: (“Ape sleeps”)

(“Ape is sleeping”)

In data 43, the verbs are transitive because the actions are performed on objects for meanings to be derived. Data 41, 42, and 43 make meaning without the verb directly acting on object. These are intransitive verbs. In certain cases, verbs that are transitive in Igala may become intransitive when translated into English. For example:

43. Igala text: *Eleojo a ko eli*

Gloss:Eleojo is sing song

Meaning: ("Eleojo sings")

("Eleojo is singing")

44. Igala text: *Oma a lẹ ulẹ*

Gloss:Child is walk walk

Meaning: ("The child walks")

("The child is walking")

Also, there are some verbs that cannot be expressed as cognates as they always require objects to make their senses in utterances. Verb like *gwẹ* (wash) *kọ* (write) *gwu* (pound) *jẹ* (eat) and many other such verbs are examples.

45. S V O

Igala text: *Oya mi a gwe ukpo*

Gloss:wife my is wash cloth

Meaning: ("my wife washes clothes")

S V O

46. Igala text: *Amodu kọ ileta onale*

Gloss:Amodu write letter yesterday

Meaning: ("Amodu write a letter yesterday")

S V O

47. Igala text*:* *Alelo**a*** *gwu* *oję*

Gloss:Alelo is pound food

Meaning: (“Alelo pounded food”)

48. Igala text: *Ilametu a* *jẹ* *ẹgwa*

Gloss:Ilametu is eat beans

Meaning: (“Ramatu eatsbeans”)

(“ Ramatu is eating beans”)

In Igala, constructions such as;*Ameh ro, Ichamuelu ra,* and *Idoko kwa are not complete* and, consequently, not meaningful as the verbs mandatorily need objects to make complete utterances.

Auxiliary and linking verbs also affect the structure of sentences in the language. In English, for instance, the linking or copula verbs link the subject and the predicate in a clause. This means that they state that a person or a thing is something or does something by making use of the verb “to be”. This verb ‘be’ which is the commonest copular verb, has eight different forms: *am, is, was, were, be, being* and *been* with each expressing a particular tense or relationship within the sentence structure.

In Igala, some verbs with flexible meaning are used to perform this function of joining the subject to the predicate. Okpanachi (2002) lists these verbs to include *dẹ* and *che* in Igala. They are used in other constructions to express other meanings. A non-native user of Igala language needs to be aware of this to use the language correctly. Examples include:

S V A

49. Igala text*:* *Ogbẹ* *dẹ* *emi*

Gloss:Ogbẹ present/Available here

Meaning: (“Ogbẹ is here”)

50. Igala text*:* *I* *dẹ* *efuamoji* *ki* *uma* *mu*

Gloss:He is in stomachthieves that they arrest (pst)

Meaning: (“He is among the thieves that were arrested”)

51. Igala text: *Akogwu* *che* *ichoja*

Gloss:Akogwu is soldier

Meaning: (“Akogwu is a soldier”)

52. Igala text: Egba che mẹ

Gloss:Time do already

Meaning: (“It is time”)

56Igala text: *U* *na* *che* *ukolo*

Gloss:I am do work

Meaning: (“I am working”)

57. Igala text: *Oya* *un* *che* *ma* *abalẹ*

Gloss:Wife his do know that

Meaning: (“His wife knows that”)

58. Igala text: *Abimoto* *lẹ* *a* *che* *iya*

Gloss:Children the is do play

Meaning: (“The children are playing”)

59. Igala text: *Atabo a che ulaka mi*

Gloss:Atabo is do hatred me

Meaning: (“Atabo is hating me”)

(“Atabo hates me”)

In addition, unlike in English where the verb “have” is expressed in three forms: ‘has’ (singular), ‘have’ (plural) and ‘had’ (past), Igala uses the verb ‘fu’ as an auxiliary to express the verb ‘have’ in all situation.

For this reason, it is important to note that the number of the subject cannot be used to determine the form of the auxiliary “fu” in Igala. For instance:

S V O V

60. Igala text: *Ochimana fuaja oya dọmẹ*

Gloss:Ochimana have market wife call already

Meaning: (“Ochimana has mentioned/called the bride price”)

S V O V

61. Igala text*:* *Ojoagefu fu ukolo le che me*

Gloss:Ojoagefu have work the do

Meaning: (“Ojoagefu has done the work”)

S V O V

62. Igala text*: Ojima kpai Amana fu ola ma nẹ mẹ*

Gloss:Ojima and Amana have body them own already

Meaning: ("Ojima and Amana have been married")

S V O V

63.Igala text*: E fu uche le je-e*

GlossYou haveworkthe agree

Meaning: ("Have you delivered the message?")

S V O

64.Igala text*: I fu oko ra taki lo*

Gloss:He have money pay before go

Meaning: ("He had paid the money before he left")

The above is an indication that 'fu' as an auxiliary is used with both singular and plural subjects in Igala. Other of such verbs as *'neke', tila, dukpe etc* are commonly used in Igala as can be seen in the data below.

S aux V O

65. Igala text: U*neke du nyi ojale*

Gloss:Me can carry to heaven/up

Meaning: ("I can lift it up")

S V A

66. Igala text: *Omi* *neke* *lọ* *ane* *engini*

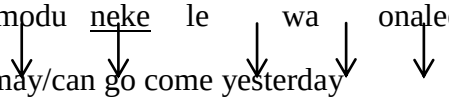


Gloss:Water may/can hang evening today

Meaning: ("It may rain this evening")

S V A

67. Igala text: Amodu neke le wa onalee?

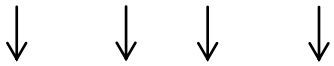


Gloss:Amodu may/can go come yesterday

Meaning: ("Did Amodu come yesterday?")

S V A

68. Igala text: *Omi* *a* *wa* *tila*



Gloss:Water (aux)come certainly

Meaning: ("The rain must come/it will certainly rain")

S O V A

69. Igala text: *I* *nẹ* *oji* *aji* *waa*



Gloss:He/she (aux) head steal continuous

Meaning: ("He has continued to steal")

S V V C

70. Igala text*:* *E* *dukpẹ* *kiẹ* *gwo* *ọgba*



Gloss:You ought to greet first

Meaning: ("You ought to greet him first")

4.2.4 The Notion of Object in Igala Sentence

An object is a word or group of words that receives the actions of verbs either directly or indirectly. It is a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with the 'receiver or 'goal' of an action as in:*' Musa bought a car*'. Traditional analysis distinguishes a direct from an indirect object, to allow for sentences such as:*Apeh* gave *some money to his wife and Apeh gave his wife some money.*

In English, the indirect object generally comes before the direct object except when a preposition 'to' or 'for' is used. Igala uses similar criteria for identifying direct and indirect objects.But there are cases where '*du'* (give) is used before the indirect object if it (*du*) is not the main verb. Examples include:

71. Igala text: *Okpanachi du umoto ki la ngu ata un*

Gloss:Okpanachi give motor he buy (Prep) father his

Meaning: ("Okpanachi has bought a car for his father")

72.Igala text: *Ichamuelu du ọkọ mẹ ngu wa*

Gloss:Samuel give money borrow (Prep) us

Meaning: ("Samuel lent us some money")

In the examples above, *du* introduces the indirect object.

The object in Igala sentence structure can also be identified taking into consideration the positioning as in English where the indirect object precedes the direct object. Here,*du* is the main verb.

