A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF ENGLISH AND ADARA TENSES AND ASPECTS: A CASE OF EWA DIALECT

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has been written by me and that it is a product of my personal research. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. All quotations have been indicated by quotation marks and the sources of information have been duly acknowledged by means of references.

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Ambatu, Solomon Dantawaye

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Date

CERTIFICATION

This thesis, "A Contrastive Study of English and Adara Tenses and Aspects: A Case of Ewa Dialect" by Ambatu, Solomon Dantawaye meets the regulation governing the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contributions to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This thesis, with great honour to the Almighty God,is dedicated to my parents Late Chief Ambatu Dantawaye and Mrs. Anai Ambatu Dantawaye, the entire Dantawaye family, to my wife Mrs Elizabeth Solomon and my children:Mercy, Umunuh, Unuyeh, Ademichwi and Christiana.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis is titled "A Contrastive Study of English and Adara Tenses and Aspects: A Case of Ewa Dialect". The study aimed at contrasting the syntactic relationship between the structures of tenses and aspects of English which is an Indo-European language with Ewa dialect of Adara, a Nigerian (African) language which is classified under the Benue-Congo sub-group. The contrasts hinged primarily on the verb elements of both languages to provide information relevant for pedagogical purposes as it affects the Adara learner of English language, and for the furtherance of linguistic studies. Dialects of Adara are many but the 'Ewa' dialect has been chosen for the contrastive study since the researcher is its native speaker. The data for this study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. Speeches by native speakers of Adara through their spontaneous utterances, interviews and observations constitute the primary data, while other items from research works on English, Nigerian languages and textbooks constitute the secondary data. The theoretical framework is eclectic which comprise Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar and Whitman's model of Contrastive Analysis. The findings show variations in the internal structures of sampled data indicating tenses and aspects in the structure of verb elements of English and Adara respectively. Where English tense markers for example feature by the addition of –s in present tenses, or–*ing*in progressive tenses, or *–d* in simple past tenses as final elements in verbs, to mark, present, past or progressive tenses; Adara uses auxiliaries such as 'sa' (past perfect), 'ku'(simple past), 'su'(present progressive), 'ki' (future). There are no inflections in Adara verb elements. The use of irregular verbs in English such as 'went'and 'did' to express past is not obtainable in Adara. Instead, auxiliaries are used before the main verb including 'ku' for general past, 'ba' for past 'yesterday' and 'sa' for past 'beyond yesterday'. There are variations in the location of negative particles in English and Adara verb phrases. In English, negation is marked by the 'not' element which occurs between the auxiliary and the main verb as in 'I will not come'. In Adara, the negative particle 'ba' occurs as a final element separated from the main verb by a pronoun as in 'Ime (I) ki (will) ba (come) mi (me) ba (not)' meaning 'I will not come'. The differences noted in the findings have a lot of pedagogic implications in the teaching and learning of English as a second language and adds to the existing linguistic literature in Adara. The thesis therefore concludes with a recommendation for further studies of the entire sentence structure since this study is limited to tenses and aspects structures within the verb phrase. Also, there is the need to study the phonology, semantics and morphology of Adara language in comparative or contrastive fields with English or as a separate investigation of Adara language.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Preamble

This thesis is on Contrastive Study of English and Adara tenses and aspects: a case of Ewa dialect. It is set to contrast the tenses and aspects structures of the two languages - English (an Indo-European language), and Adara (a Nigerian, indigenous Language). The discussion here focuses on Background to the Study, Brief History of the Adara People, their population and the Language. The chapter further deals with sections on the Statement of the Research Problem, Research Questions, the Aim and the Objectives of the Study, Justification for the Study, as well as the Scope and Delimitation of the Study.

The term 'Contrastive Analysis' (CA) refers to the systematic comparison of two languages to ascertain their similarities and differences (Di Petro, 1968:1, Crystal, 2003:107, and Matthews, 2007:79). Contrastive Analysis was originally developed to establish Lado's 1957 'Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis' in 'Error Analysis'. The intention was to ascertain and predict errors made by Second Language learners of English Language due to mother tongue (MT) interference (Brown 1987:157). Contrastive Analysis has also been used to establish language genealogies in addition to the primary role of identifying their structural differences or similarities. CA is thus explored in this study to determine the syntactic variations in the structure of English and Adara tenses and aspects. Tenses and aspects are basically within the verb phrase (comprising the main verb, auxiliaries and other elements relating to the verb to make tenses and aspects).

Tense, strictly speaking, in the English language is divided into two: the present (go, eat, die) and past (went, ate, died). All other expressions of time are formed by combining an auxiliary verb with the present participle, past participle, or infinitive, as in the progressive or continuous aspect (e.g., The cake *is baking* slowly), the perfect or perfective aspect (He had watched television for an hour), and the Simple furture (I will finish my work) (Center for Writing Studies, 2013). The present tense is the umnmarked tense which is timeless in the sense that it can embrace anytime that does not exclude the speaker's time (hence its use for general truths), and any time that the speaker does not want to distance himself or herself from. The past tense, on the other hand, is defined as being marked to express separation from the speaker's 'now', to indicate the hypothetical nature of a statement (modal remoteness), or to convey social distancing (Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner, 2014:415).

Aspect, on the other hand, is a category of grammar used to describe a 'situation', as expressed by a 'verb' in combination with its arguments, unfolds over time. English is often considered to have two aspects: 'progressive aspect' which expresses a situation that is regarded as being in progresss (or an incomplete situation), and 'perfect aspect' which expresses a completed situation in the past (Aarts, et al, 2014:35).

The thesisharnessed the syntactic relatedness of elements that make up tense and aspect structures in English and Adara. Precisely, the syntactic structure of verbal groups in (a) declarative sentences, (b) interrogative sentences, and (c) negative sentences are looked into in contrast. These are mainstreamed in tense and aspect structure subheads for easy contrasts according to each subhead..

However, imperative clauses, designating clause types typically used for issuing directives (Aarts, et al; 2014:206) or referring to verb forms/clause types typically used in the expression of commands, for example, 'go away' (Crystal, 2003:227) are excluded from this study. Equally, modal verbs are signalled by alternative paradigms of the verb to show syntactic or semantic contrasts in the context of 'mood'; but they have been viewed only as auxiliary verbs in the analysis without emphasising 'mood'.

1.1The Adara: People, Population and Language

Although Ferdinamd de Sassuare favoured the synchronic approach to linguistic studies (Lulos, 2012), it is important to document some basic information about the Adara as a people, their population and language before delving into the present analysis.

There are varied accounts in relation to the origin of the Adara. As there are variations in their dialect clusters, so are there variations in their traditions' accounts on origin and migration patterns. The Adara of Kufana in Kajuru district are said to be traceable to ancestors who emerged from a cave at a place called"Meisin". From 'Meisin', theirancestors moved to kufena and later were chased by some immigrants and they moved to their present location (Smith, 1972). The 'Meisin' version has also been traced to Adara of Kufana in the Hausa folklore of A.D. 1760 by Linda Musa Zaria in "Adara Echoes of Hope" (www.theechoesofhope.com 2015).

Gunn further states that, the Adara of Ankwa claim to be of Zonkwa origin. Zonkwa is a settlement of the Bajju (formerly known as Kaje) people in southern Kaduna. The kuturmi (Ada) enclave of Adara language claims to have tradition of a northern origin. Thus, Gunn in Hassan (1994) quoted Cole as having said that "they

(the Kuturmi) are said to have come originally from Kano city and are a branch of Kutumbawa". The cluster called 'Ajure' (Adjuli) and others in the dialect lists below were not placed by any of these accounts'.There is however a general account of the Adara having migrated "from the area around the Plateau Hills to their present settlements. This on assumption may be tight to the other Adara (Kadara) that are not placed either by the Meisin or Kuturmi version.

The Adara people formerly known as the Kadara speak Kadara language. There seem to be more explanation on the other cultural affiliation of the Adara people than there is on the genealogy of the language as linked to the disjointed migration pattern discussed above. However, the Adara/Adjua/Adjia/Adjuli/Ada (kadara) ethnic group generally refered to as Adara today predominantly occupies a sizeable territory of southern Kaduna in Kaduna State and parts of Niger State. These terminologies are the various ways that speakers of the various dialects of Adara refer to themselves as a 'people' according to their dialect groupings.Precisely, the Adara are found in Chikun, Kajuru and Kachia LGAs in Kaduna State, and a fairly sizeable area of Paikoro and Munya LGAs in Niger States (Hassan.1994:1). In Zaria province, Smith (1935) reported that the Adara had four village grouping of Bikaratu, Kajuru, Bishini and Kachia with a total of eleven villages namely; Afogo, Libere, Rimau, Iri, Kufana, Kutura, Maro, Doka, Kateri, Ankwa and Ungwan Dutse. These villages, in turn, had a total of 53 hamlets. The then Bikaratu district was later amalgamated with Kajuru district (Stanley in Hassan: 1994:2), and Bishini district was mergedwith Kachia district from 1903 to 1913 under 'Madaki' and from 1922 to 1925 under Sarkin Zana of Zazzau Emirate (Morgan, 1934). The Adara of the then 'Bikaratu' and 'Kajuru' districts are now in Kajuru Local Government Area; whereas those who were in 'Bishini' and 'Kachia' are now in Kachia Local

Government Area under the Adara traditional council with headquarters in Kachia, Kaduna State. The Adara of Niger State who were based in the old Kuta district of Niger State, claim to have migrated from Ankwa (Kaduna state) owing to land hunger and constant wars and settled among the Koro on friendly terms (Hassan, 1994).

