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GRAMMATICAL AND GLOBAL FUNCTIONALITY OF THE INTERNAL STRUCTURES OF ENGLISH AND ANNANG CLAUSE PATTERNS: FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF A MINIMALIST-BASED SYNTAX

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ABSTRACT

This paper studies The Grammatical and Global Functionality of the Internal Structures of English and Annang Clause Patterns in a comparative approach. It describes the ways of combining and ordering grammatical constituents such as verbs and noun phrases to form a clause, taking cognizance of the syntactic variations that are inevitable in the patterning systems in the grammar of the two languages. To achieve this purpose, it applies the Universal Grammar Principles, which are used as basic elements in the Systemic Functional Grammar model as a theoretical framework, while the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is used in order to establish similarities and differences which may be operational within the two languages. The results indicate that more than 85% of clause types identifiable in the two languages under comparison are similar and so could facilitate learning of the target language (English) by an Anaang bilingual. In comparison, the remaining 15% could be regarded as a mild difference which cannot impede communication and learning of English by an Anaang bilingual in a second language situation. The conclusion was drawn that since the margin of the difference is minimal, an arrangement for a remedial programme would go a long way to bridging the gap between the two languages.

Keywords: Grammaticality, Internal Structures, English Clause Patterns, Annang Clause Patterns, Universal Grammar, Global Intelligibility.

Introduction

It is an established fact that the grammar of any natural language places many demands on linguists syntactically because it (syntax) remains the most challenging of the four linguistic levels: morphology, phonology, semantics, and syntax (Young,1980). Perhaps, this phenomenon accounted for the absence of grammar for a very long time in the English language after it was said to have detached itself from the prescriptive tendencies of Latin, from which its grammar was initially tailored. Today, English is a native of a small island called Ireland in England, one of the most spoken languages of the world by reason of its spread. The functional load that is upon the English language globally is a reflection of the position it occupies in the sociopolitical dispensations of the various countries where it is spoken either as a first, second, or foreign language, depending on the lingual posture of such countries.

Nigeria, for instance, is a multilingual nation; a brain-child of British colonial designs that brought many ethnic nationalities into one entity called Nigeria in spite of the ethnolinguistic,

religious, and cultural diversities. This singular act on the part of the colonial British made it difficult for the country to come up with a lingua franca from the various background languages.

As a result, since English is not one of the background languages in Nigeria, it has received an official mandate to function as the official language of the country. It is also a known fact that English does not share any socio-political, ethno-linguistic, cultural, and religious affinity with any of the 513 indigenous languages, including Anaang, our case language in this study, among others that are operational in Nigeria (Enang, E., and Utin, I., 2023. One outstanding reason which accounts for the operational status of English in the Nigerian environment is that none of the indigenous languages belongs to the same group of language families, and so, does not have one-to-one similarities (Eka, 2000), (Enang, E., and Utin, I. 2023).

Therefore, Nigerian English is a nativized product of the country's socio-cultural milieu. Among other functional loads that English carries are means of communication between speakers of different ethno-linguistic backgrounds, business transactions, keeping of administrative and official records of government, a medium of instruction in our educational activities, etc. Unlike native speakers environment' where children are often exposed to the language before they actually learn it and use it at school, children in Nigeria, irrespective of which nation-state they come from will not only be taught English in the class room, but will also 'pick it up' as an optional compulsory course, a pass of which makes such a student a celebrity (Eka, 2005) and Enang, E., and Utin, I. (2023)

Linguistically, no two languages are the same. For instance, Udofot (1996:6) cited in Enang, E., and Utin, I (2023) identify the examples of two languages – English and German which, according to the author, belong to the Germanic group of Indo – European languages and which posses the same known language universals; yet these two languages from the same language family and group still exhibit identifiable differences in the phonological, syntactic and morphological patterns. The analysis in this study is therefore on English and Anaang Clause syntax systems, which belong entirely to two different language families.