73. Igala text: *Ata ọma onobulẹ du ọya un wa*

Gloss:Father child girl give wife his us

Meaning: (“The father of the girl has giving to us in marriage”)

74.Igala text: *Abalaka* *du* *ọkọ* *nwu* *ọya* *un*

Gloss:Abalaka take money to wife his

Meaning: (“Abalaka gave his wife money”)

The analysis done so far clearly shows that the verb takes other elements of the sentence to complete its meaning in the sentence structure. Some of the elements are obligatory while others are not.In a nutshell, the subject and the verb are the most important elements in the sentence structure of every language. All other elements depend on the two for the realization of their meanings. It is also necessary to note the arrangement of the elements to determine how word order varies from one language to another.

4.2.5 The Structure of the Simple Sentence in Igala

Alobo (2012) sees the sentence as the largest linguistic unit consisting of a subject and a predicate which are used to express a complete thought. Also, Okpanachi (2002) defines the sentence as the arrangement of words in spoken or written language to make sense. It could be simple, compound or complex.

According to Onochie (2007), the simple sentence forms the basis for any form of sentence analysis.It consists of a subject and a predicate and also expresses a single idea.

As simple as the idea it conveys may be, it could contain a number of modifiers and either the subject or predicate, or both, may be in compound form. Here, the seven major clause types of the simple sentence, as given by Quirk et al (op cit), were used as points of reference to analyze the Igala simple sentence structure.

4.2.5. 1Subject-Verb (S.V) Sentence Pattern in Igala

Like in most African languages, a morphological analysis of the simple sentence, using the subject-verb (S.V) clause type, is a herculean task. It is as a result of the fact that such constructions may be interpreted differently based on the tone used. Moreover, the auxiliary verbs in the present tense are not clearly shown in some structures in Igala but always implied. If the mid-tone is used, there is no distinction in the English structure for the –s form of the verb for the habitual, and the *–ing* form of the verb for progressive verb. Examples include:

S V

75. Igala text: *Ogala a je eun*

Gloss:Ogala is eat something

Meaning: ("Ogala eats")

S V

76.Igala text:*Ogala a je eun*

Gloss: Ogala is eat

Meaning: ("Ogala is eating")

S V

77.Igala text: *Alelo je eun*

Gloss:Alelo (pst) eat something

Meaning: ("Alelo ate")

S V

78. Igala text: *Alelo je eun*

Gloss: *Alelo (pst)* *eat* *something*

Meaning: ("Alelo has eaten")

S V

79.Igala text: *Majeeun*

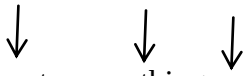


Gloss:They (pst) eat something

Meaning: ("They have eaten")

S V

80. Igala text: *u je* *eun*



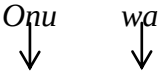
Gloss: I(pst) eat something

Meaning: ("I have eaten.")

In example 75 above, the English form introduces the auxiliary *is* and also affixes *–ing* to the main verb. Also for the past, English uses morphological changes but Igala only uses tone to indicate the past. In *79,Ma je eun*, the tone indicates the change of tense as it is already part of the sound of the word. This applies to the other data to show that tone pattern, to a great extent, is used to determine the meaning and tense of utterances in Igala. Other examples are:

S V

81. Igala text: *Onu* *wa*



Gloss:Chief come

Meaning: ("The chief came")

S S

82. Igala text: *Onu* *waa*



Gloss:Chief(pst) come

Meaning: (“Did the chief come?”).

Another data that needs consideration is:

83.Igala text: *Omachoko* *a* *ta* *ido*

Gloss:Omachoko is dance dance

Meaning: (“Omachoko is dancing”)

Looking at this construction, the internal structure is made up of a verb and its cognate object.But it is regarded as a single verb because they appear together as a single word. It may be confusing as a learner may find it difficult to state whether the verb is transitive or intransitive. For clarity, it is necessary to note that Igala sees it as intransitive if the verb and its cognate object are used together.But when they are separated as two elements, it is regarded as a verb its (cogent) and object. Examples are:

S V O V O

84. Igala text: *Ojoma,* *ta* *ido* *ngu* *mi*

Gloss:Ojoma, dance dance forme

Meaning: (“Ojoma, dance a dance for me”)

85.Igala text: Ja uja ngu mi

Gloss:Fight fight for me

Meaning: (“Fight a fight for me”)

4.2.5.2 Subject-Verb-Complement/Subject-Verb Adjunct (SVC/SVA) Patterns in Igala

In English, the subject-verb-complement structure is such that is made up of a noun group or an adjective group which usually refers back to the subject. In this case, the

Complement comes after the predicator. It is the same in Igala subject-verb-complement structure except that in the Igala sentence structure, modifiers come after the words that they modify.

Examples include:

S O V C

86.Igala text: *Oodu wa che enyo*

Gloss:Lord our do good

Meaning: ("Our Lord is good")

87. Igala text: *Ọjẹ I akpo nyonyo*

Gloss:Foodthis is smell fine fine

Meaning: ("This food smells good.")

88. Igala text: *Ọya un che gba ogba*

Gloss:Wife his do tall tall

Meaning: ("His wife is tall")

89.Igala text: *Oma Igbẹlẹ lẹ che ekpa*

Gloss:Child young girl that do red

Meaning: ("That girl is fair in complexion")

This situation in which modifiers come after the words they modify (post modification)is the typical characteristic of modifiers in Igala sentence structure.

The subject-verb-adjunct (SVA) simple sentence pattern in Igala is that which compulsorily takes an adverb to complete its meaning or the information of the sentence.

Like the case inEnglish, the adverb can take any position in the structure of the sentence.

It can also be a whole independent clause or a nominal clause. Examples are:

	S	V	A
90.Igala text:	*I*	*wa*	*onale*
Gloss:He/she	come	yesterday,	

Meaning: (He/she came yesterday)

91.	Igala text:	*Amichi*	*a*	*che*	*ukọlọ*	*efu*	*obuka*
	Gloss:Amichi	is	do	work	stomach	kitchen	
			AUX				

Meaning: ("Amichi is working in the kitchen.")

92.	Igala text:	*<u>Ojoduu</u>,*	*okpanachi*	*a*	*wa*		*emi*
	Gloss:Everyday	okpanachi	is	come		here	

Meaning: ("Okpanachi comes here everyday/on a daily basis.")

93.Igala text:	*Me*	*<u>hika</u>*	*wa*		*ki a*	*lo*	
Gloss:You	quickly	come	that	is	go		

Meaning: ("Come and let us go quickly.")

94.Igala text:	*Na*	*le*	*<u>yeye</u>*	*ki*	*e*	*we*	*chibu*
Gloss:You	go	gently	that	you	not	tumble	

Meaning: ("Walk gently so that you do not fall down.")

4.2.5.3. Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) Pattern in Igala

The subject-verb-object (SVO) sentence pattern is that in which the word order in English has an actor as subject, action as the verb and the receiver of the action as the object. This arrangement always remains the same except if a change occurs through passivisation or for some semantic effect. In Igala, the subject always remains at the initial position but the position of the other elements are flexible.

In English, more than one verb appear together. The same applies to Igala serial verbs constructions. For example:

95. Igala text: Onobule ka wa ku I kpa omi

Gloss Woman one come that she kill water

Meaning: ("One/a certain woman came to fetch water. ")

96. Igala text: *Onokele le wa ku i ne oya*

Gloss: Man that come that he have wife

Meaning: ("That man came to marry.")

In the utterances above, two verbs appear together but joined by the preposition ('ku') in both English and Igala. In some, the object and its modifier are together but while the modifier precedes the object in English, the modifier comes after the object in Igala. Examples are:

97. Igala text: *Ata oma onobule fa oma un eti*

Gloss: Father child female pulled child him ear

Meaning: ("The bride's father gavepieces of advice to his daughter.")