The population of Adara tax payers in 1931 was 1,413 and their population in Kaduna State (then in Kajuru and Kachia districts) was 4,238 as at 1934-5 Native Authority tax payers Census, excluding the Hausa/Fulani and other immigrants (Stanley,1935; Smith, 1972.); and in 2011 the population was estimated at 300,000 (Hon, Ajaegbu, Magnusson, Nweke, & Yoder, 2012). The Adara of Kuta district in Niger State in Stanley (1933) numbered 615. The report by Smith (1972) and Hassan (1994) indicate that Kajuru town was founded by Beriberi hunters in the middle of the Adara settlement some 2000 years ago.).

In the 2006 National Population Census, the Adara were not accounted for separately from Hausa/Fulani and other immigrants who are settlers in the area. Although the current population is estimated at over 400,000 by the Adara Development Association, there is no government input to that effect. But beyond this, effort is being made by both the traditional institution and the Adara Development Association to ascertain the current population. Until that is done and documented by relevant government agencies, it will be difficult to assume a figure for the population of Adara. The entire population of people in Adara land including non-indigenes/settlers is not available for documentation by the researcher during this study.

Adara (‘Kadara’) is a language spoken by the Adara people in Kaduna and Niger States of Nigeria. Adara, according to Blench (2009) and Hassan (1994) belong to the Benue – Congo linguistic Sub-group.

The works on Adara language available to the researcher include; “The Eda (Kadara) Language of Central Nigeria” (Blench, 2009), “A Sociolingustics Survey of the the Adara of Kaduna and Niger States by Hon, Ajaegbu, Magnusson, Nweke, and Yoder (2012), a reader entitled “Ani ba Ku hu zhi”(Let us come together) by Washiri (2010), audio tapes of songs by some Christian Artist such as ‘Ukpo’ (death), ‘Eyami’ (my mother), both by Yakubu Umaru started in the early 1990s and others, exist. As far as the researcher knows, the language (Adara) is not yet considered for any educational activity. It is also not thoroughly studied compared to other Nigerian languages listed in the preliminary pages of Dunstan (1969:v) including English, Efik, Etsako, Fula, Hausa, Igbo, Ijo, Isoko, Itsekiri, Nupe Tiv, Urhobo and Yoruba; and there is no thorough post graduate research on Adara as is the case with works reviewed in chapter two of this thesis.

The available works are few, somehow obscure due to lack of attention even by the native speakers. This is unlike the case with languages such as the Bajju and Jaba who have translated the “New Testament” of “The Holy Bible” in their languages, and are in the process of translating the “Old Testament” as well. The Holy Bibleor its part is yet to be published in Adara language despite the predominance of Christianity in the area except a translation of “The Lord’s Prayer” by the researcher and Maiyaki Everest” from the book of Matthew chapter 6:9-13, KJV, titled “Osoru Unuh” in December, 2017:

USORU UNUH	THE LORD'S PRAYER
Ate mayuwu anghu shi Ka ayaya	Our Father, which art in heaven
Anu uchwa nghu ku uyuyer,	Hallowed be thy name
Irgumu nghu ya ba,	Thy kingdom come
Imu wa nghu na juyu khi da shi,	Thy will be done on earth
Kunu mana aka ju ka ayaya ni	as it is in heaven
Ma ayuwu imila awadi,	Give us this dayour daily bread
Huru ayuwu ivuwu mayuwu ku,	And forgive us our debts
Kunu mana ayuwu ka huru aghi	As we forgive our debtors
ivuwu kana ayuwu ni	And lead us not into temptation
Ba ya ayuwu sa ghila idi ivuwu ba	But deliver us from evil
,Fuo ayuwu khi idi ibirbi na didu	For thine is thine kingdom
Si irgumu, ni irchuwu, ni irghaku	For thy is the kingdom
ni inghangho ku	And the power, and the glory
Sa fuma awhi usa shi	For ever
Ushiwudu.	Amen

.

TRANSLATED BY: SOLOMON AMBATU DANTAWAYE & MAIYAKI EVEREST. CAFOGO 2017)

There are no reference teaching materials in the language despite the clamour for the consideration of indigenous languages as contained in the Nigeria National Policy on Education (NPE, 2014:10-13). Also, the various dialects of Adara are not traceable to any one ancestor. Just as there is no general oral tradition known to the researcher as regards to their point of separation based on dialect clusters during migration, and the records of the expatriates appear to be silent about patterns of migration of Adara in group. Smith (1972) reported about the migration of the Meisin group traceable to Kufana. He states that the report was limited to Kufana due to language barrier since the natives couldn't say much intelligibly about themselves. That the report was an incomplete but necessary account of the Kadara (Adara) people. Thus, the expatriates/missionaries concentrated on the people they met in every settlement (village) and recorded their population/language on such bases only. Hassan (1994:1) states that:

> The traditions of origin of the Kadara are yet to be studied. Those given...have been haphazardly documented by largely western writers who had the constraint of time and genuine interest, since the purpose of their documentation was for administrative logistics only. Those given by the

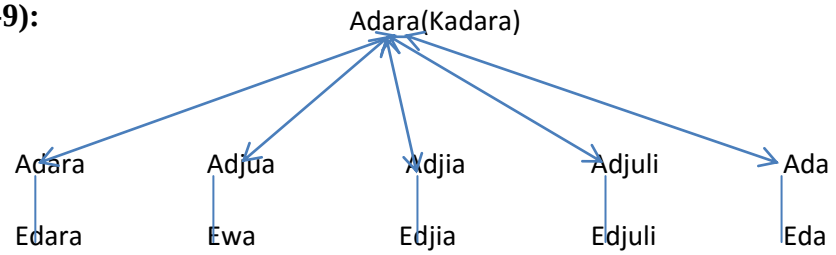
> natives represent no more than versions which are at the moment, more or less generally accepted by the clansconcerned.

The versions of oral tradition referred to in the above quotation therefore suggests that the oral tradition obtainable from the Adara of Kufana (of the Meisin origin), the Kuturmi (Ada) group (of Kano city or Kutumbawa), the group(s) that migrated from/through the Plateau hills, the Adjua/Adjia/Adjuli who were not placed by any account only tell stories of migration as it affects the group, but not the entire Adara. The lack of related migration pattern recorded for the entire Adara is, perhaps, the reason for their naming as 'Kadara', resembling "Kaddara" (destiny) by the Hausas."Kadara" is the name that was recorded in history after the establishment of Zaria province (Smith, 1972).This name was later refuted by the people in an attempt to be united, perhaps for political reasons, and reverted back to the use of the adopted 'Adara' which simply means 'a people of the same stock' (Hassan, 1994) even though pronounced variously (as Adara, Adjua, Adjia, Ada, Adjuli, Ewengo, etc) by the different dialects. The different terminologies used by the different dialects all refer to the 'People' of Adara as well as the 'Language', a common phenomenon with many other Nigerian and perhaps World Languages. Except for the recent changes in nomenclature, words such as Kagoma (now Gwom), Kaje (now Bajju), Kataf (now Atyap), Jaba (now Hyam), Ikulu (Bakulu), Gwari (now Gbagyi), etc., were used to refer to both the people and their languages. The changes are possibly for cultural and political reasons.

Gunn (1956 in Hassan 1994:1) concludes that "the Adara (Kadara) are held together only by common knowledge of identity (which supposedly emerged after convergence)" owing to the inconsistent accounts about the origin of the people and their divergent speech patterns. The dialects include 'Adara' who speak 'Edara',

'Adjuli' who speak 'Edjuli', 'Adjua' who speak 'Ewa', Adjia who speak 'Edjia' and Ada (Ewengo) who speak 'Eda' (Gowers 1921 and Hassan 1994: XXXVI) as reflected in the table below.

Table 1 Showing Adara Language Dialects (Hassan, 1994: XXXVi; Gowers, 1921:26 -9):



The table is the researcher's design while the dialect classification is from the quoted sources.

Hon, et al (2012) in a sociolinguistic research identify the Adara dialects to include: 'Adara', 'Ada', 'Ajia', 'Eneje' and 'Ekhuwa'. The 'Ekhuwa' dialect introduced by Hon et al (ibid) is the same group tagged as 'Ada' who speaks 'Eda' according to Gunn (1956) and Hassan (1994.1).

Temple (1919: 180) and Hassan (1994) reported that Hausa is generally understood by the Adara (people). The 'Adara', 'Adjua / Adjia' and 'Adjuli' dialect clusters are predominantly in Chikun and Kajuru LGAS, whereas the 'Ada' and 'Eneje' are in kachia LGA of Kaduna State and in Munya and Paikoro LGAs of Niger State.

Adara has been listed among the 7,111 spoken 'Languages of The World' in the twenty-Second edition of Ethnologue (2019). It is also stated that "only 23 languages account for more than half the world's population" and that "roughly a third of languages are now endangered, often with less than 1,000 speakers. Thus,

the sheer predominance of more prominent languages over some African languages is a problem to the development of the African languages. Going by the criteria stated in Agheyisi (1984) that "major languages have over 1,000,000 (one million) native speakers" and that the "minor languages are less than one million but have at least 100,000 native speakers, Adara with an estimated 400,000 native speaker population is a minor language. As a native speaker of Adara language and as well a student of language, the researcher is challenged to delve into this study in order to ascertain the contrasts in syntactic structure of the tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages. This will perhaps help in the future development of the language.

It has been stated above that the word 'Adara' is used to refer to the people who speak the language and the language itself. While these dual references are used at the preliminary chapters of the thesis, other references in chapter four limits the word 'Adara' to its reference to Ewa dialect only since the data analysed is basically of the dialect.

