A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF HAUSA AND IGALA WORD ORDER TYPOLOGY

Binta Garba,
Dorcas Chide Abdulsalam
 &
Aisha Tukur Abubakar

Abstract

This work is a contrastive Analysis on Word Order Typology of Hausa and Igala. The aim of this work is to carry out a contrastive Analysis of word Order typology of Hausa and Igala languages. These selected languages are from different linguistic backgrounds and typologically have areas of differences in their sentence structures. These differences are in the internal composition of the sentence constituents. The research collects data from various sources principally of secondary sources such as textbooks, journals and articles. The study adopts Lado (1957) Contrastive Analysis and Structural Grammar (Immediate Constituent Analysis) to analyse the differences and similarities between the Hausa and Igala sentence structures. The findings reveal that Hausa and Igala languages are similar in their SVO Word order, but there are differences where the noun phrases occupying subject and object positions in Hausa take determiners post nominally and other elements like (demonstratives, adjectives, etc.) pre-nominally. But in Igala, early all cases take them post-nominally. Some of the noun phrases (object-pronoun) do not change in Igala. Also, the verb phase in Igala has SVC (Serial Verbal Construction) without an obstruction of conjunctions. In Hausa verb phrase (future form), the auxiliary is separated thus, occupying the initial part of a sentence. Lastly, sentences with dual objects, the indirect precedes the direct object in Hausa, while in Igala, it is the reverse.

Keywords: Contrastive Analysis, Hausa, Igala Word Order, Typology

Introduction

One of the primary ways in which languages differ from one another is in the order of constituents; or, as it is most commonly termed, their word order. When people refer to the word order of a language, they often are referring specifically to the order of subject, object, and verb in relation to each other, but word order refers more generally to the order of any set of elements, either at the clause level, or within phrases, such as the order of elements within a noun phrase. When examining the word order of a language, there are two kinds of questions one can ask. The first question is simply that of what the order of elements is in the language. The second question is that of how the word order in the language conforms to cross linguistic universals and tendencies.

This work is basically on sentence as a constructional unit at a higher level or equivalently a simultaneous bundle of 'positions in grammar'. However, Ndimele (2007, p. 5) sees grammar as "a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language". Palmer (1971, p. 13) defines grammar "as the mechanism that describes what people do when they speak their language". Language is 'a system of vocal auditory communication using conventional signs composed of arbitrary patterned sound units and assembled according to a set of rules, interacting with the experience of its users' (Bolinger, 1968, p.12). Sapir defines language "as a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced sounds" (1921, p.8). Both definitions refer to the arbitrary nature of the symbols representing sounds in language. Language is also a system by which sounds, signs and gestures are used to communicate meaning. For humans, a system

of speech sounds or signs which constitute linguistic knowledge of both speaker and addressee convey and receive information. Language has structures that are rule-governed and systematic in nature. Following this assertion, Tremholm (1995, p. 82) looks at language as "a rule-governed system of symbols that allow the users to generate meaning and in the process, to define reality".

"The term syntax as used in its broadest sense refers to both the arrangement and the forms of word. It is the part of language which links together the sound patterns and the meaning" (Aitchison, 1992, p. 8). "Syntax is the branch of linguistics that is concerned with how words are arranged to build up longer expressions" (Ndimele, 1999, p. 77). "Syntax is the aspect of grammar of a language which deals with how words are put together to form sentences and how such sentences are interpreted in natural languages" (Yusuf, 1997, p. 1).

Based on the definitions given, it is obvious that syntax uses words as the building blocks to produce phrases, clauses and sentences. The words themselves, when used in isolation will not make much meaning. Also when the words are combined in a haphazard manner, they will not make any sense. These points to the fact that a native speaker of a language will recognize when not properly arranged words in a sentence in line with the rules of sentence formation.

Every writing is based on sentences. In other forms of communication, it is often acceptable to speak in any form that gets the meaning across; however, in writing, one's sentences have to be correct. This shows the importance of sentences in writing. There are many definitions of a sentence but for the want of space and scope of this research work, a few of the definitions that express the meaning quite clearly are hereby considered. The term sentence is widely used to refer to quite different types of unit. Grammatically, it is the highest unit and consists of one independent clause or two or more related clauses. Orthographically and rhetorically, it is that unit which starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation

mark (Downing and Locke, 2006, p. 272). Scholars accept this view for its coverage of the syntactic requirements and grammar in general.

Word Order Typology

Word order typology studies the order in which words- more specifically, the arts of sentence-- subject, verb, and object--appear in sentences. The interest of this work is to analyse the similarities as well as the obvious differences of the order of words in languages. Typology is useful in these ways:

1. provides valuable grammar information on the language(s) we're studying;
2. helps to classify languages that don't fit neatly into traditional classifications;
3. provides historical data that can be used to make cross-linguistic generalizations and to reconstruct proto "mother" languages.

At the broadest level, syntactic typology is concerned with the order of what are sometimes called the major sentence constituents. These are the subject, the object, and the verb. For convenience, we usually abbreviate these S, O, and V. And the basic question in syntactic typology at this level is: Does a given language prefer a specific order of these constituents, and if so which is it? There are logically six possibilities, as shown below:

SOV SVO VSO
VOS OVS OSV

Simply speaking, the study of universals is concerned with what human languages have in common, while the study of typology deals with ways in which languages differ from each other. This contrast, however, is not sharp. When languages differ from each other, the variation is not random, but subject to limitations. Linguistic typology is not only concerned with variation, but also with the limitations on the degree of variation found in the languages of the world. It is due to

these limitations that languages may be meaningfully divided into various types.

For instance, typologists often divide languages into types according to so called basic word order often understood as the order of subject (S), object (O) and verb (V) in a typical declarative sentence with a transitive verb. The vast majority of the languages of the world fall into one of three groups:

SOV (Japanese, Tamil, Turkish etc.)

SVO (Fula, Chinese, English etc.)

VSO (Arabic, Tongan, Welsh etc.)

Logically speaking, there should be nothing wrong with the three other possibilities: VOS, OVS and OSV. As mentioned above, however, they are exceedingly rare and typically occur in areas that have been relatively isolated. The three main groups have one thing in common, that the subject precedes the object. Word order can be viewed from two points of view: *syntactic* (where the word order is conditioned only by the syntactic and semantic relationships within the sentence) and *contextual* (the sentence being a part of a larger context and thus the word order in it being conditioned by the context of the utterance). The former we could call the grammatical word order, the latter the contextual or pragmatic word order. Some authors make the distinction between "context-not included" and "context-included" word order or components, or divide word order into "the basic semantic-grammatical" or "abstract word order" and "actualized word order" (Silić, 1984, p.9).