A major difference exists between English and Igala "SVO" structure when it is expressed in the past perfect tense. In English, an auxiliary verb precedes the main verb. In Igala, the auxiliary verb is introduced between the subject and the object with the object appearing between the two verbs-auxiliary and main. Instances are:

98. Igala text: Okpanachi fu oya un ko

Gloss:Okpanachi has wife his refuse

Meaning: ("Okpanachi has divorced his wife.")

99 Igala text: Abokele le fu oje le je

Gloss:Men those have food the eat

Meaning: ("Those men have eaten the food.")

4.2.5.4 SVOA/SVOO/SVOC Patterns in Igala

As in English, the position of the adjunct in Igala sentence structure is not static.

Examples are:

S V O A

100. Igala text: Okpanachi wa emi onale

Gloss:Okpanachi come here yesterday

Meaning: ("Okpanachi came here yesterday").

A S V O

101. Igala text: OnaleOkpanachi wa emi

Gloss:yesterday Okpanachi come here

Meaning: (" Yesterday, Okpanachi came here").

S V O A

102. Igala text: *A je oje Ojoduu*

Gloss:We eat food everyday

Meaning: (“We eat food everyday”)

A S V O

103. Igala text: *Ojoduu* *a* *je* *oje*

Gloss:Everyday we eat food

Meaning: (“ Everyday, we eat food")

There is also a similarity between the English SVOO sentence structure and that of Igala. In each case, the direct object comes before the indirect object but it is always connected by a preposition. Examples are :

S V Od (prep) oi

104. Igala text: *Abalaka* *la* *anya* *ngu* *ata* *un*

Gloss:*Abalaka buy* *bicycle* *for* *father* *his*

Meaning: (“Abalaka bought a bicycle for his father.”)

S V Od prep oi

105. Igala text: *Ijona* *du* *ọkọ* *ngu* *iye* *un*

Gloss:Ijona gave money to mother his

Meaning: (“Jonah gave some money to his mother.”)

In *81* the direct object *anya* is linked with the indirect object *ataun* by the preposition ‘*ng’* (for). It is the same in ‘*82’* where ‘*ọkọ’*is linked with ‘*iye un’* by the preposition “*ngu*”.

4.3 The Structure of Compound Sentences in Igala

A compound sentence is that which expresses two or more related actions as indicated by the verbs in the sentence. In Igala, like some African languages, compounding occurs either paratactically or hypo-tactically. In the former, sentences are linked to form a compound structure with the use of punctuation as against the use of conjunction in the latter. In some cases, a subject may be omitted after being mentioned in the first clause. Examples:

		S		V	O	V		O	
106.	Igala text:	*Amoma*	*un*	*la*	*okwuno*	*kpa*	*efu*	*ubi*	*un*
	Gloss:	Children	him	buy	cow	kill	stomach	back	him

Meaning: ("His children bought and slaughtered a cow during his funeral ceremony.")

		S		V	O	V	O
107.	Igala text:	*Amana*	*me*		*oko*	*nẹ*	*ọya*
	Gloss:	Amana	borrow		money	have	wife

Meaning: ("Amana borrowed money and married the wife.")

In the constructions above, the subjects "*amomaun*" and '*Amana'* are omitted in the second clauses to form the compound sentences. If the subjects were not omitted, each of the samples could result into two separate sentences. Let us examine the structures repeating the subjects; *Amomaun la okwuno/Amomaun kpa okwuno efu ubi un*. (His children bought a cow/His children slaughtered a cow during his funeral ceremony).

In some constructions, the subjects in the first main clauses are substituted by pronouns in the second main clauses to form compound sentences. Examples are:

S V A S V O

108. Igala text: *Achenejewa emi I Li uwe n*

Gloss:Acheneje come here he see you not

Meaning: (“Acheneje come here but did not see you.”)

S V C S V ng

109. Igala text:*Oko mi lenyo u Ma n*

Gloss:Money my lost I know not

Meaning: (“My money got lost and I did not know.”)

In these structures, the subjects in the second independent clauses (‘I’ and ‘u’ in 108 and 109) serve as conjunctions.

Also, punctuations,especially the comma, can be introduced between two or more main clauses to form compound sentences in Igala. Let us examine the structure below:

S V A S V O

110 Igala text*: Abokele ka wa emi, u rewa odu ma gen*

Gloss:Men some come here I remember name them again

Meaning: (“Some men came here, I cannot remember their names again.”)

S V (Prep) A S (aux) V O (neg)

111. Igala text: *U dabi tu ọmọ, u neke li man*

Gloss:I go back to there, I can see them not

Meaning: ("I went back there but I could not see them.")

In the constructions above, it is obvious that the two clauses in each sentence are independent. The introduction of the comma, which here serves as a conjunction, makes compounding to occur. If the comma is removed, each of the structures could result into two separately intelligible sentences:

S V A S V O

112. Igala text: *Abokele ka wa emi, u rewa odu ma gen n*

Gloss:Men some come here, I remember name them again. not

Meaning: 1. ("Some men came here")

2. ("I cannot remember their names again")

S V A S aux V O neg

113. Igala text: *U dabi tu omo, u neke Li ma n*

Gloss:I go back to there/ I can see them not

Meaning: 1. ("I went back there ")

2. ("I could not see them").

Compounding in Igala also involves the use of some coordinating conjunctions that are similar to those of English. These are: *amaa, muda (but), abeki (or) and ngo, langa, (and).* Here are some examples:

S V O S V

114. Igala text: *ma kaa mi, amaa u gbenyo*

Gloss:They tell me, but I forget

Meaning: ("They told me but I forgot").

S V O S V

115. Igala text: *Ameh je oje, efu un muda ko n*

Gloss:Ameh eat food, stomach he but full not

Meaning: (“ Ameh ate food, but he is not satisfied”).

S V S V

116. Igala text: *U loo, abeki e wa*

Gloss:I go,or you come you come

Meaning: (“Should I go, or will you come”).

S V S V O neg

117. Igala text: *Itodo a himu, abeki I ne ibe n*

Gloss:Itodo (aux) mad, or he has sense not

Meaning: (“Itodo is either mad, or he is senseless”).

S V A A S V O O

118. Igala text: *Amodu wa emi onale I la du ọkọ ngu wa*

Gloss:Amodu camehere yesterday he and give money we

Meaning: (“Amodu came here yesterday and he gave is money”).

S V O S V O

119. Igala text: *Ukwenya Lo uche I lango de ode*

Gloss:Ukwenya farm a farming he an also hunthunt

Meaning: ("Ukwenya is a farmer and he is also a hunter").

4.4 The Structure of the Complex Sentence in Igala

A complex sentence is one which combines one main clause with one or more subordinate clauses. The main clause expresses the idea conveyed by the sentence while the subordinate clause sheds light on what is conveyed by the main or principal clause. In analyzing the complex sentence, we considered the types of subordinators and the subordinate clauses contained in them, reported speech and or other areas of sentence complexity and comprehensibility such as the positions of subordinate clauses and structural ambiguity.

For the purpose of this study, complex sentences would be analyzed based on the types of subordinators and subordinate clauses that they contain. A subordinate clause depends on the main clause for its full meaning or sense. The relationship that exists between the main and subordinate clauses in the complex sentence is that of subordination. This subordination, according to Quirk et al (1985), is generally marked by a signal in the subordinate clause referred to as the subordinator. In this study, the researcher has identified words that can be used as subordinators in Igala and also explained how dependent clauses are expressed. The English subordinate clauses – adverbial, relative and nominal were used as points of reference in analyzing the data.