Blench (2009) proposes the alphabets of Adara Language based on the pronunciation of Alex Maikarfi, a native speaker of Adara (Eda) language. In line with this, the proposed phonology of Adara (Eda) is as follows:

(a) That the Adara (Eda) (or Kadara) has seven phonemic vowels grouped into four as follows

I. Close front and back vowels respectively - //i/ and /u/
II. Close – mid front and back vowel - // and /o/ XXX
III. Open – mid front and back vowels - /e/ and / /
IV. Open central vowel - /d/

Blench (ibid) found out that there are no nasal vowels and no long vowels. A phonological study of the language (not in focus) will bring out detail characteristics of the speech pattern. The stronghold of this work by Blench is that it will serve as the general foundation reference material for the development of Adara language.

(b) Adara (Ada) consonants according to Blench (2009) are:

I. Bilabial plosives /p/, /b/
II. Bilabial nasal /m/
III. Bilabial labiodental affricate [b, v]
IV. Labio – dental fricative /f/ and /v/
V. Alveolar plosive /t/, /d/
VI. Alveolar nasal /n/
VII. Alveolar tap /r/
VIII. Alveolar fricative /s/, /z/
IX. Alveo–palatal fricative / $/, / … /
X. Alveo-palatal approximant /y/
XI. Palatal plosive [c], /j/
XII. Palatal – velar fricative [v]
XIII. Velar plosive /k/, /g/
XIV. Velar nasal / /
XV. Labial – velar plosive /kp/, /gb/
XVI. Labial – velar approximant - /w/
XVII. Glottal fricative - /h/

Below is an annotated wordlist which Blench (2009) transcribed using the above phonemic symbols:

Vowels

a - Aba (house)

e – ebre (lips)

E – Eb…

i – idre (eye)

o – ofu (bush)

u – ukpo (death)

Consonants

b – ba (come)

d – dà

f – fa

g – gre (tear)

gb – gbaa (beautiful)

hw – hwa (embrace)

hyw – hywa (drink)

j – je (steal)

k – ka (share / divide)

kp – kpa (pound)

l – la (hit / slap)

m – maa (measure / test)

n – nâ (sleep / pass the might)

ng – … (ungho) – (you)

ny – nya – (climb)

o – ofu (bush)

p – pe (talk)

rr – rra (break)

s – sa (lift)

sh – shâ (weed)

t – ta (throw)

v – v… (marry)

w – wa (cut)

y – ya (eat)

yw – ywa (stay)

z – za (know)

The above alphabet and wordlist are a formidable starting point for the development of Adara language. Building on the commendable work, the cluster /ky/ used in words such as ‘ukyue’ (cry), ‘ukya’ (to bewitch)has been added by the researcher since it was not captured by Blench. This provided basis for the study to be properly situated. Other words that emerged from this research work are a modification or an improvement on the existing word list. Although vocabulary and meaning differ based on the various dialects of Adara language, the word list above can be a central working document to anyone interested in the development of Adara language.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

The syntactic structure of Adara language has not been studied in contrast to English language as is the case with some Nigerian languages such as Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Tiv, Kanuri, Jenjo, Jaba and the like. Therefore, until it is studied as is being carried out in this thesis, the syntax of Adara language will remain obscure. The Adara wordlist produced based on the phonology of Adara by Blench (2009) is a formidable starting point for the analysis of the entire language as it was the

pronunciation of a native speaker(Alex Maikarfi) of 'Eda' (a dialect of Adara). The wordlist by Blench is a proposal for the native speakers and scholars to comment upon towards development of the language. However, the work will be futile if no effort is made to build on it.

The sociolinguistic study of the dialects of Adara by Hon, et al. (2012) was carried out by non – natives who made a comparative analysis of the dialects' vocabulary to enable the choice of a dialect suitable for Bible translation. Existing works on Adara language stated above are a wordlist that gives basis for codification and development of the language. This calls for further work(s) forthe evelopment and description of the syntactic elements at the phrase or sentence level. Lack of relevant literature on the language perhaps slows the pace of the Bible translation project. The study of a language at any stage paves way for codification of the language, translation of information to or from the language, and it helps to preserve and prevent the language from going extinct.

There are works on "Grammatical Analysis of Tense and Aspect of Jenjo Language" spoken in Taraba State by Gwah (2009), "a contrastive analysis of the basic clause in Ejagham and English" by Obgonna in Ndimele (2010) in which variations were found in the verbal groups of the two languages distinct from the Adara verbal group. Variations were also found in the "Contrastive Studies of Tense and Aspect Structure of Arabic and English" by both Al-Asmad (www.researchgate.net) and Slal (www.iasi.net), "A Contrastive Analysis of English and Hyam Language" by Yaro (2011), and "Tense and Aspect in English and Yoruba" by Lamidi (2010).

Native speakers of Adara who are learning English would surely encounter the difficulty of structural variation between English and their language. More so, teachers of English to learners who are native speakers of Adara would also find it difficult to plan their lessons well in view of the problem stated above. On this basis, this thesis was motivated and has to answer the following questions as a possible way of bridging the existing gap, building on the existing Adara proposed alphabet and wordlist.

1.3 Research Questions

The study is guided by the following questions:

1. How different are the syntactic elements of English and Adara languages with regards to Subject-Verb-Object structure?
2. What syntactic elements are common to both tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages?
3. To what extent do the grammatical rules of generating tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages differ?
4. How can contrastive analysis of tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages contribute to the learning or teaching of English as L2 in adara native speaker context? `
5. Of what contribution is the contrastive analysis of English and Adara tenses and aspects to the codification and translation of Adara language and to linguistics?

1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to do a contrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspect so as to provide information relevant for the understanding of English by

Adara native speakers, for pedagogical purposes, and for the furtherance of linguistic studies. Therefore, the objectives of the study are to:

i. Describe the differences in the structure of English Language and Adara languages in terms of Subject-Verb-Object.

ii. Identify and describe the common elements in tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages.

iii. Examine the extent to which rules of generating tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages differ.

iv. Describe the implications of i–iii above to the learning and teaching of English as a second language in Adara native speaker context.

v. Discuss how the study of tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages is a contribution to the codification and translation of Adara language and to linguistics.

1.5 Justification for the Study

Linguistic study is accompanied by numerous benefits. Apart from the specific aspect of language being studied, Owolabi (2006:11) states that " the interface between linguistics and other disciplines …" is a clear indication "that linguistics is an appropriate tool for handling the modernization of indigenous languages in various specialized domains", and advocates that "Universities of Agriculture, Science and Technology … mandated curricula for the running of degree programmes in (Applied) linguistics or language engineering with the indigenous Nigeria (or African) languages as a main focus". This, according to him, "would facilitate their use for imparting scientific and technological knowledge and skill to the masses". In essence, the masses can participate effectively in the process of national development filling such gaps created by the use of foreign languages (11-

12). In particular, the use of developments in linguistics (especially generative grammar – syntax and semantics) helps in the fields of Agriculture, science and technology.

This dream on the development of indigenous languages may be difficulut to come by. David Abercrombie's 'Foreword' in Dunstan (1969:iii) noted the necessity emphasised by experts on linguistic pedagogy that "a language teacher ought not only to be familiar with the structure of the language being taught, but should be equally familiar with the structure of the mother tongue of the learners". But he was quick to state that:

> … this is doubtless true but the trouble is that properly organised knowledge about the structure of the learners's mother tongue is, often as not, difficult or impossible to come by, whether the teacher has the same mother tongue as the learners or not.

Thus, he (Abercrombie) believes that continuos research like this work or workshops with reference to the Ford Foundation English Language Workshop in 1964 which was intended to make available such information to Nigerian English teachers (p.iii) is necessary This type of linguistic investigation enables teachers to focus not only on the structure of English, but also on the structure of indeginous Nigerian languages as well as problems encountered by speakers or learners of English as a foreign or second language.

Adara is one of the Nigerian languages that attempts have been made for its linguistic development consideringthe proposed alphabet and wordlist and the sociolinguistic survey. A study like this would not only be beneficial to the Adara native speakers who are learners of English, but, the teacher, whether native to Adara or not, would benefit from it. More so, a Contrastive Study of the tenses and

aspects of English and Adara languages would help the understanding of the structural elements of the language, its codification and the provision for reference study materials for teaching and future researches. The reseach would be a basis for the Adara language preservation and standardization. Writing on translation, Inggs and Meintjes (2009) put it that "translation … is an indispensable instrument in the creation and diffusion of cultures within the global community … it plays a role in writing, preservation and disseminating of the African worldview, and the representation of African culture on the world stage. Studies in indigenous languages such as Adara will surely pave way for cross cultural communication between the Adara and other cultures of the world.

In summary, findings of this study would be of benefit in general and specific terms to researchers, teachers, students, applied linguists, policy makers, curriculum designers and the like. Thus, it would add to the list of studied Nigerian (and African) indigenous languages.

1.6 Scope and Delimitation

The study is mainly concerned with the contrastive analysis of English and Adara tenses and aspects. The analysis in Adara is limited to the 'Ewa' dialect verb phrasesin declarative, negative, and interrogative sentences found to be relevant to the study. The researcher is a native speaker of Ewa dialect. Thus, there is the tendency for his utterances to be natural, authentic, original and grammatical. This is supported by Achimbe (2013:5) that use of language by non-native speakers may gear towards "approximations, improper learning, lack of rules and incorrectness". It is therefore proper to select the appropriate dialect for investigation.Thus, this accounts for the choice of "Ewa" dialect by the researcher for analysis. The study is

limited in scope for practical convenience and because of the time constraint within which this work must be completed. Hence, the work is by no means a conclusion on the tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages because thefull sentences, the phonology and semantics of the verb phrase have not been studied. Discussions on the noun phrases and adverbial phrases have been done only where it is necessary to aid understanding of the tenses and aspects structures. Phonology and meaning are only embedded in determining syntactic structures. In essence, the structure of the main verb, auxiliary verbs and particles which function within the verb phrase form the focus of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Preamble

This chapter contains the review of available literature related to the subjectmatter of the study. It provides a report on the writings of recognised authorities and previous research findings. The first section is the topical review bordering on the field of contrastive analysis, its relevance and criticisms, definitions of the verb and verb phrase, tense and aspect, and variation in the concept of tense and time as well as levels of grammar. Others are morphology, theories of syntax and especially transformational grammar with its relevance to Contrastive Analysis as it relates to the transformation of tenses and aspects. The second section is the authorial review of previous works that are relevant to this study. The chapter concludes with the theoretical framework for the study.