Theoretical Considerations

This study applies two theoretical Frameworks in its analysis of the clause syntax of the two languages. The frameworks are: the Universal Grammar (U.G.) and the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. The U.G. is a linguistic theory, proposed by Noam Chomsky, that argues that the ability to learn language is innate, distinct from all other aspects of human cognition (Chomsky 1957). This theory is used here as a fundamental element in the Systemic Functional Grammar model, which considers language as a tool for communication involving choices. And the choices available in any language are patterned in line with the systemic network of that language. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, on the other hand, is a proposition of Lado (1957) cited in Enang, E., and Utin, I (2023) that a source language learner of a target language is bound to effect transfers of the devices of his source language to the constructions of sentences in the target language. It is used here in order to establish similarities and differences which may be operational within the two languages, **Anaang and English,** under this study, since it is generally understood that no two languages are the same.

Characteristics of the Clause

Grammatically, the clause has some or all of the following characteristics, which can serve as identifiable features in a sentence pattern. A clause may stand on its own as a separate sentence. Kachuru (1982:11), cited in Enang, E., and Utin, I. (2023), stated that: "it may combine with another clause to form a larger sentence than that sentence with only one clause". Importantly, each clause in a sentence must have its own finite verb (a verb with a subject). This is so because the finite verb is a form of the verb that is restricted in time by tense, form, and agreement with person, number, and case.

The clause and the phrase may look alike, but only the clause must have a finite verb. The phrase, on the other hand, does not have a finite verb in its word combination. The phrase may have a non-finite verb in addition to other words or strictly hold on to a word combination that lacks any verb. Whenever a clause functions as a unit or portion of the sentence, it usually carries the main information or theme of the sentence (Udoka, 2018). When there are two clauses, it is possible to discriminate the main clause (independent or coordinate or main clause) from the subordinate (dependent) clause or clauses (Eka, 2000, Enang, and Urujzian, 2013a). By functional load, main clause conveys the major piece of information whereas the supporting information is contained in the other clause type. For instance,

(1a) Atobot likes her school which is near Calabar.
(1b) Atobot amma ufokngwed ammo adaha akpere Calabar.
(2a) It rains in Akpaden almost daily.
(2b) Anye aleb ke Akpaden nte kpede kwa usen
(3a) Lawyers drink frequently between cases even when this goes against the ethics of the law.

(3b) Mme njad igwad enwong mkpo afri ini ikpisokide nte mbet ntutom ammo alimaha.

In example (1), the main clause is **"Atobot likes her school"** Atobot amma ufokngwed ammo, while the subordinate clause is **"which is near Calabar"** adaha akpere Calabar. The main source of identification is that the primary information is carried by the clause: **"Atobot likes her school"** Atobot amma ufokngwed ammo. The second example has only one clause: **"It rains in Akpaden almost daily"** Anye aleb ke Akpaden nte kpede kwa usen, so, it is not necessary to talk about main and subordinate clauses. There is just one clause there in the sentence. The third instance has two clauses: **"Lawyers drink frequently between cases**" Mme njad igwad enwong mkpo afri ini: is the main clause, while **"even when this goes against the ethics of the law"** ikpisokide nte mbet ntutom ammo alimaha: is subordinate clause, (Enang, E., and Utin, I., 2023).

The Position of the Clause in a Sentence

One is right to ask about the position the clause should occupy in a sentence. It is also right for one to say that the clause must have a finite verb. In the words of Enang et al (2013a), when a portion of the sentence has no finite verb, that unit is most probably a phrase. The position of the clause is not fixed; the clause could occur at initial, medial or final position. What is important is that the clause must contain at least one finite verb.

Therefore, the position of the finite verb can be used to trace the portion of the sentence that contains the clause. Once the finite verb is traced out correctly, the subject of that clause can also be identified.

Types of Clause

Noun Clauses in English and Anaang Languages

According to Enang, E., Urujzian, V. and Udoka, S. (2013),

> A careful syntactic analysis of the characteristics of the Noun Clause reveals that a noun clause occupies a position similar to that of the noun and can possibly be replaced by one or two words from the clausal unit. Also, there is usually a finite verb linked with the noun or pronoun in the clause, which stands as the subject. The noun clause occupies either the initial or the final position in a large sentence. It has both external and internal agreement.