All human languages consist of sentences, but they vary in the sentence structure, as it shows the physical nature of the sentence and explains the elements from which the sentence is made up. The word order has to do with the arrangement of the grammatical structure of language, for human languages differ in the order of words, that is to say, the way sentences are structured of the language fundamental

components. This is a feature which distinguishes a language from another as seen by linguists. One of the divisions of these scholars of languages is based on the way sentences are structured in the discourse of a particular human group.

Any sentence, consists basically of a verb, a subject, and an object, with other additions. There are six patterns that represent the word order in a language. They are; (SVO) subject, verb, object, (SOV) subject, object, verb, (VSO) verb, subject, object, (VOS) verb, object, subject, (OSV) object, subject, verb, and (OVS) object, verb, and subject. The overwhelming majority of the world's languages follow either SVO or SOV patterns. Some languages have a fixed word order, and others have a free unfixed word order. Givón is basically correct and that the reason there is a large number of languages with SOV word order is not because SOV word order is "universally preferred" but because in many languages it is unchanged from the original order. Tomlin 1980, p. 22 proposes the table below

Fig. 1. Frequency Distribution of Word Order in Languages Surveyed

Word order	English equivalent	Proportion of languages	Example languages
SOV	"She him loves."	45%	Pashto, Latin, Japanese, Afrikaans, Hindi, etc.
SVO	"She loves him."	42%	English, Hausa, Mandarin, Russian, Swahili, etc.
VSO	"Loves she him."	9%	Biblical Hebrew, Irish, Arabic, Filipino, Tuareg, etc.
VOS	"Loves him she."	3%	Malagasy, Baure
OVS	"Him loves she."	1%	Apalaí? Hixkaryana?
OSV	"Him she loves."	0%	Warao

Languages have been classified into categories according to the word order structure that can be found in human languages.

Hausa

Newman posits that,

> Hausa is spoken by more than 35 million people mainly in northern Nigeria and southern Niger, and as a lingua franca through wide parts of the Sahel region. Being a Chadic language, Hausa belongs to the Afro-asiatic phylum, making it a distant cousin of the Semitic languages like Hebrew and Arabic, and raising the interesting question to what extent both language groups show typical Afro-Asiatic traits in their respective quantificational systems.
>
> It employs tone to mark grammatical forms and the verbal system is remarkable for having preverbal complexes, inflected for person and tense aspect, preceding invariable stems. Hausa sentences have the typically Chadic subject-object-verb word order. It has a quite strict word order (2000, p. 1).

Furthermore, Bamgbose used population and spread alongside other sociolinguistic factors to indicates that, Hausa language is one of the three languages that are spoken by about 70% of the Nigerian population, either as first or second language, (Hausa, Yoruba, and Igbo language) (2001, p. 2). In his view, Ejele (2003) posits that "Hausa language has been considered as Nigeria's major language with high sociolinguistic functions serving as lingua franca in the majority of the regions". As Furniss (1996, p.2) observes: "the Hausa language is spoken by more than 50 million people in Nigeria, Niger, northern Ghana and in communities from Kaolack in Senegal to Khartoum in Sudan". Furthermore, Green (1963, p. 25 cited in Bello 1985) and Zima (1968, pp. 365 – 377) are of the opinion that Hausa enjoys wide-

spread usage, as a minority language and/or lingua franca, in most West African countries and within certain settler clusters in parts of North and Central Africa. Galadanci (1976, p. 1) & Skinner (2007, p. 64) argued that Hausa sentence consists two elements: subject segment and verbal segment. In other words, Hausa sentence consists of noun phrase and verbal phrase.

Igala

According to Salem, "Igala language is member of the West-Benue Congo language family classified under Yoruboid subgroup of Defoid languages (south- west Nigeria) and Itsẹkiri (south-south Nigeria). The language has an approximate population of 2, 000, 000 native speakers in Kogi State, Nigeria". Omachonu (2011) asserts that "the language is equally spoken in some communities outside Kogi State: Ebu in Delta State, Olohi and Ifekwu in Edo State, Ogwurugwu, Ojo, Iga and Asaba in Enugu State, Odokpe, Njam, Inoma, Ala, Igbedo, Onugwu, Ode, Igbo-Kenyi and Ila in Anambra State".

Igálà is a three-tone—high, low, and mid—discrete level tone language which employs fixed SVO basic word order.
In Igala, the basic sequence of sentence constituents is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). Like many Niger-Congo languages, Igala is a Serial Verb Construction (SVC) language, attesting to Concomitant and Coordinate structural types as well as six functional distinctions. The language makes a future/non-future tense distinction analytically. In Igala, there are only two major parts of speech - Nouns and verbs, the others are seen as derivatives of these two main types.

Syntactic Criterion

A sentence is the largest grammatical unit and it consists of a group of words related to each other and is used to express a complete thought. Grammatically, a sentence is complete only when it has a subject and a predicate. The subject of a sentence is an NP (a noun, a

pronoun or any other nominal expression) about which something is being said. The predicate (VP) on the other hand, is the part of the sentence that gives information about the subject.

Noun Phrase (NP)

Normally, the obligatory element within the NP is the noun. The NP can function as the subject of a sentence, the direct or indirect object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

Pronouns are words, which serve as substitutes to nouns (Noun Phrases). Pronouns normally refer to persons and things and they are divided into different sub-groups such as *personal pronouns.* Examples of personal pronouns, which can function as subject and object of sentences in Hausa and Igala, are shown in the table below;

Fig. 2: Personal Pronouns in Hausa (H) and Igala (I)

Number	Person	Subject		Object	Meaning	
		M/F			Subject	Object
singular	1st person	H	Na	Ni	I	Me
		I	Ńa	Ómí		
	2nd person	H	Kai/Ke	Ka/Ki	You	You
		I	Úwé	We		
	3rd person	H	Ya/Ta	Shi/Ta	He/she/it	Him/her/it
		I	Í	Ún		
	1st person	H	Mun	Mu	We	Us
		I	Áwá	Áwá		
Plural	2nd person	H	Kun	Ku	You	You
		I	Mé	Mé		
	3rd person	H	Sun	Su	They	Them
		I	Má	Má		

Note that, the plural form of Igala pronouns (subject and object) do not differ.