2.1 Topical Review

This section concerns areas of current interests and it gives more insight into the various concepts that are useful. Relevant topics are reviewed for proper understanding of the contents of the thesis and as a threshold for the analysis.

2.1.1 English as a Global Lingua Franca

English language as a global lingua franca is undoubtedly, the major reason responsible for the quest of many world languages to identify with it. (James, 1998:25). English plays a role in international relations, economics and education. It is probably the most crucial to social mobility of individuals, conventions towards achieving world peace and for economic growth. The need to learn and use English thus becomes necessary for non natives who desire to enjoy the priviledges

associated with it. In doing so, those who use English must be intelligible to effectively communicate with both the native speakers and other people individually or with corporate organisations in speech or writing.

The foregoing accounts are partly the reason for the clamour of studying African languages in relation to English. Adara native speakers who either use English or are learning English as a second language are not left out of this clamour of belonging, in view of the role of English discussed above. The available evidence of thorough linguistic study is an attempt at which Blench (2009) proposes alphabets of Adara (a tone) Language based on the pronunciation of Alex Maikarfi, a native speaker of Eda (a dialect of Adara language).Details of this publication are phonologically based and are not discussed further in this thesis. The review on the role of English shows how English serves as a bridge towards attaining positive national development, and how this brings motivation for the development of other languages in relation to English. Thus, the data used for the contrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspects is linked to the development of the Adara language for linguistic and pedagogical purposes. Also, the use of English as a medium of teaching Adara language can contribute meaningfully to the understanding of English by the Adara learner as well as contribute to the development of the Adara language.

2.1.2 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Crystal (2003:107) sees Contrastive Analysis (also Contrastive Linguistics) as "a general approach to the investigation of language, particularly as carried on in certain areas of applied linguistics, such as foreign language teaching and translation"; Matthews (2007:79) says Contrastive Analysis is "an investigation in

which the structures of two languages are compared " in order to establish "point by point relations between their respective systems" with the aim of explaining, and thereby helping teachers to remedy errors made by speakers of one language in learning the other". Di Petro (1968:1) emphasises the fact that the relationship can be the language one is teaching contrasted with another. Contrastive Analysis is a comparison of two languages systematically, a process that has been used to establish language genealogies in addition to its primary role of identifying their structural differences and similarities.

Contrastive Analysis was evolved by Robert Lado's (1957) in his book "Linguistics Across Cultures" in which he propounded what is known as "Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis" (CAH) to verify his claims of mother-tongue interference as the cause of all linguistic errors. The claim is that "those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements which are different will be difficult". The view in itself is not new, but Lado was the first to produce it for the contrastive study of language structure. Lado's view was used to describe the languages structurallyand comparing them for the purpose of predicting learning difficulties.

The Contrastive Analysis of English with other languages is borne out of the fact that English is already a global language which most people wish to identify with for different purposes. According to James (1998:25), "English has undoubtedly become today's global Lingua Franca" (LF) and that, "apart from the 350 - 450 million native speakers of English, there are other 800 million people who use it as a foreign language (FL)". This suggests that the number of people who speak English language today far outnumber the native speakers. Today, out of about 7.5 billion

world population, about 1.5 billion speak English and about 360 million people across different countries speak English as a first language (Lyons, 2017). This means that over 1.1 billion speakers of English are non-native and so use English as a second or foreign language. Kachru (1985) described the spread of English in terms of three 'Concentric Circles' including the (a) Inner Circle (b) Outer Circle and (c) Expanding Circle:

The 'Inner Cicle' comprises the native speakers of English who set the standard and are seen as the 'norm providing'. Speakers in the Inner Circle are countries in the United Kingdom, United States of America, Canada, Austrialia and New Zealand (Robert Schmitz, 2014). The Outer Circle follow the standard set by speakers in the Inner Circle and use it as if they set it, but the Outer Circle is as 'norm developing' since they are not native speakers. Countries in this group are Singapore, India, Nigeria, etc., who were colonised by the British and today use English as a second/official language. The Expanding Cirle comprises of speakers of English outside the Inner and the Outer Circles. China, Russia, Vietnam are examples of countries where English is used for other purposes only (neither as official nor as a second language). Linguists have continually contrasted other languages with English for various purposes such as language development, communication, codification, and so on.

The study of psychological correlates of language has revealed that a bilingual speaker is probably never equally competent in both languages" as explained by Langacker (1972). Lado (1957:57) views "system of habits" referring to 'grammatical structure' of a language, that "language is a set of habits and learning is the establishment of new habits". This projects the presence of errors committed

by language users in second language context. In view of this, Contrastive Analysis helps not only to establish the structural patterns of particular languages but to make adequate the teaching of English as a second language. Lado (1971:8) in his account states that "the brain seems to have difficulty in storing the data of different languages separately". Thus, the need to compare or contrast two languages and cultures, with a broad view to discovering and describing the problems that the speakers of one of the languages will have in learning the other, is partly responsible for the reawakening interest in Contrastive Linguistic Analysis.

Of great importance is the contrastive analysis of a learner's mother tongue (MT) or First Language (L1) and the target language (TL) in all processes of language teaching and learning (James 1983:8). The benefit of this is that linguists are able to describe the features, develop contrastive studies, and predict difficulty level likely to be encountered by the L2 learner in the target language. The predicted difficulty level of course provides for the teacher in the preparation of teaching materials. Therefore, the CA linguist is, and should be, more interested in differences than in similarities. The point of interest here is that the contrastive analysis linguist examines differences in two languages at a time.

Oyedokun – Alli (2009) quoting the Encyclopaedia Britanica states that "Contrastive Analysis along with behaviourism and structuralism exerted a profound effect on second language acquisition, curriculum design, and language teacher education and provided the theoretical pillars of Audio lingual method".

Majer (2006) views that "the importance of the L2 is becoming a matter of received wisdom or at least a persistent issue" and that "the mother tongue or First Language plays a part at the start of learning, in the process of learning and in the use of the

target language in communication". Oyedokun-Alli concludes that "one of these utilities of the L1 is the expediency of cross linguistic comparisons". This is in agreement with the assertion by Lado (1957) that "the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them". This indicates that noticing the most problematic contrasts between the L1 and the target language, helps learners overcome the arising difficulties and accelerates the learning process. Thus, the knowledge makes teaching in monolingual classes in particular extremely efficient. Benefits derived from Contrastive Analysis in Granger (2003:17) Rawoens (2006:3), Aijmer and Altenberg (1996:12) as summarised by Oyedokun-Alli show that CA results;

(i) offer new insights into the languages compared.

(ii) can increase our knowledge of language specifics and typological differences as well as universal features.

(iii) can illuminate differences between native and non-native texts as well as between source texts and translations.

(iv) can find practical applications in language typology, translations and lexicography.

(v) ensure the benefit of comparing learner's output with that from a corpus of professional translations for determining rates of over/under representations.

One should therefore align with the view that a contrastive study of English and any other language is key in the teaching/learning process, and codification of minority languages.

The benefits derived from CA do not mean that it is a perfect theory because theories by other linguists are opposed to Lado's (1957) view on CA, and this projected certain limitations of CA for the sole purpose of determining errors. The Language Acquisition Device, a theory based on generative grammar by American linguist, Noam Chomsky in the 1960s states that children are equipped with rules of language aquisition from birth, and that "children do not simply copy the language that they hear around them. They deduce rules from it, which they can then use to produce sentences that they have never heard" (Chomsky). It is an indication that although CA may help in the identification and perhaps prediction of some errors, it is not solely responsible for error identification in children.

Klein (1986) also criticised the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) that "results of research based on CAH were of less help than expected". This view believes that "similarities and differences in structure are different from the similarities and differences in production and comprehension". Therefore, a specific sound in a language may be easy to perceive but difficult to produce, or vice versa. Thus, prediction of possible transfers should not be based on comparison of structural properties.

This has been corroborated by Bui (2002) who also observed the inadequacy of Contrastive Linguistic Analysis to determine the source of errors as "years of experience have shown that negative transfer is by no means the only source of errors and that the use of contrastive analysis in the classroom failed to bring expected results". He further asserts that "foreign language can be taught and learned without referring to the mother–tongue but that recourse can be made to them if some of their techniques can facilitate learning.

Despite these criticisms, it is clear that syntactic elements are the phonological outout of language at the level of surface structure. Once elements of language have been determined at the level of structure, it becomes materials for contrastive analysis between one language and another without any much recourse to phonology.

2.1.3 Error Analysis

In the course of learning a second language, learners regularly produce utterances in speech and writing which judged by the rules of the second language are erroneous, or-illformed. This point of view gave way later to the notion that errors were an indication of the difficulties the learners had with certain aspects of the language, which could be explained by the persistence of the habits of the mother tongue and their transfer to the new language (Lado, 1957; Corder, n.d). According to Lee (1970), errors were the results of interference and in an ideal teaching situation could be avoided.