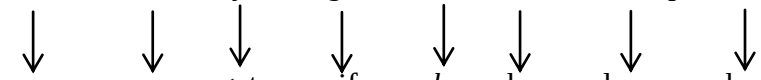
4.4.1 Complex Sentence Formed through the use of the Subordinator in Igala

As in English where subordinators may be single words or compound items, subordinators in Igala could either be single words or they come in compound form. What is likely a regular occurrence is a situation where the single word subordinators in Igala may not be as many as they are in English. This is probably because one

subordinator in Igala could be used to express more than one different subordinate clause. An example is the different types of adverbial subordinators used to indicate the different functions of the adverbial clauses in Igala.

The adverbial clause of time places the main clause in the appropriate temporal context often introduced by subordinators such as;*egba/iko (when/time), akwo egba (when/since), ubi, (after) gbegba (until) and ikoduu (whenever).* **Examples include:**

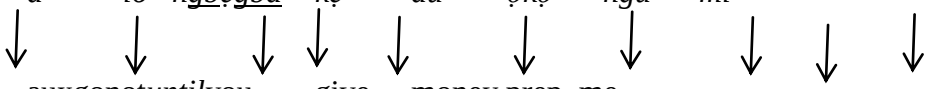
120.Igala text: *Abalaka a nẹ ọya ẹgba ki kwo ichekpulu*



Gloss:Abalaka aux get wife *when* he leave school

Meaning: ("Abalaka will marry *when* he completes his education").

121.Igala text: *Na a lo ngbẹgba kẹ du ọkọ ngu mi*



Gloss:I auxgonot*until*you give money prep. me

Meaning: ("I will not go *until* you give me the money").

122. Igala text: *Na a lo* iko *ki e le wa*



Gloss:I aux go *when* that you go come

Meaning: ("I will go after you arrived").

123.Igala text: *Akwoegba ki wa u neke lẹ olun n*



Gloss:Since he/she come I can sleep sleep not

Meaning: ("Since he came I have not slept").

124.Igala text: *Ubi ki Ichamuelu wa ma bi oma le*



Gloss:After that Samuel come they bear child that

Meaning: (“The child was born after Samuel’sarrival ”).

125. Igala text: *Ikoduu ku ebi a kpa ẹ do mi*

Gloss:Whenever that hunger (aux) kill you call me

Meaning: (“Call me whenever you are hungry”).

The adverbial clause of manner compares action, event or state to situation expressed in the main clause. In English, it is introduced by conjunctions such as *if, as,though* or *like*. Typical manner adverbs in Igala are “*alu/abu*” (‘how’). Examples are.

126.Igala text: *Okpanachi a ma otakada, alu ki a je oje*

Gloss:Okpanachi aux know book as he eat food.

Meaning: (“Though a glutton, Okpanachi is an intelligent person”).

127.Igala text: *Ajuma a kwa dabi ene ki uma kpa igbe*

Gloss:Ajuma is shout like/as person that they kill beat

Meaning: (“Ajuma is shouting like somebody that is being beaten”).

Some subordinators can also be used to situate an action, event or state expressed in the main clause in a specific location. These are equivalents of place adverbs in English. Typical examples in Igala are *Ugbo (‘where’)*and *Ugboduu” (wherever, anywhere)* as in:

128.Igala text: *Ọjọ a nẹ wa tẹ ugbo ki enyọọ ẹdọ*

Gloss:God will carry us to where that good chest

Meaning: (“God leads us to where He desires”).

129. Igala text: *Na* *alo* *tu* *ugboduu* *ki* *ra* *umi* *ẹdo*

Gloss: I go to anywhere that enjoy me chest

Meaning: (“I am going to anywhere that pleases me”).

Others are: *Icheun (if/when), ‘chai’ (*except*), chaiẹgba (unless), ki (that), todu* (for the sake of/because)and *toduki* (so that)**Examples are:**

130.Igala text: *Icheun* *ki* *ẹ* *ma* *wa* *pio* *pio* *n* *naalo*

Gloss:If that you do came ‘quick’ quick not I will go

Meaning: (“If you do not come on time, I will go/leave”).

131.Igala text: *Na* *ra* *ọmẹ* *wẹ* *icheun* *ki* *ẹche* *kpa*

Gloss:I pay debt you when that you do kill

Meaning: (“I will pay you when you complete the assignment”).

132.Igala text:*Na* *a* *to* *e non* *chai egbakiẹ* *mu* *ọkọ* *du* *mi*

Gloss:I will loose you not until that you catch money give me

Meaning: (“I will not leave you until you give me money”).

133.Igala text: *Na* *nmi* *n* *chai* *ki* *u* *muuloko* *lẹ* *gba*

Gloss:I rest not except when I catch feature that collect

Meaning: (“I will not rest except I receive that crown”).

134.Igala text: *Ebiloma* *wa* *emi* *onalẹ* *ki* *la* *anya* *ẹla*

Gloss:Ebiloma came here yesterday that buy bicycle animal

Meaning: (“Ebiloma came here yesterday to buy a horse”).

135. Igala text: *A* *wa* *gwa* *me* *ugwa* *todu* *oya* *kiume* *du* *ngu* *wa*

Gloss:We came greet you greet because wife that you give to us

Meaning: (“We have come to great you in appreciation of the wife you have given to us”).

4.4.2 Relative Clauses in Igala

Relative clauses are referred to as adjectival or attributive clauses in English. They perform the function of adjective in the utterances they appear. They qualify nouns after which they occur. These nouns they quality are called antecedents because the clauses come after the nouns. They are usually introduced by relative pronoun such as *who, which, whose, whom* and *that.*

In Igala, the relative clauses are also introduced by relative pronouns which are not as many as those of English. These Igala relative pronouns, which are only two in

number,are (*ki/ku*). They convey the idea of *"who", "whose", "which"* and *"that*" as we have an English. **Examples include:**

135.Igala text: *Ẹnẹ* *ki* *ala* *ng* *lenyọ* *le* *dei*

Gloss:Person whose sheep his lose that is

Meaning: ("That is the man whose sheep got lost")

136.Igala text: *Uchu* *ki* *I* *du* *te* *una* *bie*

Gloss:Yam which/that he/she take put fire done

Meaning: ("The yam which he put in the fire is done/ ready to eat")

137.Igala text: *Ene* *ki* *a* *che* *oga* *onale* *le* *kwu*

Gloss:Person who is do sickness yesterday that dead

Meaning: ("The person who was sick yesterday is dead").

138.Igala text: *Ene* *ku* *me* *kai* *de*

Gloss: Person who you talk is

Meaning: ("This is the person who you talked about").

139Igala text: *Ei* *ki* *ula* *de*

Gloss:Thisone which I buy is

Meaning: ("This is the one which I bought").

140.Igala text: *Alu* *ku* *ma* *ka* *de*

Gloss:Mouth that they talk is

Meaning: (“This is how they said/this is their viewor opinionson the matter”).

In the examples above, ‘*ku’* is mainly used for first person singular and second and third persons plural. In all these examples (135-140), the markers *ki/ku* head relative clauses which are in turn headed by preceding noun phrases in subject position.

Examples include:

141.Igala text: *Ọma ki wa lẹ che ma mi*

Gloss: Child who come do know me

Meaning: (“They child who came knows me”).

142.Igala text: *I che ene ku ka dei n*

Gloss:It do person that i say is i not

Meaning: (“This is not the person that I said/ this is not the person that had earlier referred to”).