Verb Phrase (VP)

Verbs are seen as the most important part of the predicate slot of a sentence (the predicate is the part of the sentence that says something about the subject of a sentence). Verbs express actions or states. Examples of verbs in Hausa and Igala which are the case study of this paper, include:

Hausa: karanta 'read' ci 'eat', rawa 'dance', etc.

Igala: je 'eat', la 'buy', bo 'cover', etc.

One aspect of syntactic classification of verbs is the division into lexical main verbs and auxiliary/helping verbs. Auxiliary verbs cannot occur alone in a sentence unless they are followed by lexical/main verbs. The lexical verbs have independent dictionary meaning unlike the auxiliary ones, which are used to express how the lexical verb is perceived.

The obligatory element in the verb phrase is a verb and the verb phrase traditionally functioning as the predicate in a sentence. Recall that the predicate is the part of the sentence that says something about the subject. Structurally, the VP can have the following patterns:

Fig. 3. The verb phrase structure in Hausa and Igala is clearly shown below;

Rules	Hausa (H); VP=	Igala (I); VP=		Examples	Meaning
R1	V	V	H	Ci	Eat
			I	Jẹ	,,
R2	V+PP	V+PP	H	na wanka a ban-daki	is bathing in the bathroom
			I	ya gwuola efi únyiuǵwolạ le	,,

R3	V+NP	V+NP	H	kashe macijin	killed the snake
			I	Ḱpeí ẹjo lẹ	„

Verb slot of Hausa and Igala sentence structures

Both languages have verbal slot in structure of their sentences. This slot is occupied by the verbal phrase. The verb phrase is ''one of the principal syntactic categories which appear to be universally present in all languages'' (Ndimele, 1999, p. 122). A verb phrase is a group of grammatically related words where verb serves as the head structurally. VP is the largest expansion or the maximal projection of the verb. E.g.: The above sentences are verb phrases in the verbal slot of Hausa and Igala.

Empirical studies

Gilbert (2021) studies a contrastive Analysis of the phrase structure of some Nigerian Languages The study makes use of the contrastive analysis theory to investigate the sameness of their verb head and complements in contrast with the English Language. The study adopts the descriptive research design to collate data from relevant sources. The findings show that although numerous typological classifications such as SVO design, OSV design, OVS design SOV design VOS design, VSO design and subject- only restriction design exist in part of the world, This study has identified the Verb-Adjective-Object (VAO), Verb Object Determiner (VOD), and the Verb – Determiner-Object (VDO) in the internal structures of Nigerian indigenous languages; thereby introducing SVAO, SVOD and SVDO. Olorunmade (2019) writes on an X-Bar analysis of English and Okun Noun phrase structures. The study carryout a contrastive study of English and Okun noun phrase structures. The version of X-Bar model developed by Chomsky model of analysis is used as the theoretical

framework. The paper discovered that there are structural similarities in the noun phrase structure as well as differences in the phrase structure of the languages contrasted.

Yusha'u etal (2021) Investigates on a contrastive analysis of English and Hausa Sentence Structures and its Pedagogical implications. The studies analyses the differences between the syntactic sentence of English and Hausa languages using the structuralist model of sentence structure, that is Subject, Verb Complement Adjunct (SVCA) and Immediate Constituent Analysis(ICA) techniques. The findings reveal that both similarities and differences exist in the two languages, especially in the area of contrast such as noun phrase (NPs), verb phrase (VPs), dative structures and Object, Verb, Subject (OVS) structures, and also in the subject, verb, object and adjunct (SVOA).Thus, the differences can make learning of (L2) difficult for Hausa native speakers.

Theoretical Framework

The theories of Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Structural Grammar (particularly the Immediate Constituent Analysis) are applied here as tools for analytical purposes. This work employs contrastive analysis theory because it is all about the sentence structures of two languages: Hausa and Igala.

The theory is employed on the account that no two languages on earth are completely the same with the other. Uzozie agrees with this view that "every human language has its own peculiarities in word-formation, syntax, phonology, semantics and pragmatics" (1992, p.79).

Contrastive Analysis theory was first formulated by Fries in 1940s and brought into academic discourse by Lado in his *Linguistics across Cultures*, (1957), (Gast 2). According to
Lado quoted in Gast, 'Contrastive analysis is a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel

description of the native language of the learner' (n.d, p.2). The observation of Lado truly highlighted the linguistic variants and discrepancies as well as similarities that are inherent in human languages across the globe.

Johnson opines that contrastive analysis is "contrasting of series of statement about singularities and differences between two languages" (qtd. in Onuigbo and Eyisi, 2009, p. 76). Modern contrastive analysis is concerned primarily with the synchronic study of two languages.

This is why it is interesting and relevant to this study because it is a synchronic study; this research work studies Hausa and Igala sentence constituents. Thus, Ojetunde defines contrastive analysis as the comparison of any two languages so as to show their similarities and differences (p.255). It is accepted as a reliable model of analysis of second language learners' problems.

Structuralism originated in the early 1920's in the Structural Linguistics of Ferdinand de Saussure and the subsequent Prague, Moscow and Copenhagen school of linguistics. In Europe, structuralism began in the 1920s with the post-humours publication of Ferdinand de Saussure's *Cours des Linguistique Generale* (1915-1916) by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye while in America, Bloomfield led their structuralism. Bloor and Bloor "the contribution of Leonard Bloomfield to structuralism is the most distinctive manifestation of American structuralism" (2004, p.239). The structural grammarian of this theory considered the general characteristics or features of a language to be word order. This means that every language has its word order to suit its syntactic convention. Therefore, to understand the structure of any language, the study of the syntactic properties of language becomes necessary. This is realized in the classification of words, the order of words in phrases and sentences, the structure of phrases in sentences and the different sentences structures that languages use.

The idea of "**Immediate Constituent**" was introduced by Bloomfield in his book; *Language* (1933) quoted and interpreted by Ndimele in Agbedo (98). Linguistic structuralists formed a grammar known as structural grammar. This is a grammar intended to explain the working of language in terms of the functions of its components and their relationships to each other. It is an approach to the written and spoken language that focuses on the mechanics and construction of sentences. The structural grammarians have made the study of language more scientific, systematic and organized.