This is made possible because the verb within the clause agrees with the subject while the noun clause also agrees with the verb in the larger sentence (Sinclair, 1996, Huddlestone, 1996 and Enang, (2013). Nouns may act in different ways in a sentence, but they are always naming and are normally introduced into sentences by such linking words which always occur before the noun clause. These are: ***that, if, whether, when, why, who, how, whoever, what, whatever, which, where, why, wherever and whichever***, etc. Noun clauses may act as follows:

- subject of the verb in the main clause
- direct object of the verb in the main clause
- the object of a preposition
- the indirect object of the verb in the main clause
- the subject complement after a linking verb such as: ***be, seem, appear***, etc
- in apposition, where two nouns are placed side by side with one functioning to give additional information about the other (Solarin, 1982:58), (Enang, E., and Utin, I., 2023) and Enang, et al (2013).

1 (A) Noun Clause as Subject of the Sentence in English and Anaang

(21a) ***That Iboro has failed her examination is*** unbelievable.
(21b) ***Daad, ke Iboro ikiboiyoke udomo ammo*** achong agwo inim.
(22a) ***What we heard about her yesterday made*** us lose confidence in her.
(22b) ***Se ajid ikikop ibanga anye mkpong*** anam ajid inana mbotidem k idem ammo

The underlined expressions in examples 21-22 above are noun clauses and they function as the subjects of the verbs 'is' and 'made' respectively in the two sentences.

1(B) Noun Clauses as Direct Object of the Sentence in English and Anaang

(23a) My father's speech s*hows* **that unity plays a big role in communal growth**.
(23b) Iko ete ami *agwod* **daad iboho ntie anam ekamba utom abanga ilung itoot**.
(24a) We shall ***find*** the money ***wherever Dorothy hid it***.
(24b) Ajid ila ***ikud*** akpoho ade ***ke nte anye kpe di-dip anye.***

The underlined groups of words: **that unity plays a big role in communal growth** in (23a) meaning **daad iboho ntie anam ekamba utom abanga ilung itoot** in (23b) are the noun clauses which function as the direct objects of the verbs: "shows" agwod, in 23a and 23b respectively, while ***wherever Dorothy hid it*** in (24a) meaning ***ke nte anye kpe di-dip anye*** in (24b) are the

noun clauses which function as the direct objects of the verbs: "***find***" meaning ***ikud*** respectively.

1 (C) Noun Clause Governed by a Preposition in English and Anaang: A noun clause may be governed by a preposition and as such remains the object of the preposition, as in:

(25a) Utobong surprised us all **by** what he said that night.
(25b) Utobong ama anam idem ikpa jire **kene** uto iko se anye aketang akon ejo ade
(26a) We took the money **from** whoever offers it.
(26b) Ajid ikibo akpoho ade ***ito*** agwo adehede sikima ino

Again, the underlined groups of words from the two examples above: what he said that night (kuto iko se anye aketang akon ejo ade) is the noun clause which functions as the direct object of the sentence governed by the preposition, meaning kene, whereas whoever offers it. (agwo adehede sikima ino) also performs the function of an object of the sentence governed by the preposition, **from** meaning ***ito***.

1 (D) Noun Clause as Indirect Object of the Sentence in English and Anaang

(27a) Dr. Paul was ready to give money to whoever approached him.
(27b) Dr. Paul amabenghe idem ino agwo adehede se ibo anye ino akpoho.
(28a) Barr. Mike paid the money for whatever reason was clean before him.
(28b) Barr. Mike ama kpe akpoho ade anno mkpo adehede sikisana ke anyen ammo.

In example 27, agwo adehede se ibo anye ino akpoho, meaning "whoever approached him" is the indirect object of the verb, ***ino, give*** in the sentence. Again, I example 28, the underlined expression, whatever reason was clean before him, meaning mkpo adehede sikisana ke anyen ammo is the indirect object of the verb ***paid***, ***ama kpe*** in the sentence.

1 (E) Noun Clause as Subject Complement in English Anaang languages

A noun clause can act to complete information about the subject of a sentence. The following sentences are good examples of a noun clause as a complement of the subject.