4.4.3 Noun Clauses in Igala

A noun clause is one which performs the function of a noun. That is, it can act as the subject of a sentence, the object of a verb, complement of a verb and may also stand in apposition to a noun. In English, they are introduced by *that, what, whatever, who, whoever, which, where, why, whether, how etc.*In Igala, the noun clause is introduced by a complementiser, the subordinator ‘*ki’*(that). Note that this is different from the relative marker ‘ki’ which is low-toned. Consider the use of the ‘*ki’* subordinator in the following instances:

143.Igala text: *Omachoko che ma ki oya un a ro aro*

Gloss: Omachoko do know that wife his is quarrel quarrel

Meaning: (“Omachoko knows that his wife is quarrelsome”)

144.Igala text: *Ilamatu ma ki a wa unyi onale*

Gloss:Ramatu know that we come house yesterday

Meaning: (“Ramatu knew that we came home yesterday”).

In (141) and (142) above, the clauses introduced by “ki” (that) are noun clauses functioning as the object of the main clauses in thesentences.

From the analysis so far carried out on the gathered data, it is clear that Igala language has the capacity of expressing the complex sentence as it is done in English. The only difference is that while English has so many subordinators, Igala has only ‘ki’ (that) which is all the same grammatically adequate to make the language to express sentences or utterances in complex form.

4.5 Summary and Discussion of Finding

From the analysis carryout, the following findings were arrived at:

In the first place, that is difference between the nouns -determinant position between English and Igala. In English determinants occur before nouns but in Igala their post modify. Igala adjectives also post modify while those of English could come before or after.

Secondly English possessiveor genitive case can be expressed morphologically. In Igala, they requires a lexical item to express possession or a word (no use ofapostrophe).

Also, aspect in English grammar is the distinctionbetween progressive and perfective action. Thisis expressed in the verb phrase.In this instance, Igala verb phrase quite agree with that of English. This shows that there is similarity between English and Igala with regard to aspect.

In addition while English tenses of present, present continuous and past are differentiated using morphological markers (-s-es,-ing,-ed)the Igala tenses are distinguish through intonation, the context in which they are used or time adverbials ("*engini*" (today) "*onale" (yesterday) and "Ojole" (that day)*

Furthermore, unlike in English where the verb "have" is expressed in three forms: has (singular), have (plural), had (past), Igala uses the verb "*fu*" as an auxiliary to express the verb "have" in all situation. Also, in the case of the object as a sentence element, Igala identifies the direct and indirect object the same way English does in which the indirect object precedes the direct except when the preposition "to or for" is used. In same vein, the simple sentence in Igala has certain common features with those of English. The elements are the same but could be arranged in certain orders by any of the two languages to achieve some communicative effects. Infact, Igala has been found to be a "*SVO*" language type with "*SO*V" occurring in some structures.

In compound sentence, it could be said that Igala, like many African languages, put separate short sentences or coordinate clauses together through the use of punctuation marks, especially, the comma, elision of subject in the second clause and some conjunctions similar to those of English. Inspite of this, certain variationsexist as in the numbers of coordinators in Igala in reference to those of English. Unlike in English

where “and”: and “but” have one coordinating conjunction each, Igala has two each for the conjunctions “and” (ngo,lango) and “but” (muda, amaa).

Finally, it is clear that Igala languages has the capacity of expressing the complex sentence as it is done in English. The only difference is that while English has so many subordinators, Igala has only “*ki*” (that) which is also grammatically adequate to make the language to express sentences or utterances in complex form.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONSFOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5.1 Summary of the Study

Chapter one of the study contains the general introduction of the study. Specific areas highlighted in this included a look at language as a field worthy of study, the Igala people, their language's origin as a less known language research-wise, compared to English. In this regard, the historical origin of the native speakers of Igala was traced to the relationship with Yoruba-Itsekiri and the later separation to form the various dialects of Igala, Yoruba and Itsekiri as against the claim of some scholars that Igala is a dialect of Yoruba. The dialectal profile as well as tonal nature of the language was presented and the choice of the term "Igala" for this study in reference to both the language and the native speakers.

Chapter two contained the review of related literature of the study. Areas encountered here include contrastive linguistics, and the theories of levels of analysis in language studies, which are the main components of the grammar of language that contribute to the interpretation of the sentence. The discussion of the syntactic level was more thorough as it was the main subject of the thesis.

The descriptive approach which is regarded by some linguists as a theory that attempts to make precise, systematic statements about the morphology and syntax of a particular language was adopted as the theoretical framework. The specific approach used was that of Quirk, Greenbaun, Leech and Svartvik (1972, 1985).

The corpus that formed the data for this study was obtained mainly from three sources. The first of the sources is the body of texts written in Igala and reviewed for the study. This source can be justified by the fact that the study is a purely structural one, and does not run the risk of subjectivity. Secondly, the researcher obtained recorded informal conversation between native speakers of the central dialect of Igala both from the literate and illiterate classes and a talk at a traditional marriage ceremony in Anyigba. There is also the use of the researcher's native speaker intuition to supplement, or corroborate the structures obtained through the two other sources. The data generated were also subjected to scrutiny by some Igala linguists and elders to ensure authenticity.

In translating the data gathered, the approaches of Etu (2000) and Omachonu (2011) to Igala orthographical representation were used. Omachonu's (ibid) descriptive approach, was more prominently used because unlike Etu that emphasized elision and contraction, Omachonu insisted on full representation of letters in the written form. Chapter four contains the analysis of data using the various elements of the corpus. In doing this, English was used as a reference language. So, attempts were made to highlight areas of major differences and similarities between Igala and English sentence structures. Out of this thorough assessment, a wide range of finding was arrived at to show that there are some distinctive features of Igala sentence elements as follows:

5.2 Conclusion

The researcher's choice to embark on the syntactic study of sentence structures in Igala is based on the viewof many linguists that the sentence is the best point to start the analysis of a language that has not been thoroughly investigated or linguistically analyzed. The study attempted to describe the organization of utterances or sentences in conveying

different types of information at various levels of complexities. In doing this, the study dwelt on the structure of the simple, compound and complex sentences in Igala. Being descriptive in nature, the descriptive approach was adopted in the attempt to investigate the structure of the sentence structure in Igala. Based on the research questions raised for this study and the findings of the research, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Igala has a stock of meaning-bearing elements which could be described alongside those identified as language universals.

2. Igala is also capable of using the syntactic properties of the language in combining simple sentence in various ways to make expressions with higher degrees of complexities.

3. The syntactic rules innate in the native speakers of Igala like other languages make it possible for them to recognize and use the different elements without any confusion.

However, there is the need for a more indepth study and research works that could bring out the structure of the grammar of the language as it is believed that research works on a language makes other members of the society know the characteristic features of such a language.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has contributed to knowledge in the following ways:

1. It has contributed to the study of Igala grammar by enhancing the structure of sentence types in Igala because the study has been able to point out the various structural types of sentence that were formally ignored or taken for granted.

2. Before now there has not conscious and intensive study of the various types of sentence in Igala.As aresult of this, the present study has contributed to the study of sentence types in Igala and highlighted areas previously overlooked or ignored by researcher. Moreover, it is discovered that in as much as there are certain differences between the element of sentence in English and Igala, there are similarities at certain levels.
3. The work has equally contributed to knowledge by providing insight for pedagogical purposes. The Igala LI teachers of English language will benefit from the study because material from this study will be used to instruct especially in the field of syntax.The study also will be of benefit to Igala LI learners of English and non – Igala teachers of Igala LI learners

5.4 Suggestionsfor Further Research

Considering the status of Igala as a language that has been under-researched, one can identify many areas of the language that are fertile for more research. Infact, as a study which to the best of the researcher's knowledge had never been done this way, each of the research questions raised stands as an area that needs a more indepth investigation. Areas specifically suggested for further studies are:

1. The simple sentence needs to be seriously investigated to bring out all its different clauses and verb complementation patterns, describe all the syntactic functions and semantic roles of clause elements, and all other features it possesses.
2. The complex sentence is itself another area that needs a thorough study. Aspects such as reported speech, complex subordination, structural ambiguity and others need individual investigation.