Structuralists also identifies two entities that exist in every language: "la langue" and "la parole". According to Crystal, De Saussure posits that "la langue' is that faculty of human speech present in all human beings due to heredity, but which requires the correct environmental stimuli for proper development"(1971, p. 351). "La parole" is the concrete utterance produced by individual speakers. De Saussure sees language as a system of signs with two sides. He describes a sign as the relationship between a concept, "the signifier" and what it stands for "the signified". Akwanya affirms with de Saussure that, 'language exists as a system because the signs are inter-related among themselves, and is by virtue of this relationship that signs have meaning" (2010, p.26).

For de Saussure, the relationship believed in common usage to exist between the name and the object is entirely arbitrary. The concept of arbitrariness is fundamental in Sausserian linguistics.

Confirming the above assertion, there is a bond between 'the signifier' and 'the signified' is absolutely arbitrary as shown by the existence of more than one language in the world. If for instance, the word "house" in English signifies a concept as "ulo" in Igbo, 'ile' in Yoruba, 'gida' in Hausa and 'unyi' in Igala, then, it goes to suggest that the sign relation is arbitrary in principle. Akwanya states "once a particular concept has been established within a community, speakers

of that community abide by it so as to understand one another" (2010, p.25).

Another contribution of the Swiss linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure to Structural Grammar is in terms of syntagmatic and paradigmatic approaches to language study (Malmkjaer and Anderson, 1991, p. 589). He sees a sentence as a sequence of signs and each sign contributing something to the meaning of the whole.

At the syntagmatic level, words are linked together according to the grammatical rules. According to Tomori (1977, p.23) in the formation of utterances a number of linguistic units are joined in a structural bond according to the rules of utterances formation in that language e.g. He + can + sit + down.

Such units are said to be in syntagmatic relationship. It exists at phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. Paradigmatic relation or approach according to Tomori "... is a system of morphemic variations or series of changes in the shape of linguistic forms which matches a series of changes in position" (1977, p.21). These morphemic changes go hand-in-hand with series of changes in grammatical position. Syntactically, structures like: "He sit can down", "He down can sit", "Down he can sit", have no syntagmatic relationship between each other, so what is formed is not an English expression. The choice of which words to use is at the paradigmatic level.

Structural grammarians see language as an organized structure in which the various elements are interdependent and derive their significance from the system as a whole. It is worthy of note to state that, the structuralists emphasize that every language should be analysed on its own terms since languages vary greatly in terms of phonetic varieties of sounds that are united under one phoneme and the groups of ideas that are expressed in words. Structuralists analyse grammatical elements in terms of structure rather than meaning.

Though the theory has several drawbacks as stated by Chomsky in *Syntactic Structures,* the theory is useful to this study because it focuses on the mechanics and construction of signs in any given language which Hausa and Igala are included. Its analysis of subject plus predicate relationship makes it suitable for the study as it is concerned with sentence structure. Structural Grammar is also referred to "as descriptive grammar because it describes rather than prescribes the rules of individual languages without reference to any language as a standard language or dialect" (Ndimele, 1999, p. 84)

Methodology

The researcher collected data from various sources principally of secondary sources such as textbooks, journals and articles on Hausa and Igala languages. The researchers being native speakers of Hausa and Igala languages and users of English as a second language made a great deal of their personal observations and analysis of the Hausa and Igala word order (syntactic arrangement). The research is based on contrastive analysis using structural grammar (IC Analysis) to examine and clarify areas of differences and similarities in the word order typology of Hausa and Igala Languages.

Data presentation and Analysis

In the presentation, the research work places Hausa and Igala sentence structures together so as to deal with each item of the difference Pari-passu and in the order of the simple sentence. The concern here is to contrastively present and analyse the internal composition or constituents of structure of sentences in both languages. Words in a sentence fall into two major patterns – subject and predicate.

Furthermore, each of the identified groups can be subdivided until each word will stand alone. The term subject and predicate name

the function of these two slots but the sentences here are to be described according to the form of the structure that fill them, that is, a noun phrase (NP) for the subject and the object while verb phrase (VP) as the occupant of the verbal slots with their optional or possible complements respectively.

Fig. 4. The noun phrase structure in Hausa and Igala is clearly shown below.

In Hausa, NP heads consist of modifiers (adjectives) pre-nominally. For instance; R-3, 5, 6, and 9. The heads are post-nominally modified in the case of determiners like; R-1, 3.

The NP in Igala consists of lexical heads, such as nouns: únyí 'house', ótakadạ 'book' and so on. The NP heads may have optional modifying elements in complement position. Likely modifying elements are demonstratives, adjectives, numerals, quantifiers, possessives and qualificative/ attributive nouns in associative constructions with the head noun. NP construction generally, the head noun usually comes before demonstratives, adjectives, numerals, quantifiers, possessive elements and nouns, in associative constructions, which modify the noun head in phrasal expressions. The NPs are head-initial, confirming Greenberg's observation and typology. Many Igala pronouns serve as the modifiers in NP as shown. Consider the position of modifiers below: Ábia mị 'my dog'
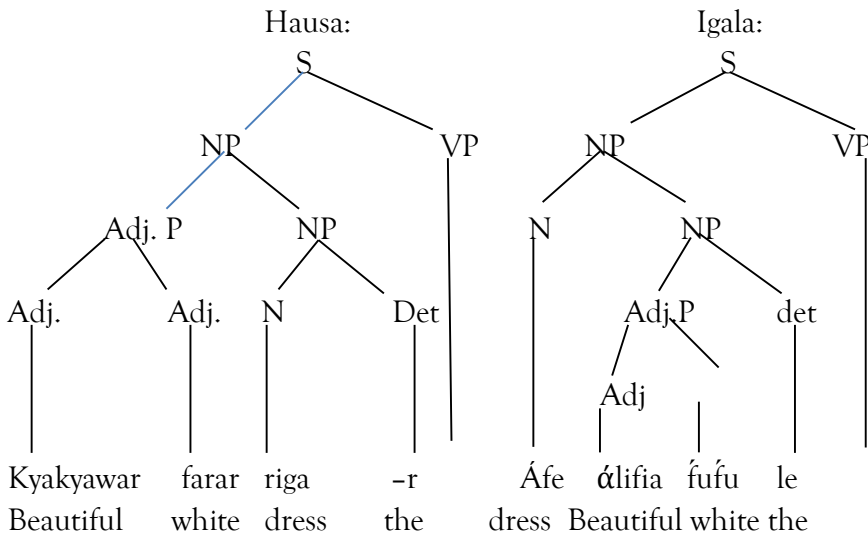
Gender

In Hausa, gender is indicated by means of a suffix attached to the noun that is possessed i.e. the possessee (n for masculine or, r for feminine). For instance; 'riga-r' (the dress, feminine) from riga (dress), and 'wondo-n' (the trouser, masculine) from 'wondo' (trouser). Pronouns too are differentiated by the gender e.g. 'ta' (she), 'ya' (shi)

and also object animate like 'Maage' (cat/ it) is masculine, so 'shi' for (it). Hence, it is a gender sensitive language.