(29a) The problem now is what answer to give to our boss.
(29b) Mfana siba idahaam ade nse ajid iwiloko ete ufokajid
(30a) Becoming a teacher was why he left for school at that age
(30b) Anye ikaba ide andikpep akede ntak anye ake dakake ufokngwed ke isua emana ade.

A look at example 29 shows that ***what answer to give to our boss***, meaning ***Se ajid iwiloko ete ufokajid*** is the complement of the subject of the sentence which is "***The problem now***" ***Mfana siba idahaam***. Also, in example 30, ***why he left for school at that age*** meaning ***ake dakake ufokngwed ke isua emana ade*** is the complement of the expression, ***Becoming a teacher"***, ***Anye ikaba ide andikpep*** which functions as the subject of the sentence.

1 (F) Noun Clause in Apposition in English and Anaang languages

At times, it is possible for the placement of two nouns side by side (Juxtaposition) thereby allowing one of the nouns to give more information about the other as shown below:

(31a) Udoma ***the town crier*** left the village for Lagos yesterday.
(31b) Udoma ***amia mkpo isong*** ama daka Lagos mkpong.
(32a) Students ***who have passed the exams*** will be given admission to study.
(32b) Ela enongho nto ufok ngwed ***sikiboiyo ulomo ade*** itie uka ngwed.

In each of the two sentences of 31 and 32, ***Udoma*** and ***Students*** are the first nouns that do not bear any information except as ordinary names. But the second set of nouns, ***the town crier***

and ***who have passed the exams*** are said to be in apposition because they supply additional information about the first set of nouns respectively. Finally, a close look at the word order in the two languages shows that there is a variation which does not affect intelligibility, semantic import and communication.

Adverbial Clauses of English and Anaang Languages

It should be remembered that the primary function of an adverb in a sentence is to ***modify*** a verb, an adjective, and another adverb (itself). For instance, ***Okon's speech is*** grammatically correct. But it is possible to have more information about how, when, why, where, the reason, the condition, etc, under which Okon speaks. Okon speaks ***fast.*** The word **fast** is an adverb that provides information about how ***Okon speaks.*** Anza and Emenanjo (1990) state that "In the same vein, a group of words with a complete part of the verb (a verb with a subject) which functions as an adverbial clause can perfectly perform the function of modification of a verb, adjective, and itself". These are classified under the various kinds of adverbial clauses, which are identifiable in English and Anaang languages (Enang, 2022). Therefore, the adverbial clauses function in the following kinds:

2 (A) Adverbial clause of Time, telling us ***when*** an action takes place. This clause makes use of the following linkers which signal to readers that the next group of words ahead is adverbial clause of ***time***: when, whenever, while, as, before, after, etc as in:

(33a) The crowd dispersed ***when the police shut their tear gas at them.***

(33b) Atu ade ema esuana ***sa abolisi eke top ammo ujat ntuen ke afum.***

2 (B) Adverbial clause of place, telling us ***where*** a action takes place. It uses the following keywords: where, wherever, outside, inside, below, beneath, in, etc to introduce this clause of place as in:

(34a) The cultist fought ***wherever they met each other***

(34b) Mbon nka ekum ade ese enwana ***ke itie ammo ekudeke idem ammo***

2 (C) Adverbial clause of manner, telling us ***how*** an action takes place. The clause makes use of the following key words as its complementizers: like, as, as if, as though, etc.

(35a) Unwana acted ***as though she is she a lawyer***

(35b) Unwana anam mkpo ***nte anye ade njara igwad***

2 (D) Adverbial clause of condition, telling us **under what condition** an action takes place. The major key words are: if, unless, in case, should, etc.

(36a) I will work for you ***if you will pay me money***

(36b) Ami ndaanam utom uno fien ***kpede ke alamkpe nyien akpoho***

2 (E) Adverbial clause of purpose/reason, telling us ***why*** an action takes place. This clause makes use of the following subordinate conjunctions to introduce itself in a sentence: because, so that, that, in order that, so as, etc as in:

(37a) Udeme refused to fight ***because he had no strength***.