3. Apart from the sentence, there are many other areas of syntax of the language that need further study. Examples are semantics, pragmatics, phonology, morpho-syntax and so on.

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APPENDIX

SAMPLE OF DATA GOT FROM FIELD WORK

N Adj

1) Igala text: *Igbele* *le*

Gloss: girl the

Meaning: (The girl)

N Adj

2) Igala text: *Oma* *yi*

Gloss: child this

Meaning: (This child)

N Adj

3) Igala text: *Unyi* *efufu*

Gloss: house white

Meaning: (whitehouse)

4) Igala text: *unyi* *onobule*

Gloss: House woman

Meaning: (Woman's house)

5) Igala text: *Todu abele I mu oma un okpono du che ele*

Gloss: Because of that, he catch child he only carry do gift

Meaning: (Because God loves the world, He gave his only begotten son)

6) Igala text: *Alu ki fu ome oya ra kpai I imudu* aloke

Gloss: As he do debt wife pay finish, he do take away

Meaning: (Having paid the bride price, he can go with his wife)

7) Igala text*:* *Ima* *de* *abele* *n,* *u* *m a* *ka* *ngu* *me*

Gloss: If it do like that not I, dotalkto you

Meaning: (If it were not so, I would have told you)

V N Adv Adv

8) Igala text: *Kwo* *ane* *pio* *pio*

Gloss: Leave ground quick quick

Meaning: (Get up quickly)

V N Pron

9) Igala text: *Du* *oko* *mi*

Gloss:Give money me

Meaning: (Give me some money)

10) Igala text: *Ọla* *mi* *onugo* *kpa*

Gloss:Body me wholeme ripe

Meaning: (“I am tired”)

11) Igala text: *Omi* *onugo* *a* *wa*

Gloss: I whole me will come

Meaning: (“I will comemyself”)

12. Igala text: *Oun* *ka* *kpai* *ọtọtọ* *un*

Gloss: He talk with a whole him

Meaning: (“He said it himself”)

S V O

12) Igala text: *Aduku* *a* *che* *ukọlọ*

Gloss: Aduku is do work

Meaning: (Aduku works (habitual)

(Aduku is working (simple *progressive*)

S V

14) Igala text: *Omi* *a* *lọ*

Gloss:Water is fall

Meaning: ("It rains" – (*habitual*)

("It is raining" (*simple progressive*)

S V

15) Igala text: *Idakpo* *che* *ukolo* *onale*

Gloss:Idakpo do work yesterday

Meaning: (Idakpo worked yesterday)

16) Igala text: *Omi* *lọ* *ọjọlẹ*

Gloss:Water fall that day

Meaning: ("It rained that day")

S V O V

17. Igala text: Akubo du oko maja

Gloss:Akubo take money hide

Meaning: ("Akubo hid money")

S V O V

18) Igala text: Ma fa unyi ko

Gloss:They do house build

Meaning: ("They built a house")

The verbs are:

du *maja*
↓ ↓
take hide

fu *ko*
↓ ↓
do build

17b) *Akubo* *oko* *maja*
↓ ↓ ↓
Akubo money hide

18b) Ma unyi ko
↓ ↓ ↓
They house build

S V O

19) Igala text: *Ikani* *kpa* *ewo* *le*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Ikani kill goat that

Meaning: (“Ikani killed that goat”)

20) Igala text: *Ata* *kọ* *ẹkpẹ* *ọnalẹ*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
GlossAta plucked palm fruit yesterday

Meaning: (“Ata harvested some palm fruits yesterday”)

21) Igala text: *Abalaka* *gwu* *ọjẹ* *lẹ*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Abalaka pound food that

Meaning: (“Abalakapoundedthe food”)

22) Igala text: *Ojoma* *nyi* *anyi*
↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Ojoma laugh laugh

Meaning: (“Ojoma laughed”)

23) Igala text: *Okpanachi* *kwa* *ukwa*
↓ ↓ ↓
Gloss:Okpanachi shout shout

Meaning: (“Okpanachi shouted”)

24) Igala text: *Ape* *a* *le* *olu*
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓

Gloss:Ape is sleep sleep

Meaning: (“Ape sleeps”)

(“Ape is sleeping”)

25) Igala text: *Eleojo a ko eli*

Gloss:Eleojo is sing song

Meaning: (“Eleojo sings”)

(“Eleojo is singing”)

26) Igala text: *Oma a lẹ ulẹ*

Gloss: Child is walk walk

Meaning: (“The child walks”)

(“The child is walking”)

27) S V O

Igala text: *Oya mi a gwe ukpo*

Gloss:wife my is wash cloth

Meaning: (“my wife washes clothes”)

S V O

28) Igala text: *Amodu ko ileta onale*

Gloss: Amodu write letter yesterday

Meaning: (“Amodu write a letter yesterday”)

S V O

29) Igala text*:* *Alelo a gwu ojẹ*

Gloss:Alelo is pound food

Meaning: (“Alelo pounded food”)

30) Igala text: *Ilametu a jẹ ẹgwa*

Gloss:Ilametu is eat beans

Meaning: (“Ramatu eatsbeans”)

(“ Ramatu is eating beans”)

S V A

31) Igala text*:* *Ogbẹdẹ emi*

Gloss:Ogbẹ present/Available here

Meaning: (“Ogbẹ is here”)

32) Igala text*:* *I dẹ efu amoji ki uma mu*

Gloss:He is in stomach thieves that they arrest (pst)

Meaning: (“He is among the thieves that were arrested”)

33) Igala text: *Akogwu che ichoja/anakpala*

Gloss: Akogwu do soldier

Meaning: (“Akogwu is a soldier”)

34) Igala text: Egba che mẹ

Gloss: Time do already

Meaning: (“ It is time”)

35)Igala text: *U na che ukolo*

Gloss:I am do work

Meaning: ("I am working")

36) Igala text: *Oya un che ma abalẹ*

Gloss:Wife his do know that

Meaning: ("His wife knows that")

37) Igala text: *Abimoto lẹ a che iya*

Gloss: Children the is do play

Meaning: ("The children are playing")

38) Igala text: *Atabo a che ulaka mi*

Gloss: Atabo is do hatred me

Meaning: ("Atabo is hating me")

("Atabo hates me")

S V O V

39) Igala text: *Ochimana fuaja oya dọmẹ*

Gloss: Ochimana have market wife call already

Meaning: ("Ochimana has mentioned/called the bride price")

S V O V

40) Igala text: *Ojoagefu fu ukolo le che me*

Gloss: Ojoagefu have work the do

Meaning: ("Ojoagefu has done the work")

S V O V

41) Igala text*:* *Ojima kpai Amana <u>fu</u> ola ma nẹ mẹ*

Gloss:Ojima and Amana have body them own already

Meaning: ("Ojima and Amana have been married")

S V O V

42) Igala text*:* *E <u>fu</u> uche le je-e*

Gloss:You have workthe agree

Meaning: ("Have you delivered the message?")