In Igala, gender is not recognised on noun/subject/object and determiners. For instance; Í (he/she/it), Áfẹ (dress for both gender).

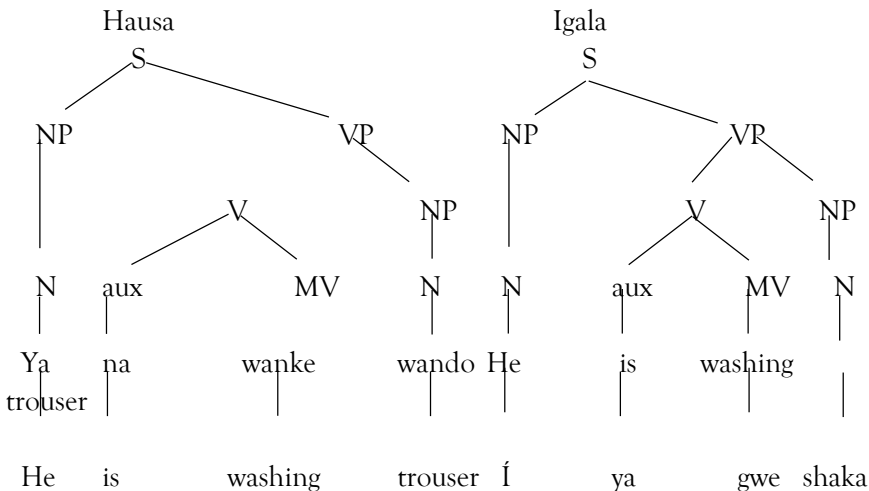**Fig.4.1** Giving a tree diagram below of NP-rule 5

Hausa: Igala:

```
                S                                        S
          _____|_____                           _____|_____
         NP            VP                         NP            VP
      ___|___                                  ___|___
   Adj. P     NP                              N      NP
   __|__    __|__                                  __|___
 Adj.   Adj.  N   Det                            Adj.P    det
  |      |   |    |                                |
  |      |   |    |                               Adj
  |      |   |    |                                |
Kyakyawar farar riga  –r            Áfe    álifia  fufu   le
Beautiful white dress  the          dress Beautiful white the
```

Fig. 5: SVO structure; constituents (VP) Transitive

	Subject	Verb	Object
H	Ya	na wanke	Wando
	He	is washing	Trouser
I	Í	yá gwẹ	Shákạ
	He	is washing	Trouser

The sentence means; "She is washing a trouser." Fig. 5.

Hausa

```
              S
          ___/ \___
        NP         VP
        |         / \
        N        V    NP
        |       /|\    |
       Ya    aux  MV   N
     trouser na  wanke wando
```

Igala

```
              S
          ___/ \___
        NP         VP
        |         / \
        N        V    NP
        |       /|\    |
       He     aux MV   N
             is washing
```

He   is   washing   trouser Í   ya   gwe shaka

The above diagram, it is worthy of note that the two languages have the same sentential structure of SVO with the verb continuous functioning only with an auxiliary put together with a main verb 'wanke' and 'gwẹ' (wash). Thus, both languages have no single verb showing continuousness. Unless with auxiliaries like na and yá (is) respectively.

**Fig. 6; SVO structure; a clear presentation of VP (past) and NP (object)**

	Subject	Verb		Object	
H	Ali	ya	ci	abinci-	n
	Ali	Ate		food	the
	Subject	Verb		Object	
I	Álẹ	Ówon	jị	újewon	lẹ
	Ali	Ate		food	the

However, in Hausa language both pre-verbal pronoun, tense-marker are analyse under verbal phrase (Galadanci, 1976). Consider the illustrations below using tree diagram:

Fig. 6.1

   (i)   **Hausa**   **(ii) Igala**
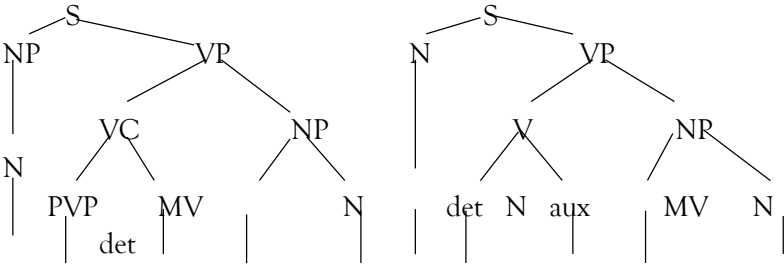
Ali	ya	ci	abinci	-n	Ale ówun	ji újewon	lẹ
Ali		eat	food	the	Ali	eat food	the

The sentence means; "Ali ate the food".

      In Hausa, the VP is also divided into verbal complex (VC) and NP2 (object). The verbal complex consists of two items: preverbal pronoun PVP 'ya' indicating the third person singular masculine and also agreeing with its subject 'Ali' to show the pastness of the action 'ci' (eat). Same applies to Igala, the main verb 'ji' (eat) 'owon ji' (ate).

The future tense conveys a situation or event which is anticipated to happen in the future.

Future and progressive verbs are expressed the same in Igala, e.g.

      Ná á wá

      (I will come/am coming)

In Hausa, the progressive verbs are different from the future form of verbs. Below are some examples;

      Ina zuwa (I am coming) progressive,

      Za-n zo (I will come), thus, the –n morpheme is 1st person subject, post-modifying the future auxiliary za 'will'. And the future auxiliary verb *za* (will) precedes the pronoun –*n* 'I' in Hausa, while in

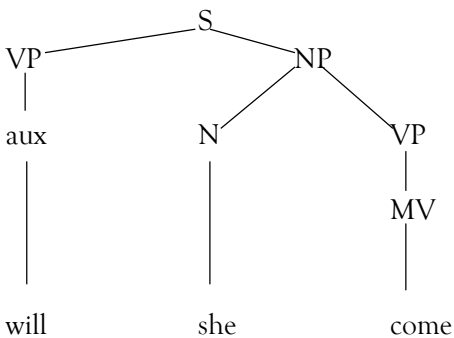Igala, the Pronoun subject *na* 'I' precedes the future auxiliary verb *á* 'will'.