Error Analysis (EA) is the evaluation of the performance of L2 learners, the unconscious transfer of mother-tongue (MT) structures to the system of the target language (TL) (Oyedokun–Alli, 2009.9). Error Analysis is not only for practical analysis of errors, but also potentially for scientific ends of errors made by students learning another language (Matthews, 2007:126). Thus, errors are contrasted with 'mistakes' which are performance limitations that a learner would be able to correct. A distinction is often drawn between errors which are noticed and corrected by the speaker, errors which the speaker can correct if prompted to do so, and errors which the speaker cannot correct because of a lack of linguistic knowledge (Crystal, 2008:173). In other words, error is a term used in

psycholinguistics referring to mistakes in spontaneous speaking or writing, attributable to a malfunctioning of the neuromuscular commands from the brain (Crystal, 2003:165).

'Errors' are not the same as 'mistakes'. Crystal (2003:165) summarises that 'errors' are contrasted with 'mistakes' in the sense that, while errors reflect "the level of competence achieved by the learner", mistakes reflect "performance limitations that a learner would be able to correct". People often commit errors not only because they intended such utterances to be so, but that they believe same to be right. In second language learning / use, errors occur consequent to lack of knowledge, over generalisations and false assumptions. Consequently, the system of a second language is distorted in the process of use. Although this study is purely linguistics related, the outcome has relevance in pedagogy especially the L2 teaching and learning. Sphiller (1991) states that "errors are information in contrastive linguistics thought to be caused by unconscious transfer of MT structures to the system of the target language and give information about both systems, and are useful pedagogical feedback".

Errors in language are most often confined solely to second language learners who progressively change their level of competence with time in line with native speakers (Uboh, 2004), and they are wrong language selections which cannot be corrected by the speaker even when attention has been drawn to it (Corder, 1974).
Errors are classified into slips (such that can be corrected by the maker by himself), mistakes (that can be corrected by the maker if pointed out), errors (that cannot be corrected by the maker even if pointed out), and solecisms (that involves

infringement of prescriptive rules of correctness such as ‘split infinitive’, etc.) (Johansson, 2008:112).

In more recent years, there have increasingly been voice about the status and applicability of contrastive linguistic studies in language teaching (Ritchie, 1967; Nemser, 1971; Slama-Cazazu, 1971; Dulay and burt, 1974d), firstly because not all difficulties and errors can be traced back to the influence of the mother toungue (Richards, 1971a; Dulay and Burt. 1973; Duskova, 1969) and consequenrly, other explanations must be sought …It is however not sufficient to focus on identification and, or prediction of errors alone in contrastive analysis. The most difficult points may be avoided and problems in these areas will not be revealed jn error analysis (Johansson. 2008.114).

Bui (2002) says Contrastive Linguistics (CL) is broad, and involves all major aspects of language including Phonology, Semantics, Syntax and Pragmatics. Bui projected the fact that pragmatics in particular which “portrays language as a socio–cultural phenomenon intertwined with the subjective as perceived by the speaker” was missing in CA could have led contrastive studies to doom. This is strengthened by convincing criticisms which projects that interference from the L1 is not the sole source of error in L2 learning”, that “Many errors are not even linguistic in origin, but they are psychological and pedagogical”. Also, that “the predictions of students’ errors in L2 made by CA are not reliable” and that “CA is based on, and perpetrates, a naïve view of language structure” in Wilkings (1970)

The best way to study language is to analyse the total performance of learners and match it against what native speakers do in a similar situation. The essence of doing

error analysis should not be limited to wrong or negative performance, but also on what the learner does right.

2.1.4 Contrastive Analysis and Linguistics

According to Crystal (2008:284), Linguistics is the scientific study of language, or in other words, Linguistic science. This arose largely out of the work of the American Linguist, Noam Chomsky, whose more sophisticated analytic techniques and more powerful theoretical claims gave linguistics an unprecendented scope and applicability. There are so many domains under this scope including contrastive analysis (contrastive linguistics).

Contrastive Analysis (Contrastive Linguistics – Crystal, 2008:284) is concerned with the investigation of language, particularly as carried on in certain areas of Applied Linguistics, such as foreign-language teaching and translation. Points of structural difference are identified and studied as areas of potential difficulty – interference or negative transfer in foreign language learning.

The contrastivists assume that while every language may have its peculiarities, all languages have enough in common for them to be compared and classified into types. All languages share certain characteristics, but patterns (universal rules) are more common (https://www.weareteacherfinder.com). In view of this, every contrastive linguistic exercise "aims at producing inverted (by contrast) two valued typologies". This assertion is strengthened by the submission that CA is always concerned with a pair of languages and it is based on the assumption that languages can be compared (James, 1980:27). Similarly, Mair (2018) views that although comparisons were carried out in the past for the benefit of the community, especially

in foreign language teaching or in translation, the languages compared can as well be genetically related or unrelated, and typologically similar or dissimilar.

Contrastive Analysis is related to certain fields of linguistics in some way. This relationship is tied to the field of applied linguistics, bilingualism and psycholinguistics. First thing to note is that Applied Linguistics is technically not a science but a technology that depends on pure linguistics (James, 1980:5). The argument here is that successful application of linguistic knowledge is determined by the availability and "use of the ingredients of theoretical studies" in linguistics. This stance had earlier been postulated by Chomsky (1965:38) that "Real progress in linguistics consists in the discovery that certain features of given languages can be reduced to universal properties of languages and explained in terms of their deeper aspect of linguistic form". It was even clear that learners irrespective of their L1 commit uniform errors. This renders CAH deficient in predicting all learners' errors, but was useful in retrospective explanation of errors (Oyedokun-Alli, p.16). This negatively affects the strength of CA.

According to *Merriam Webster Dictionary*, "Contrastive Linguistics is a branch of linguistics concerned with showing the differences and similarities in the structure of, at least, two languages", hence a synonymous terminology with CA (defined above). When it became clear that contrastive linguistics was not going to provide the foundation for a comprehensive theory of foreign-language learning, the field started showing signs of strain. Over time, it has avoided disintegration and managed to reposition itself successfully, not as a clearly derived subfield, but rather as an approach that has continued to prove its usefulness to a wide range of applied and theoretical linguistic domains. These domains include systemic language

acquisition reesearch, translation studies and translation theory, lexicography, the study of cross-cultural communication, and even cultural studies, constant refinement of notions such as first language transfer and interference, or through fruitful interdisciplinary dialogue with language typology, but also contrastivists active contribution to the construction of digital research tools such as learner corpora and translation corpora Mair (2018)..

Generally, the submission by the opponents of CA is the absence of an established criterion for comparability. This is despite the worldwide growing evidence of scholarly and discrepancies between a variety of source and target languages (Mickel, 1971:13). It is timely to say that "One should not reasonably expect an individual linguist to study all the world's languages. Rather, such linguist should gather confirmatory evidence from the one or two other languages he is familiar with (James 1980"8 and Bui, 2002), and such exercise can be adjudged as a contrastive analysis. Therefore, contrastive analysis is a domain in general linguistics particularly connected to applied linguistics, and generally relevant to other fields discussed above.

2.1.5 Basic Assumption About Contrastive Analysis

Corder (1974:233) identifies three possible bases for Contrastive Analysis:

(a) That the representative elements (in this case Tenses and Aspects) of the systems being compared (or contrasted) are translation equivalents. That is, there is an equivalence of meaning between the languages.

(b) That the systems of contrast in each language were similar. He referred to this as, 'formal equivalence between the languages'.

(c) That the terminology used for describing each language was the same, i.e the 'number' system, singular, plural, count mass, noun phrase, tense and aspect, etc. He referred to this as equivalence of nomenclature.

The assumptions simply suggest that in CA, dimensions or categories used must be applicable to both systems. The outcome of CA of nouns cannot be applied to the class of verbs, etc. Thus, in Contrastive Analysis, dimensions or categories used must be applicable to both systems as it is carried out in the tenses and aspects within the verb phrases of English and Adara in this thesis..

Jordan in Oyedokun-Alli (2009:4) outlines the scope of Contrastive Linguistics / Analysis as follows:

i. analysis of contrastive phoneme
ii. analysis of morpho-syntactic categories
iii. analysis of morpheme having grammatical meaning
iv. analysis of word order
v. componential analysis of lexemes
vi. analysis of lexical relations
vii. Contrastive Analysis of morpho - syntactic systems
viii. analysis of translational equivalents
ix. study of interference in foreign language learning.

Oyedokun – Alli concludes that "All these have helped in re-awakening interests in Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA), not only in pedagogy but also in formal properties of language". In this way, researchers are able to undertake works in all forms of linguistic analysis.

2.2 The Verb Phrase

According to Crystal (2008:510), the term verb phrase (VP) is used in two senses. Traditionally, it refers to a group of verbs which together have the same syntactic function as a single verb. For example, ‘is coming’, ‘may be coming’, ‘get up to’. In such phrases (verbal clusters), one verb is the main verb (a lexical verb) and the others (auxiliary verbs, catenative verbs) are subordinate to it. A verb followed by a non-verbal particle (similar in form to a preposition or adverb) is generally referred to as a phrasal verb.

In generative grammar, however, the VP has a much broader definition, being equivalent to a whole of the predicate of a sentence as is clear from the expansion of S as NP + VP in the phrase-structure grammar. There are certain elements in the verb phrase consisting exclusively of verbs. In most verb phrases, one verb, called the main verb, carries information about what kind of event, activity, state, etc. the verb phrase refers to. Other verbs in the verb phrase, called auxiliary verbs, contribute additional perspectives on the meaning of the verb phrase, relating, for example, to time and modality (possibility, necessity, volition, prediction). The following example illustrates the structure of a typical verb phrase.