S V O

43) Igala text*:* *I <u>fu</u> oko ra taki lo*

Gloss:He have money pay before go

Meaning: ("He had paid the money before he left")

S aux V O

44) Igala text: *Omi <u>neke</u> du nyi ojale*

Gloss:Me can carry to heaven/up

Meaning: ("I can lift it up")

S V A

45) Igala text: *Omi <u>neke</u> lọ ane engini*

Gloss: Water may/can hang evening today

Meaning: ("It may rain this evening")

S V A

46) Igala text: Amodu neke le wa onalee?

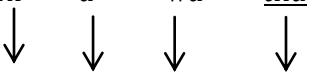


Gloss:Amodu may/can go come yesterday

Meaning: ("Did Amodu come yesterday?")

S V A

47) Igala text: *Omi a wa tila*

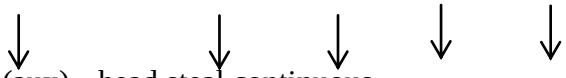


Gloss:Water (aux) come certainly

Meaning: ("The rain must come/it will certainly rain")

S O V A

48) Igala text: *I nẹ oji aji waa*



Gloss:He/she (aux) head steal continuous

Meaning: ("He has continued to steal")

S V V C

49) Igala text*: E dukpẹ kiẹ gwo ọgba*



Gloss:You ought to greet first

Meaning: ("You ought to greet him first")

50) Igala text: *Okpanachi du umoto ki la ngu ata un*



Gloss:Okpanachi give motor he buy (Prep) father his

Meaning: ("Okpanachi has bought a car for his father")

51) Igala text: *Ichamuelu du ọkọ mẹ ngu wa*



Gloss: Samuel give money borrow (Prep) us

Meaning: (“Samuel lent us some money”)

52) Igala text: *Ata* *ọma* *onobulẹ* *du* *ọya* *un* *wa*

Gloss:Father child girl give wife his us

Meaning: (“The father of the girl has given he to us in marriage”)

53) Igala text: *Abalaka* *du* *ọkọ* *nwu* *ọya* *un*

Gloss: Abalaka take money to wife his

Meaning: (“Abalaka gave his wife money”)

S V

54) Igala text: *Ogala* *a* *je* *eun*

Gloss:Ogala is eat something

Meaning: (“Ogala eats”)

S V

55) Igala text:*Ogala* *a* *je* *eun*

Gloss: Ogala is eat

Meaning: (“Ogala is eating”)

S V

56) Igala text: *Alelo* *je* *eun*

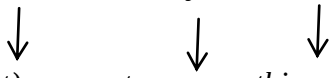


Gloss:Alelo (pst) eat something

Meaning: (“Alelo ate”)

S V

57) Igala text: *Alelo* *je* *eun*



Gloss:*Alelo (pst)* *eat* *something*

Meaning: (“Alelo has eaten”)

S V

58) Igala text: *Majeeun*



Gloss:They (pst) eat something

Meaning: (“They have eaten”)

S V

59) Igala text: *u* *je* *eun*



Gloss: I(pst) eat something

Meaning: (”I have eaten.”)

S V

60) Igala text: *Onu* *wa*



Gloss:Chief come

Meaning: (“The chief came”)

S S

61) Igala text: *Onu* *waa*

Gloss:Chief(pst) come

Meaning: (“Did the chief come?”).

62) Igala text: *Omachoko* *a* *ta* *ido*

Gloss:Omachoko is dance dance

Meaning: (“Omachoko is dancing”)

S V O V O

63) Igala text: *Ojoma,* *ta* *ido* *ngu* *mi*

Gloss:Ojoma, dance dance forme

Meaning: (“Ojoma, dance a dance for me”)

64) Igala text: Ja uja ngu mi

Gloss:Fight fight for me

Meaning: (“Fight a fight for me”)

S O V C

65) Igala text: *Oodu* *wa* *che* *enyo*

Gloss:Lord our do good

Meaning: (“Our Lord is good”)

66) Igala text: *Ọjẹ* *I* *a* *kpo* *nyo* *nyo*

Gloss:Foodthis is smell fine fine

Meaning: ("This food smells good.")

67) Igala text: *Ọya* *un* *che* *gba* *ogba*

Gloss:Wife his do tall tall

Meaning: ("His wife is tall")

68) Igala text: *Oma* *Igbẹlẹ* *lẹ* *che* *ekpa*

Gloss:Child young girl that do red

Meaning: ("That girl is fair in complexion")

S V A

69) Igala text: *I* *wa* *onale*

Gloss:He/she come yesterday,

Meaning: (He/she came yesterday)

70) Igala text: *Amichi* *a* *che* *ukọlọ* *efu* *obuka*

Gloss:Amichi is do work stomach kitchen

Meaning: ("Amichi is working in the kitchen.")

71) Igala text: *<u>Ojoduu</u>,* *okpanachi* *a* *wa* *emi*

Gloss:Everyday okpanachi is come here

Meaning: ("Okpanachi comes here everyday/on a daily basis.")

72) Igala text: *Me* *hika* *wa* *ki* *a* *lo*

Gloss:You quickly come that is go

Meaning: ("Come and let us go quickly.")

73) Igala text: *Na* *le* *yeye* *ki* *e* *we* *chibu*

Gloss:You go gently that you not tumble

Meaning: ("Walk gently so that you do not fall down.")

74) Igala text: Onobule ka wa ku I kpa omi

Gloss:Woman one come that she kill water

Meaning: ("One/a certain woman came to fetch water. ")

75) Igala text: *Onokele* *le* *wa* *ku* *i* *ne* *oya*

Gloss:Man that come that he have wife

Meaning: ("That man came to marry.")

76) Igala text: *Ata* *oma* *onobule* *fa* *oma* *un* *eti*

Gloss:Father child female pulled child him ear

Meaning: ("The bride's father gavepieces of advice to his daughter.")

77) Igala text: Okpanachi fu oya un ko

Gloss:Okpanachi has wife his refuse

Meaning: ("Okpanachi has divorced his wife.")

78) Igala text: Abokele le fu oje le je

Gloss:Men those have food the eat

Meaning: (“Those men have eaten the food.”)

S V O A

79) Igala text: Okpanachi wa emi onale

Gloss:Okpanachi come here yesterday

Meaning: (“Okpanachi came here yesterday”).

A S V O

80) Igala text: OnaleOkpanachi wa emi

Glossyesterday Okpanachi come here

Meaning: (“ Yesterday, Okpanachi came here”).

S V O A

81) Igala text*:* *A* *je* *oje* *Ojoduu*

Gloss:We eat food everyday

Meaning: (“We eat food everyday”)

A S V O

80) Igala text: *Ojoduu* *a* *je* *oje*

Gloss: Everyday we eat food

Meaning: (“ Everyday, we eat food")

S V Od (prep) oi

Igala text: *Abalaka la anya ngu ata un*

Gloss: *Abalaka buy bicycle for father his*

Meaning: ("Abalaka bought a bicycle for his father.")

S V Od prep oi

82. Igala text: *Ijona du ọkọ ngu iye un*

Gloss:Ijona gave money to mother his

Meaning: ("Jonah gave some money to his mother.")

S V O V O

83) Igala text: *Amoma un la okwuno kpa efu ubi un*

Gloss:Children him buy cow kill stomach back him

Meaning: ("His children bought and slaughtered a cow during his funeral ceremony.")

S V O V O

84) Igala text: *Amana me oko nẹ ọya*

Gloss:Amana borrow money have wife

Meaning: (" Amana borrowed money and married the wife.")