Fig. 7; SV structure; presenting VP (future)

	Auxiliary	Subject	Verb
H	Za	ta	Zo
	Will	she	come
	Subject	Auxiliary	Verb
I	Í	ýaeké	Wá
	She	will	come

The sentence means; "She will come".

Fig. 7.1

(i) Hausa

(ii) Igala

will   she   come   Í   ýaeké   wa
                                     She   will   come
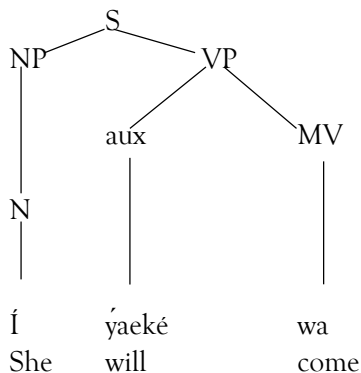
In Hausa, the VP is dismantled auxiliary verb—'za' (will) precedes the noun/pronoun—'ta'(she) and the main verb—'zo'(come), while in Igala, the subject comes first then the verbal phrase—'yaeké wa' (will come). Thus, SV.

Serial Verb Construction (SVC)

It is "a grammatical pattern in which a sequence of two or more verbs are used to express a unit action or process" (Ejeba, 2017, p. 151), not

taking note of a conjunction (subordination and coordination) e.g. in Igala, the sentence;   Akachi dụ ọ́kpo kpá efá.

Akachi carry boxing kill elephant. (Akachi killed an elephant with boxing).

However, Hausa, this structure is not applicable instead, a repetition of pre-verbal pronouns and a conjunction is used to separate verbs. Thus, the sentence will be; Akachi ya kashe giwa da nushi. (Akachi kill an elephant with boxing) Consider the illustrations below using tree diagram:

Fig. 8

(i)   Igala:

Akachi	du Okpo	kpa	efá
Akachi	carry boxing	kill	elephant
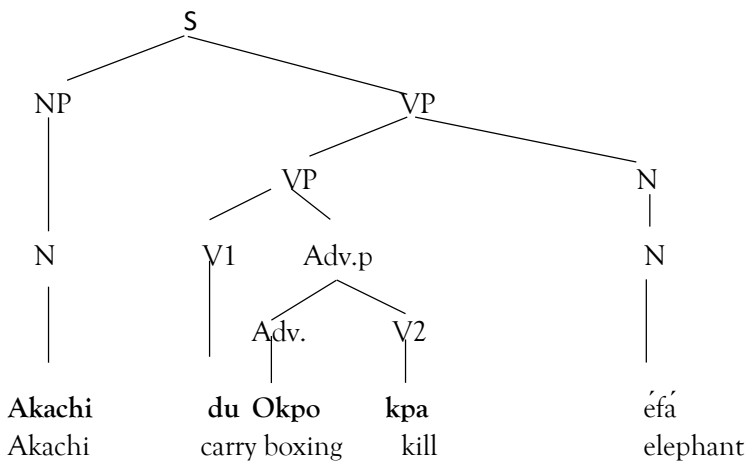
(ii)Hausa:
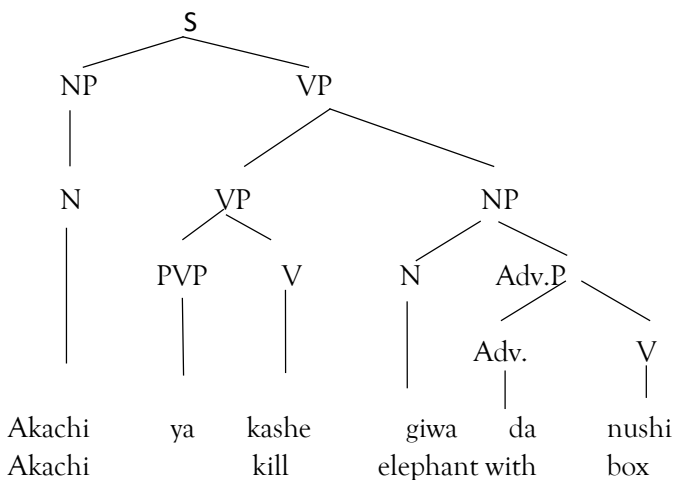
The sentence means; (Akachi killed the elephant with boxing).

Direct and Indirect Object

The relative order of multiple objects in SVO languages is mostly determined by semantic properties such as animacy or definiteness; indirect objects typically precede direct objects. Note that in African languages with valency-changing morphology.

Indirect objects in Hausa are indicated by an overt indirect object marker plus the object nominal, noun or pronoun. The indirect object occurs immediately following the verb and preceding the direct object in the basic SVO word order.

However, direct object in Igala following the verb precedes the indirect object.

Fig.9; Subject Verb Object Object Structure (direct and indirect).

	Subject	Verb	Indirect Object (O2)	Pre-modifier	Direct Object (O1)
H	Ya	Ba	ni	jar	Riga
	He	Gave	Me	red	Dress
	Subject	Verb	Direct object	Post-modifier	Indirect object
I	Í	dẹ	áfẹ	kpékpạ	mị
	He	Gave	dress	Red	me

The sentence means: "He gave me a red dress".