Could	**have**	**occurred**
Auxiliary /	auxiliary /	main verb

The main verb is the head of the VP, just as a noun or pronoun is the head of a noun phrase. In English, in a VP with more than one verb, the main verb always comes last. In verb phrases (with more than one word) that are marked for tense (presenr or past) the tense inflection is always attached to the first verb in the verb phrase. In the

example above, the first auxiliary ‘could’ is a past tense form (‘can’ would be the present tense form).

Note that not all verb phrases are marked for tense, however. Those that contain no present or past tense verb forms are referred to as non-finite verb phrases. For example, infinitive verb (basic form of verb with no reference to a specific tense, person, or subject) phrases, and verb phrases introduced by present or past participles (-ing and –ed forms). Examples of non-finite clauses are (Academic Writing in English - https://awelu.srv.lu.se) :

(a) To guarantee maximum security, all user keys must be stored.

(b) Having established peace throughout the region, the army returned to Rome.

(c) Blinded by his misunderstanding of the data, Prof. James refused to change his attitude towards more recent theories.

The verb is a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to a class traditionally defined as ;doing;, or ‘action’ (a description which has been criticised in linguistics, largely on the grounds that many words do not ‘act’ in any obvious sense, for example, seem, be.

The formal definition of a verb refers to an element which can display morphological contrasts of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and number. Therefore, verb phrase here refers to all auxiliaries, modals and all forms of inflections or affixes used with the lexical verbs in varying sentence structures (Scott, Bowley, Brockett, Brown and Goddard, 1968:38). The VP follows the NP in English language sentences.

A verb or lexical verb is a linguistic element which can display morphological contrast of tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number (Crystal, 2003:490). Crystal explains that a verb is used either singly or in combination with other elements (such as adverbials and auxiliaries) to form the predicate of a sentence. Lexical verb is the main verb in a sentence and it varies in structure depending on the meaning intended. (Bowley, Hockett, Brown and Goddad, 1968:29). That is, the addition of inflections (word formation processes to signal plurality, past tense, progressive tense, possession, etc.) such as –ing, -s, ed, t, to achieve grammatical effects. To illustrate, see the following:

Base	**- s**	**- ing**
Walk	walk + s	walk + ing

Base	**- d**	**(clique (Addition)**
Walk	walk + ed	+ - ed / t/

Or the invariable form which is not morphologically distinguished between the base and the -ed form. These are called irregular verbs. For example:

Base	**- ed**	**- en**
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit

The lexical verb is an obligatory element in every verb phrase (except in verbless constructions) in English and it is critical in describing actions whether in the past, present or future. Thus, tenses and aspects are realizable with the combination of a verb in English language sentences.

Thus, the predicate is that part of the sentence traditionally associated with a major constituent of sentence structure with a two part analysis in which all obligatory constituents other than the subject are considered together. For example (Crystal, 2008:281): (a) Sue walked; (b) Sue kick the ball; (c) Sue went on holiday, would all be seen as 'subject (Sue) + predicate constructions. It is traditionally seen "as that part in the clause or sentence as representing what is said of the subject" (Matthews, 2007:314): For example in the sentence "My wife / bought a coat in London" 'My wife' is the 'subject' of the sentence and the remaining 'bought a coat in London' is the predicate.

The verb indicates an action stated in an utterance (Aliyu, 2006:189, Matthews, 2007:427). Matthews (2007:314) states that 'a verb occurs in a sentence as 'predicator', a term used in Systemic Functional Grammar (i.e. an element in a clause that determines, wholly or in part, the other elements that its construction may or must have). For example, in the sentence "I bought a present for Musa", the verb 'bought' is one that must have both the subject 'I' and a direct object (a present) and allows a benefactor (for Musa). The use of 'predicator' is made in order to avoid the use of 'verb' within Subject-Verb-Object sentence structure both in functional and formal sense (Crystal, 2008:278).

Crystal (2003:44) states that "the auxiliary verbs, on the other hand, are simply identified as helping verbs, and they are subordinate to the lexical verbs (a lexical verb is always a main verb)". For example, they are used to make distinction between tense, aspect, mood, voice, etc.: 'I had come', 'I am coming'. He further refers to the auxiliary verb as "belonging to a small class which syntactically accompanies other verbs operating lexical verbs or full verbs". These according to

Crystal include “do, be, have”. Matthews (2007:33) adds that “auxiliary verbs physically mark modality, tense and aspect”.

Auxiliary verbs differ from lexical verbs. When the auxiliary verbs are said to oppose the lexical verbs, it simply means they differ morphologically and syntactically. Morphologically, while auxiliary verbs leave more or less forms than the lexical verbs, in syntactic function, there are four criteria by which auxiliary verbs are classified including negation, inversion, substitution and marked positive element. These are discussed below:

i. Negation: auxiliary verbs operate in negative verb phrases (verbal groups) where they take the enclitic form of the system as in ‘I can’t come’ but not ‘I jumpedn’t’.The term ‘enclitic’ (derived from clitic) refers to a form which resembles a word, but which cannot stand on its own as a normal utterance, being phonologically dependant upon a neighbouring word (its host) in a construction. For example, it is enclitic in ‘can’t’ having been preceded by the ‘host’ word; or ; proclitic when it precedes the ‘host’ word as in ‘not coming’ i.e., particle + host’ (Crystal,2008:80).

ii. Inversion: auxiliary verbs are obligatory in ‘I’ clauses which have inversion. That is, clauses which have the subject within the predicate, characteristically interrogative, and clauses with semi-negative adverb at initial position, as in ‘Will he come?’ and ‘Never had I said such a thing’ respectively.

iii. Substitution: the auxiliary verb ‘do’ functions only to substitute for a lexical verb in English as in “I like it and so **do** they’. ‘He will play on Thursday and I think Henry **will** too’.The second example above shows that “in a linked sequence of clauses in which the verbal groups contain auxiliary verbs, only the auxiliary verb need be repeated after the first clause”.

iv. Marked positive element: auxiliary verbs are stressed in a verb phrase (verbal group) in order to stress the polarity (yes-ness and no-ness) or modality without stressing the lexicality of the verb at 'I' as in 'You must see him'; 'He has been asked'; 'I can come'.

Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs used to express necessity or possibility in English. They include:

will/would, can/could, shall/should, may/might. They are a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality to show a speaker's point of commitment to the epressed proposition, believability, obligatoriness, desirability or reality (SIL International, 2003). Modal verbs have only one form and do not take inflections. Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner (2014:253) says that the "core modal verbs" being "a sub group of auxiliary verbs that express modality … share some distinct grammatical characteristics … such as "inversion and negation".

In normal declaratives, auxiliary verbs, subordinate to the main lexical verbs "usually precede other verbs" (Crystal, 2003:44), and "up to four auxiliary verbs may be used in one verbal group" (Scott et al, 1968:30). In English language, Olu-Tomori (1977:59) illustrates in detail the structure of the verb phrase (verbal group). He says, in the sentence 'I saw him', the verb is 'saw' and constitutes a phrase (group)". Other elements such as 'can see', 'shall have seen', shall have been seen' are variations of the structure of the verb phrase (verbal group) 'saw'. Olu-Tomori further states that the highest number of words that can be brought together in a verb phrase (verbal group) (like this) is four as opined by Scott et al (ibid), notwithstanding the possibility of having grammatical constructions with verb phrases (verbal groups) having more than

four elements. For example; ‘I saw him’, ‘I can see him’, ‘I shall have seen him’, ‘I shall have been seeing him’ (Olu-Tomori, ibid).

Also in English language, the item that marks tense is in the verb phrase (verbal group). Olu-Tomori states that “in every verb phrase (verbal group), the first member of the group is grammatically marked for tense, present and past” for example, in the group “could have been eating”, the first member of the group is ‘could’, which is clearly marked for the past tense. He concludes that the first member of a verb phrase (verbal group), therefore, is the clear carrier of the tense marking element (Olu-Tomori, ibid”63). The verbal group (verb phrase) is not the same as the nominal group (noun phrase) in English language. Although both groups have elements that occur structurally as modifiers, only the nominal group or noun phrase has qualifiers (preceded by the Head - noun). Every nominal (head) is capable of being preceded by a modifier or precedes a qualifier. The group, ‘the man’ can be expanded to “the young/old/tall/short man” and to “the man who was in the room”. We see that a relative clause is used to qualify a nominal (noun) in a nominal group or noun phrase. On the other hand, a single verb can form the verbal group or verb phrase; it can be preceded by modifiers which by classifications are seen as auxiliaries. The verbs hardly take any direct qualifier as is the case with the nominal. Thus, to form tense and aspect in English, the verb either alone or preceded by auxiliaries forms the verbal group/verb phrase within which the first member (word) marks the tense especially in declarative sentences.

More succinctly, Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1970:52) state that noun phrases (nominal groups) and verb phrases (verbal groups) may often contain some of the same kinds of constituents. But, just as every noun phrase has to contain at least one constituent, a noun, every verb phrase has to contain at least one constituent, a verbal (VB) or verb.

An attempt is made here to illustrate the characteristics of a verb using the Adara language. Thus, the above characteristics are also applicable to the syntactic structure of the Adara verb phrase or verbal group showing tense and aspect. In each of the following examples, there is at least one constituent (the verb – 'la') in the verb phrase or verbal group (from intuition) as follows"

i) 'la' (eat)

ii) 'su la' – is eat (is eating)

iii) 'ku la' – has eat (has eaten)

iv) 'sa ku la'- had do eat (had eaten)

v) 'ki la' (will eat)

vi) 'ki sa uki'- will move walk (will travel).