S V A S V O

85) Igala text: *Achenejewa emi I Li uwe n*

Gloss: Acheneje come here he see you not

Meaning: ("Acheneje come here but did not see you.")

S V C S V ng

86) Igala text:*Oko mi lenyo u Ma n*

Gloss:Money my lost I know not

Meaning: (“My money got lost and I did not know.”)

S V A S V O

87) Igala text*: Abokele ka wa emi, u rewa odu ma gen*

Gloss:Men some come here I remember name them again

Meaning: (“Some men came here, I cannot remember their names again.”)

S V (Prep) A S (aux) V O (neg)

88) Igala text: *U dabi tu ọmọ, u neke li man*

Gloss:I go back to there, I can see them not

Meaning: (“I went back there but I could not see them.”)

S V A S V O

89) Igala text: *Abokele ka wa emi, u rewa odu ma gen n*

Gloss:Men some come here, I remember name them again. not

Meaning: 1. (“Some men came here”)

3. (“I cannot remember their names again”)

		S	V		A	S	aux	V	O	neg
90)	Igala text:	*U*	*dabi*	*tu*	*omo,*	*u*	*neke*	*Li*	*ma*	*n*
	Gloss:I		go back	to	there/	I	can	see	them	not

Meaning: 1. ("I went back there ")

2. ("I could not see them").

		S	V	O	S		V	
91)	Igala text:	*ma kaa*	*mi,*	*amaa*		*u*	*gbenyo*	
	Gloss:They	tell me,	but		I	forget		

Meaning: ("They told me but I forgot").

		S	V	O	S			V	
92)	Igala text:	*Ameh*	*je*	*oje,*	*efu*		*un muda*	*ko*	*n*
	Gloss:Ameh	eat	food, stomach		he	but	full not		

Meaning: (" Ameh ate food, but he is not satisfied").

		S	V		S	V
93)	Igala text:	*U*	*loo,*	*abeki*	*e*	*wa*
	Gloss:I	go,	or you come		you	come

Meaning: ("Should I go, or will you come").

S V S V O neg

94) Igala text: *Itodo a himu, abeki I ne ibe n*

Gloss: Itodo (aux) mad, or he has sense not

Meaning: ("Itodo is either mad, or he is senseless").

S V A A S V O O

95) Igala text: *Amodu wa emi onale I la du ọkọ ngu wa*

Gloss:Amodu camehere yesterday he and give money we

Meaning: ("Amodu came here yesterday and he gave is money").

S V O S V O

96) Igala text: *Ukwenya Lo uche I lango de ode*

Gloss:Ukwenya farm a farming he an also hunthunt

Meaning: ("Ukwenya is a farmer and he is also a hunter").

97) Igala text: *Abalaka a nẹ ọya ẹgba ki kwo ichekpulu*

Gloss:Abalaka aux get wife <u>*when*</u> he leave school

Meaning: ("Abalaka will marry <u>*when*</u> he completes his education").

98) Igala text: *Na a lo ngbẹgba kẹ du ọkọ ngu mi*

Gloss:I auxgonot<u>*until*</u>you give money prep. me

Meaning: ("I will not go <u>*until*</u> you give me the money").

99) Igala text: *Na* *a* *lo* *iko* *ki* *e* *le* *wa*

Gloss:I aux go *when* that you go come

Meaning: ("I will go after you arrived").

100) Igala text: *Akwoegba* *ki* *wa* *u* *neke* *lẹ* *olun* *n*

Gloss:Since he/she come I can sleep sleep not

Meaning: ("Since he came I have not slept").

101) Igala text: *Ubi* *ki* *Ichamuelu* *wa* *ma* *bi* *oma* *le*

Gloss:After that Samuel come they bear child that

Meaning: ("The child was born after Samuel'sarrival ").

102) Igala text: *Ikoduu* *ku* *ebi* *a* *kpa* *ẹ* *do* *mi*

Gloss:Whenever that hunger (aux) kill you call me

Meaning: ("Call me whenever you are hungry").

103) Igala text: *Okpanachi* *a* *ma* *otakada,* *alu* *ki* *a je oje*

Gloss:Okpanachi aux know book as he eat food.

Meaning: ("Though a glutton, Okpanachi is an intelligent person").

104) Igala text: *Ajuma* *a* *kwa* *dabi* *ene* *ki* *uma* *kpa* *igbe*

Gloss:Ajuma is shout like/as person that they kill beat

Meaning: ("Ajuma is shouting like somebody that is being beaten").

105) Igala text: *Ọjọ a nẹ wa tẹ ugbo ki enyọọ ẹdọ*

Gloss: God will carry us to where that good chest

Meaning: ("God leads us to where He desires").

106) Igala text: *Na alo tu ugboduu ki ra umi ẹdo*

GlossI go to anywhere that enjoy me chest

Meaning: ("I am going to anywhere that pleases me").

107) Igala text: *Icheun ki ẹ ma wa pio pio n naalo*

Gloss: If that you do came 'quick' quick not I will go

Meaning: ("If you do not come on time, I will go/leave").

108) Igala text: *Na ra ọmẹ wẹ icheun ki ẹche kpa*

Gloss:I pay debt you when that you do kill

Meaning: ("I will pay you when you complete the assignment").

109) Igala text:*Na a to e non chai egbakiẹ mu ọkọ du mi*

Gloss:I will loose you not until that you catch money give me

Meaning: ("I will not leave you until you give me money").

110) Igala text: *Na nmi n chai ki u muuloko lẹ gba*

GlossI rest not except when I catch feature that collect

Meaning: ("I will not rest except I receive that crown").

111) Igala text: *Ebiloma wa emi onalẹ ki la anya ẹla*

Gloss:Ebiloma came here yesterday that buy bicycle animal

Meaning: ("Ebiloma came here yesterday to buy a horse").

112) Igala text: *A wa gwa me ugwa todu oya kiume du ngu wa*

Gloss:Wecame greet you greet because wife that yougive to us

Meaning: ("We have come to greet you in appreciation of the wife you have given to us").

113) Igala text: *Ẹnẹ* *ki* *ala* *ng* *len.yọ* *le* *dei*

Gloss:Person whose sheep his lose that is

Meaning: ("That is the man whose sheep got lost")

114) Igala text: *Uchu* *ki* *I* *du* *te* *una* *bie*

Gloss:Yam which/that he/she take put fire done

Meaning: ("The yam which he put in the fire is done/ ready to eat")

115) Igala text: *Ene* *ki* *a* *che* *oga* *onale* *le* *kwu*

Gloss:Person who is do sickness yesterday that dead

Meaning: ("The person who was sick yesterday is dead").

116) Igala text: *Ene**ku* *me* *kai* *de*

Gloss:Person who you talk is

Meaning: ("This is the person who you talked about").

117) Igala text: *Ei* *ki* *ula* *de*

Gloss:Thisone which I buy is

Meaning: ("This is the one which I bought").

118) Igala text: *Alu* *ku* *ma* *ka* *de*

Gloss:Mouth that they talk is

119) Igala text: *Ọma* *ki* *wa* *lẹ* *che* *ma* *mi*

Gloss: Child who come do know me

Meaning: (“They child who came knows me”).

120) Igala text: *I che ene ku ka dei n*

Gloss:It do person that i say is i not

121) Igala text: *Omachoko che ma ki oya un a ro aro*

Gloss: Omachoko do know that wife his is quarrel quarrel

Meaning: (“Omachoko knows that his wife is quarrelsome”)

122) Igala text: *Ilamatu ma ki a wa unyi onale*

Gloss:Ramatu know that we come house yesterday

Meaning: (“Ramatu knew that we came home yesterday”).