In Hausa, the indirect object with its modifier comes first before direct object, while in Igala, the direct object precedes indirect.
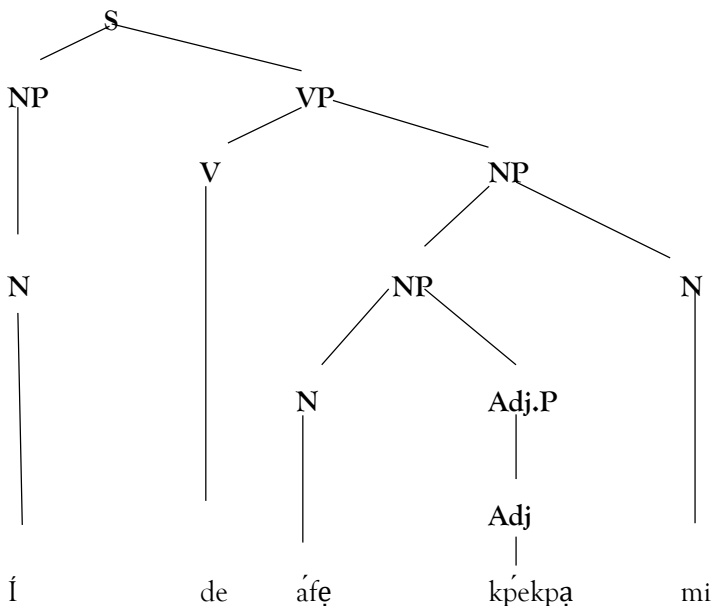
Fig.9.1

(i)   Hausa:

Ya   ba   ni   Ja-r   riga
He   gave   me   red   dress
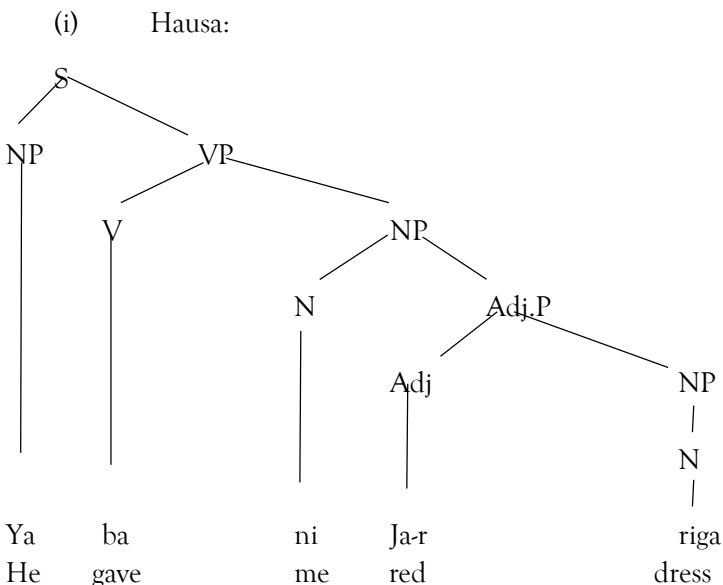
(ii)   Igala:

Fig. 10; SVOO with a preposition

	Subject	Verb	Preposition	Indirect object (O2)	Direct object (O1)
H	Sun	Gyara	wa	Musa	mota-r
	They	Repair	for	Musa	car the
	Subject	Verb	Direct object	Preposition	Indirect object
I	Má	Gwéy	moto lẹ́	Órh	Musa
	They	Repair	car the	For	Musa

The sentence means; "They repaired the car for Musa".

Fig. 10.1

(i)   Hausa:

Sun	gyara	wa	musa	mota	-r
They	repair	for	Musa	car	the

(ii)   Igala:
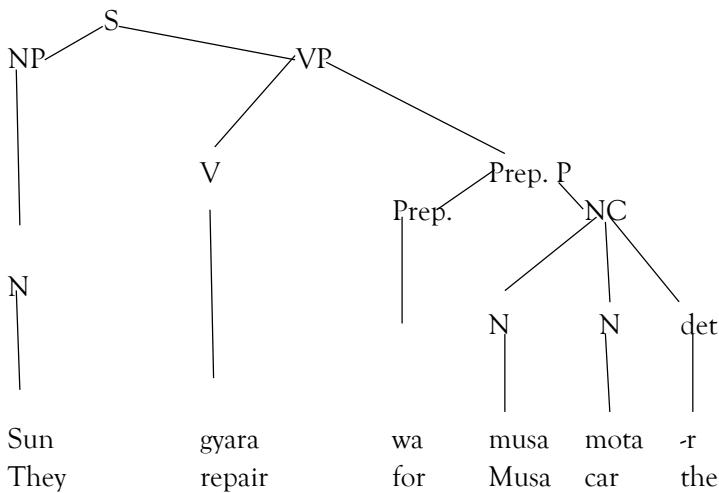
Má	gweý	moto	le	orh	Musa
They	repair	car	the	for	Musa
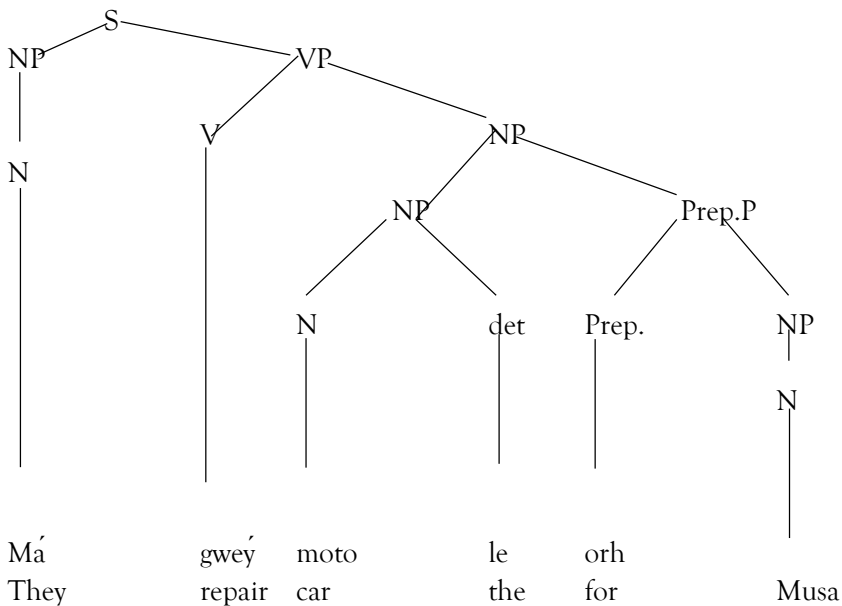
Form the above structure, it can be said that sentences with dual objects (direct and indirect), their placement differ. In Hausa, the structure follows; subject+verb+prep.+O2+O1. The form of the indirect object marker is personal pronouns and *wa* i.e. before nouns, demonstrative pronouns, or in phrase-final position, resulting to nominal complex (NC).