The above examples clearly show that the verb is an obligatory element in every verbal group verb phrase. Obligatory here means that the presence of one member (a lexical verb) of the set is required by the grammatical context (Bybee, 1985 and Dahl, 1985).

2.3 The Sentence

In English Language, a sentence is syntactically identified by the type of punctuation mark that ends it. It is usually marked by terminal punctuation marks such as the 'Full stop' (.), the question mark (?), and the exclamation mark (!) (Tomori, 1977:50). This means that in a discourse, a sentence is preceded by any of the said punctuation marks and ends with any of them. For example, 'He saw him', 'He came yesterday', 'What did you say?' 'What a pity! Note that sentences which do not clearly have nominal groups (noun phrases) and verbal groups (verb phrases) will not be discussed here as the main crux of this work is in the verb elements where the structure of tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages can be explained as such.

The identification and description of smaller units within a sentence rather than the sentence itself helps in generating the general rules about the construction of sentences. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:10) state that "traditionally, there is a primary distinction between subject and predicate" in a sentence. The subject has a close general relation to what is being discussed with normal implication that something new (the predicate) is being said about a subject that has already been introduced. This relationship establishes concord through those parts of the noun that permit a distinction between singular and plural; or part of the verb that permits a distinction between past and present. For example in the English sentence (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 10) "The **girl** is now a student at a large University" (or "The **girls** are now students… ") and "They **make** him the Chairman every year" (or "They **made** him the Chairman …") respectively. In both examples, the noun 'girl'/'girls' marks the singular/plural; and the verb 'make'/'made' marks the present and past forms respectively. It also shows that the subject (noun phrase) precedes the predicate in declarative sentences.

In view of the above stated relationship, Tomori (*ibid),* citing Halliday, states the elements of a sentence structure as (1) the subject (S), (2) the Predicator (P'), (3) Complement (C), and (4) the Adjunct. He illustrates that in the sentence "Man is an animal", 'man' is the subject, 'is' is the predicator, and 'an animal' is the 'complement'. Depending on the structure, groups are identified by the position they occupy in a sentence (clause) such as SPC. In the English sentence, "What you said is not clear", 'What you said' is the subject (S).

However, in contemporary grammar, Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:12) identify elements of sentence structure as Subject, verb, complement, object, adverbial (SVCOA) as illustrated in the following sentences:

The girl (S) is (V) now (A) a student (C) at a large University (A).

John (S) carefully (A) searched (V) the room (O).

The distinction above reveals the syntactic characteristics of sentences depending on the choices made by the speaker or writer. Thus, a sentence is "a set of words that is complete in it typically containing a subject and predicate; conveying a statement, question, exclamation, or command and consisting of a main verb and sometimes with one or more subordinate clause(s)". (https://englishdictionaries.com).

Discussion of sentence above is not as easy as it looked. But it is carried out for the purpose of this thesis. However, criticisms about defintions of a sentence as 'subject and predicate', 'having a full stop at the end', 'question mark at the end' and so on may not be tenable in many instances.

Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner (2014: 375) observes that one reason for discrepancies in defining 'sentence' is that not all sentences have a subject and a predicate. For example, imperatives usually lack an express subject. At the same more than one grammatically complete sentence can be run together in writing with only one full stop, so that grammatical and orthographic sentences may not correspond (e.g. I came, I saw, I conquered.. as for spoken language, it is often impossible to say where one sentence ends and another begins.

Furthermore, Aarts et al (ibid) say another problem affects the definition of the sentence as 'the largest unit of analysis in grammar', since pro-forms, conjuncts, and

cohesive devices such as reference and substitution often operate over stretches of discourse larger than the sentence. And we ought to recognise the theoretical possibility of a sentence containing an infinite number of clauses through recursion, a phenomenon whereby a particular type of linguistic unit or structure is contained within a unit or structure of the same type (Aarts et al, 2014: 353).

This work is however limited to the element 'V' representing the verb phrase/verbal group in the simple sentence, except in transforms where elements of the subject or noun phrase have been mainstreamed with the verb elements, as a result of negation, inversion or substitution in the sentence. It is the structures where tenses and aspects are realised in a sentence that are being contrasted as found in English and Adara languages. Other groups such as noun phrase, prepositional phrase, and adverbial phrase; or in other words, complements and objects in sentences are discussed only as they relate to the verbal group syntactically in the sentence structure.

2.4 Tense and Aspect in English

Discussion about the system of tense in English tends to be complicated by three factors:

i. Confusion of tense and aspect

ii. Confusion of tense and time reference

iii. Non-consideration of more complex tense formations

Though there is obvious reason for the confusion between tense and aspect in English with regards to notions such as past, present and future in relation to time, it has been maintained that they are different systems (Muir, 1972:130), and should be kept apart in description as noted above. A review of the two concepts below will clear this confusion:

2.4.1 The Concept of Tense

Tense and time differ in linguistics. Palmer (1965:68), views tense as verb forms that function mostly to indicate past and present in three ways using adverbials. This means that the adverbials mark the time reference in a tense construction. He identifies three kinds of adverbials for this purpose, namely;

(i) Adverbials used with past tense only, for example;
last week, yesterday, long time ago

(ii) Adverbials used with present tense only, for example;
Now, at this moment

(iii) Adverbials used with any period of time except the present, for example;
today, this week, this year, etc.

This is an indication that verbs such as 'was, went, did, etc.' are not used to indicate time chronologically (presented or arranged in the order in which events occur or occurred).

It is purely a linguistic relation to the speaker/writer and the phenomenon. Tense is seen as a term used to indicate a verb form and chronological time. Tense and time are not always synonymous terms in English and a past does not necessarily refer to the chronological past. It refers to the past (tense) form of modals such as 'could', and other verb forms such as the auxiliary verbs 'had', or other verbs 'known', etc. (Palmer, ibid).

Frequently, tense does not refer to real time situations. For example, in the sentence, "if I had known how it happened, I could guide him", the tense is a clear expression of the present, but with linguistic features of the past. The conception of tense and

time as synonymous is an error that has been misleading many L2 users of the English Language.

In ‘Studies in Linguistics’ (SIL: 2017) “Glossary of Linguistic Terms”, “tense refers to the absolute location of an event or action in time, either the present or the past … marked by an inflection of the verb”. For example:

David ‘walks’ to school (Present Tense.)
David ‘walked’ to school (Past Tense).

Reference to other times, the future, for instance, can be made in a number of ways, by using the modal auxiliary ‘will’ or the semi-auxiliary ‘be going to’ as in:

David ‘will walk’ to school tomorrow; and
David ‘is going to’ walk to school tomorrow.

Since the expression of future time does not involve any inflection of the verb, we do not refer to a ‘future tense’. Strictly speaking, there are only two tenses in English: present and past.(SIL, ibid)

Crystal (2007:459) states that “In linguistics, the relationship between tense and time has been the subject of much study, and it is plain that there is no easily statetable relationship between the two”. Crystal further states that, “tense forms can be used to signal meanings other than temporal”. This is illustrated in English by the fact that past tense form may express other meaning other than past time. For example, ‘I knew’, ‘I wish I knew’ which means ‘to know now’ (Crystal, ibid). In another example, a speaker in the classroom or even in the home lesson with his children may choose to compare the following sentences:

I drive my Car

I am driving my car

I drove my car

I was driving my car

I had driven my car

That the above sentences were made at the same time does not mean that the speaker was actually performing all the actions at the same time. One person cannot be doing the actions described above at the same time. Thus, there is no simple one-to-one relationship between tense forms and time.

Lyons (1977:682) sees tense as a deictic category which is not merely time bound or even temporarily restricted, but makes a reference to some point or period of time which cannot be identified except in terms of zero point of reference. He sees the distribution of past, present and future as non - essential to the definition of tense as long as the temporal zero point of statement or utterance could be identified. For example:

(a) Elizabeth enjoys eating;

(b) Musa wants to travel;

(c) He is sitting at home now; and

(d) He was sitting at home in the morning yesterday,

The words, ‘is’ and ‘was’ are finite (auxiliary) verbs used to express tense, present and past respectively, while the words ‘wants’ and ‘enjoys’ are present singular verbs without any auxiliary (-ies).

Tomori (1977:119) refers to tense as "a feature of the clause that relates the organization of the clause to the non–linguistic concept of time". This organization according to him "is not exclusive to the verbal group" (verb phrase) but that "the adverbial group (adverbial phrase) also plays an important role". He concludes that, "the verbal group (verb phrase) however is the part of the clause where the system of tense is principally organized or realised. Traditionally, in tense, a distinction is made between past, present and future, often with further divisions (perfect, pluperfect, etc.). In linguistics, the relation between tense and time has been the subject of much study, and it is now plain that there is no easily state–able relationship between 'tense' and 'time' (Crystal 2003:459). Crystal states that 'tense forms in English (variations in the morphological form of the verb) can be used to signal meanings other than temporal ones such as (i) I know, may signal a tentative meaning, and not past time in some contexts, for example;

' I wish I know' – that is 'know now'.

This approach to explaining tense, accepts but not limited to the traditional view of English tense which sees it as being paradigmatically of three terms including the past, present and future.

The other criteria include two terms (past and non–past or present and past) based principally on morphological analysis. Tomori (ibid: 120 – 121), presents three important descriptions of tense (not limited to traditional grammar) that:

1. (a) The selection of tense may be made more than once in one verbal group which leads to a great increase in the morphological complexity of the verbal group which is characterised with a great regularity;
   (b) the selection is recursive but not infinitely recursive;

(c) the limits are set by the system itself which has combinatory restrictions known as 'stop rules' which only allows the fact that:

(i) Present can occur only at the outer end of the series.