(37b) Udeme ikimaha inwana ***sade eke anye ikinyeneke urud***

2 (F) Adverbial clause of degree, telling us ***to what extent*** an action takes place. This clause makes use of the following subordinate conjunctions to signal its presence in a sentence: so that, than, such that, than, etc.

(38a) Uwem was ***so angry that we could not pacify him at all***.

(38b) Uwem ama ***neke ijad echid tutu ajid ikarake imuum anye ibon***

2 (G) Adverbial clause of result, telling us **what really happened** as a result of an action. The following key words are often used with this clause: that, such, so, as a result of, consequently, etc as in the following examples.

(39a) The boy ran so fast ***that he collapsed on the finishing point***

(39b) Akparawa ade ama neke ifehe ***tutu anye ali ruo asoko ke akpatru itie***

2 (H) Adverbial clause of concession, telling us **that the main statement is the truth in spite of opposing circumstances.** The key words for this clause are: although, even though, in spite of, despite the fact that, whereas, even if, etc., as can be seen in the examples below:

(40a) The soldiers put in their best ***although the robbers killed all of them***

(40b) Mbonekong ema enwana ukeme ammo ***ikpisokide ino ekegwodo uked ammo***

(41a) Uduak looks troublesome ***whereas his brother Joseph seems rather quiet***

(41b) Uduak atie ne agwo ntime ke ***ini Joseph ejaka amo adehe agwo idoop***.

It must be pointed out here that Clauses of Concession are dependent adverbial clauses which have a tendency to occur at either initial or final positions in a sentence.

3. Adjectival Clauses of English and Anaang Languages

Grammarians have come to the consensus that if one desires to give more information about a person or thing (noun or pronoun), it is possible to do so without stress by making a descriptive word or words before such a noun or pronoun. According to Solarin (1982:63), cited in Enang, E., Urujzian, V. and Udoka, S. (2013), "Adjectival clauses are usually introduced by the relative pronouns who, whose, whom, which, or that. An adjectival clause qualifies a noun or pronoun. There are two kinds of adjectival clauses (i) restrictive (ii) non-restrictive."

The following sentences are for examples:

(42a) The PDP members ***who supported Godswill Akpabio*** will be given new jobs.

(42b) Mbon abolobolo PDP ***siki da ked ne Godswill Akpabio*** ela enyenghe afa itie utom.

The emboldened/ italicized expressions in example 42 above are an adjectival clause telling us that NOT all the PDP members will be given new jobs; the jobs will be restricted or limited ONLY to those members of PDP who supported Godswill Akpabio. As can be seen, we do not use any commas to divide the restrictive clause off from the rest of the sentence, as it is a necessary part of the sentence. The sentence will be untrue without it (Solarin, 1982:63), (Enang, E., Urujzian, V. and Udoka, S. 2013)

The following sentences are examples:

(43a) The teachers, ***whom we met in the court yesterday***, were promoted to the next ranks.

(43b) Mme tisa, ***ajid ikikute ke esop mkpong***, ke ekenam ne ammo ekpoon agwo.

There is a particular set of teachers who were promoted to the next rank, not all the teachers. Only ***'the teachers whom we met at the court yesterday'*** is the additional information. The

function of this additional fact is to qualify the head word or subject **'whom we met at the court yesterday',** non-restrictive.

Conclusion

This paper studied the grammatical and global functionality of the internal structures of English and Annang clause patterns in a comparative approach**:** from the viewpoint of a minimalist-based-syntax**,** that is, the ways of combining and ordering constituents such as verbs and nouns phrases to form a clause**.** It applied the Universal Grammar Principles which are used as basic elements in the Systemic Functional Grammar model as theoretical framework while Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is used in order to establish similarities and differences which may be operational within the two languages (Greenberg, 1963, Anza (Enang, E., Urujzian, V. and Udoka, S. 2013) and Emenanjo 1990).

The findings indicate generally that more than 85% of clause types identifiable in the two languages under comparison are similar and so could facilitate learning of the target language (English) by an Anaang bilingual while the remaining 15% could be regarded as a mild difference which cannot impede communication and learning of English by an Anaang bilingual in a second language situation.

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