While in Igala, the structure follows; subject+verb+O1+prep.+O2

Findings

The analysis and discussions above reveal that Hausa and Igala are SVO Word order languages. Despite the similarities the two languages have particularly in their structural subject-verb-object order in the simple sentences, there are differences. For instance, the noun phrases occupying subject and object positions in Hausa take determiners post nominally and other elements like (demonstratives, adjectives, etc.) pre-nominally, but in Igala, early all cases take them post-nominally. Some of the noun phrase (object-pronoun) do not change in Igala. The verb phase in Igala has SVC (Serial Verbal Construction) without an obstruction of conjunctions. In Hausa verbal phrase (future form), the auxiliary is separated thus, occupying the initial part of a sentence. Also, sentences with dual objects, the indirect precedes the direct object in Hausa, while in Igala, it is the reverse. It then concludes with Chomsky's assertion that human languages are "essentially identical" (2004, p. 149). Stromswold expresses virtually the same view: "In fact, linguists have discovered that, although some languages seem, superficially, to be radically different from other languages ..., in essential ways all human languages are remarkably similar to one another." (1999, p. 357)

Conclusion

Igala and Hausa languages differ significantly in syntax. Igala is a fixed word order SVO (subject, verb, object) like Hausa but the arrangement of words in noun phrase and verb phrase is not the same. Hausa places some modifiers before nouns in noun phrases, Igala does the reverse, and nouns placed before modifiers. Igala consistently put modifying or limiting elements after an element modified or limited. Using the Contrastive analysis and Immediate Constituent analysis, the research results are reliable, dependable and valid.

References

Aitchison, J. (1992). *Linguistics*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Akwanya A. N. (2010). *Semantics and Discourse: Theories of Meaning and Textual Analysis*. Enugu: New Generation Books.

Bamgbose, A. (2001). *Language Policy in Nigeria: Challenges, Opportunities and Constraints.* Keynote Address Presented at the Nigerian Millennium Sociolinguistics Conference, University of Lagos.

Blackburn, Simon. (2008). *Oxford Dictionary of Philosophy.*2nd ed. Rev.ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bloor, T and Bloor, M. (2004). *The Functional Analysis of English.* 2nd ed. India: Replika,

Brown, K. and J. Miller. (1991). *Syntax: A linguistic introduction to sentence structure*. 2nd edn. London: Routledge.

Chomsky, N. (2004). *The Generative Enterprise Revisited: Discussions with Riny Huybregts, Henk van Riemsdijk, Naoki Fukui and Mihoko Zushi*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter

Crystal, D. (1971). *Linguistics*. Middlesex: Penguin.

Downing, A and Locke, P. (2006). *English Grammar: A University Course*. 2nd Ed. New York: Routledge.

Ejeba, S. O. (2008). "Noun-Modifier Relations in Igala as a Response to Basic Word Order" *Journal of the Linguistic Association of Nigeria* 11, (145-150). Department of Linguistics and Communication Studies, University of Port Harcourt.

‑‑‑‑‑‑‑‑(2017*). A Grammar in Igala.* Port Harcourt: M&J Grand Orbit Communications.

Ejele, P. E. (2003). "Language Use in a Multilingual Society: An Update on the Nigerian Situation." In Essien Okon and Okon Margaret (Eds.), *Topical Issues in Sociolinguistics: The Nigerian Perspective*, Aba: National Institute for Nigerian Languages, 111 -132.

Funnis, G. (1996). *Poetry, Prose and Popular Culture in Hausa.* London: Edinburgh
University Press Ltd.

Gast, V. (n.d) 'Contrastive Linguistics: Theories and Methods' *Contrastive. Accessed* March 15 2017.

Gilbert C.U (2023). A Contrastive Analysis of the Phrase Structure of some Nigerian Languages *Dutsin-ma Journalof English and Literature(DUJEL) 7(2s),339-353 ISSN: 2659-0360*

Malmkjaer, K. and Anderson, J. (1991). *The Linguistics Encyclopaedia.* London: Routledge.

Ndimele, O-M. (1999). *A First Course on Morphology and Syntax*. Port Harcourt: Emhai Books.

Newman, P. (2000). *The Hausa Language. An Encyclopaedic Reference Grammar*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Oladeji, A, O. (2010). *A Contrastive Study of the Morphology of Igala and Yoruba Languages.* Diss. UNN.

Omachonu, G. S. (2011). *Igala Language Studies.* Germany: LAMBERT Academy Publishing.

Onuigbo, Sam and Eyisi, Joy (, 2009. Print.). *English Language in Nigeria: Issues and Developments.* Calabar. *An X-Bar Analysis of English and Okun Noun*

Olorunmade J.E.F (2019). An X-Bar Analysis of English and Okun Noun of Phrase Structures *Voices:A Journal of English Studies. Department of English and Drama Kaduna State University.*V. 3, Pages 6-17, *ISSN 24087475*

Richards, J.C and Schmidt, R. (1985). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics.* Great Britain: The Chancer Press.

Silić, J. (1978). "The Basic, or Grammatical, Word Order in the Croatian Literary Language," *In Contrastive Analysis of English and Serbo-Croatian*, Zagreb, Institute of Linguistics.

Skinner, N. (2007). *A Grammar of* Hausa for Nigerian Secondary Schools and Colleges. NNPC: Zaria

Stromswold, K. (1999). "Cognitive and Neural Aspects of Language Acquisition". In E. Lepore & Z. Pylyshyn (Eds.), *What is Cognitive Science?* (pp. 356–400). Oxford: Blackwell.

Tomlin, R. (1986*). Basic ord Order Functional Principles*. London: Croom Helm.

Tomori, S. H. (1977). *The Morphology and Syntax of Present Day English.* London: Heinemann.

Tremholm, S. (1995). *Thinking through Communication: An Introduction to the Study of Human Communication.* USA: Ally and Bocon.

Uzozie, R. U. (1992). *Phonetics and Phonology.* Onitsha: Hybrid Publishers Ltd.

Yusuf, O. (1997). *Transformational Generative Grammar: An Introduction.* Ijebu-Ode: Shebiotimo Publications.

Yusha'u W.Z & Ibrahim S.M (2021) Contrastive Analysis of English and Hausa Sentence structures and its Pedagogical Implication. *Voices :A Journal of English Studies. Department*

of English and Drama Kaduna State University.V 4 7-19 ISSN 24087475

Zima, P. (1968). 'Hausa in West Africa: Remarks on Contemporary Role and Functions', in Fishman, J. et al (Eds). *Language Problems of Developing Nations*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.