(ii) Except at the position of the lexical verb or position next to it in the verbal group, the same tense cannot be selected twice consecutively; and

(iii) Future can occur only once other than the first position of the lexical verb.

2. It is the entire verbal group (verb phrase) as described above that is involved in the realisation of tense, not just the lexical verb with or without non–modal operators; and
3. Tense is a system of systems divided into the major system, the minor system, the modal/non–finite and the minor sequent. The major system is the basic one to which the other two can be related in realisation terms. It has its domain in the active finite verbal group (verb phrase) within the indicative clause.

In conclusion, tense, being purely a linguistic phenomenon, is seen as related to, but not limited to chronological time. Tense forms the basis of establishing the chronological time in a sentence but it is not under any obligation to do so to be referred to as tense. Tense past and present are determined by the morphological inflection of the verb but must employ the use of the auxiliary verbs and the semi-auxiliary 'be going to' to refer to the future. This analysis enables us to carry out a contrastive analysis of tense structures in both English and Adara languages. And these are of different types.

2.4.2 Types of Tenses in English

Tense is divided into the following classes:

(i) The present simple tense

This type of tense shows that constant, unchanging, or repeated action, state or habit exists in the present. The use of affixes on verbs in the 3rd person singular is a rule in English grammar that must always be employed. For the 1st and 2nd persons, the base form of the verb is used. Truth assertions of the past, present and future are common fields where the present simple tense is used. Habitual present such as daily activities including human occupations (e.g. 'we go to work every day), obligations such as religious (e.g. I go to Church everyday) or academic routines (e.g Peace goes to school every day), house chores (They wash the toilets everyday) are all applicable. Inflectional morphemes such as '-s' in 'He eats daily', '-es' as in 'Baby cries always' are used to express the present perfect tense, otherwise, the base form of the verb is maintained as in 'I go', 'we go', 'they go', etc..

(ii) The present progressive tense

This type of tense is best categorised under 'aspect'. However, it is used to describe an incomplete on going present action expected to end at some point. Auxiliary verbs (such as, am, is, are) are mostly used to precede the base form of the verb inflected with an '-ing' suffix. For example, 'Saviour is eating his food', etc. Other discussions regarding the present progressive tense are reserved for the review on 'aspect'.

(iii) The present perfect tense

Ubahakwe and Dele in Yaro, (2011:34) see the present perfect tense as "A reflection of a present action with an indication that such an action has ended a short while

ago". It is formed by using the auxiliary verb (have/has) with the past participle form of the verb. For example: 'Caleb 'has collected' the key', 'I 'have finished' eating'.

(iv) The simple past tense.

This is used to express a completed act in the past, not a while ago as is the case with the present perfect tense. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:40) opine that the simple past tense expresses an idea of completeness of an action at a specific time in the past. It describes an action that started and ended in the past and is no longer connected with the present action linguistically. Verbs used to express the simple past mostly end with the inflectional suffix'-ed' (for regular verb bases), while irregular verbs take other forms. For example: 'The Captain kicked the ball', 'The President's tenure expired last year', and 'I went to Kano last month' express the '-ed', '-d' and the irregular form (go+past = went) respectively.

(v) The past continuous tense

Also, this is an element of the progressive aspect. It describes an action that started in the past time, was going on during the point of reference and has ended. Verbs such as was/were, with the present participle form of the verb (-ing) are used. For example: 'I was eating when my wife returned', 'We were travelling to Kaduna when he called'. The function of the auxiliary verbs ('was' and 'were') is catalystic in expressing the tense, whereas the present participle ('eating' and 'travelling') bears the '-ing' to show continuity.

(vi) The past perfect tense

The past perfect tense expresses an action that took place in the past before another point in time. 'He *had finished eating* when the lecturer *entered*' the classes.

Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) refer to the past perfect tense as "a past time earlier than another past time". It expresses two or more events/activities that took place and finished at different times in the past. The auxiliary verb 'had' is used with the past participle to form the past perfect tense. For example: 'He married a second wife after I had cautioned him', 'The VC 'had *assumed'* office before the convocation 'held' in ABU Zaria.

Detail review on the types of tenses is necessary in view of the morpho-syntactic behaviour of the verbs used. Observations here show how contextually fixed the inflectional and syntactic patterns are with respect to the lexical verbs. This rigidity is determined by the semantic relations a verb is capable of entering into (Bybee, 1985 and Dahl, 1985). These processes of the English language tenses will be contrasted with those of the Adara language, syntactically. The future tense is not repeated here because it has been established to limit to the use of modal auxiliary verbs in their base form such as 'will', 'can', etc. and semi-auxiliaries such as 'be going to'.

2.4.3 The concept of Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that express a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb ... and it is often indicated by verbal affixes or auxiliary verbs (SIL, 2017). Matthews, (2007:29) states that "Aspect which relates to tense are used for verbal categories that distinguish the status of events, etc. in relation to specific period of time as opposed to their simple location of present, past or future". He cites such examples as 'I am reading your book' which means that 'the action of reading is taking place at the time of speaking/writing; and 'I have read your book' meaning "the action of reading has

been completed". He, therefore, concludes that "aspect is a grammatical category of verbs that considers qualities of action independent of tense". This shows that indicative or finite clauses do not make a choice from the system. It was originally introduced into linguistics by specialist in Slavic languages who identified it to be used in verbal groups in any sentence to indicate completeness or non – completion of an action described in it.

Tomori (1977:128), further, explains that "where 'aspect' is expressed within the imperative or non–finite in English, the terms are 'perfective', 'imperfective' or 'neutral'. Within the non-finite, this is the choice made between the 'to' non-finite, (traditional infinitive) and the '-ing' non –finite (traditional participle). For example in "to reach the station, take the next on the left" there is future reference; whereas in "reaching the station, take the next on the left" there is reference to past time.

The system of aspect has been confused with that of tense, and in certain respects the two do merge. But they are different systems and are kept apart in description. Aspect, as a subcategory of tense, refers to the duration of an event within a particular sentence. That is, it allows us to describe or understand how an event unfolds over time. The expression of 'aspect' does not occur exclusively of the sentence; rather it is a part of the sentence of occurrence (Matthews. 2007:29). Aspect is classified into the:

(a) Simple

(b) Progressive

(c) Perfect; and

(d) Perfect progressive

Tomori explains that “the perfective/non- perfective aspect in the verbal group is identified by the presence of the auxiliary verb ‘have’ + x + -en form of the lexical verb in many modern grammars of English (subsumed within the tense in this description). That is, the part dealing with past is ‘have’+ x + -en + past in present; and ‘had’ + x + -en + past in past. This illustrates the point of divergence between ‘tense’ and ‘aspect’. The environment or entry condition for aspect, according to Tomori “is imperative (verb expressing command or request) or ‘non – finite’. It is perhaps best considered primarily as a distinction between imperfective and perfective as shown in the difference between these clauses: (i) I ‘have eaten’ the apple and (ii) I ‘am eating’ the apple. Apart from tense, it is clear that in (i) the action has been completed; and in (ii), attention is drawn to the fact that the action is in progress, i.e. it is continuing. The contrast is not, however, between complete and incomplete (perfective and imperfective) in reference to a non – linguistic event. It is simply that the language directs attention in this way. In the clause, (iii) I ‘was eating’ the apple; the action is complete since it is in past time, but attention is still drawn to the continuance over an unspecified period of time of the action. It is the tense, and only the tense which differs between (ii) and (iii) but the clauses are both imperfective. This illustrates also that sentence (i) is a feature of past in present, and (ii) being present in present.

There are a number of problems involved in any comprehensive discussion of aspect in English. But a primary division such as is being suggested here may provide a starting point and may help to illustrate that aspect and tense are different systems. Thus the table below shows the syatem of Aspect:

i. Table showng the system of aspect

System	Terms	Realisation
Aspect →	Perfective →	have + -en
	Imperfective →	be + -ing

A summary of these is as shown in the following table

(www.clearenglishlanguage.com):

ii. **Table showing description of 'aspect' in English tense**.

Tense	Aspect	Example
Present	Simple present	I wash the car.
	Present progressive	I am washing the car.
	Present perfect	I have washed the car.
	Present perfect progressive	I have been washing the car.
Past	Simple past	I washed the car.
	Past progressive	I was washing the car.
	Past perfect	I had washed the car.
	Past perfect progressive	I had been washing the car.

Aspect is further illustrated in the following examples:

(i) David fell in love on his eighteenth birthday

(ii) David has fallen in love on his eighteenth birthday.

(iii) David is falling in love on his eighteenth birthday (www.ucl.ac.uk)

In (i), the verb 'fell' tells us that David fell in love in the past, and specifically on his eighteenth birthday. This is a simple past tense. In (ii) also, the action took place in the past, but it is implied that, it took place quite recently. Furthermore, it is implied that it is still relevant at the time of speaking - David has fallen in love, and that's why he is behaving strangely. It is worth noting that we cannot say *'David is fallen in love on his eighteenth birthday'. The auxiliary 'has' here encodes what is known as 'perfective aspect', and the auxiliary itself is known as the 'perfective auxiliary'.

In (iii), the action of 'falling in love' is still in progress at the time of speaking. For this reason, we call it progressive aspect, and the auxiliary is called 'progressive auxiliary'.

Aspect always includes tense. In (ii) and (iii) above, the aspectual auxiliaries are in the present tense, but they could also be in the past tense: as in 'David had fallen in love' – perfective aspect, past tense; and 'David was falling in love' – progressive aspect, past tense.

The perfective auxiliary is always followed by a main verb in the '-ed' form, while the progressive auxiliary is followed by a main verb in the '-ing' form. We exemplify these points in the table below:

Table iii showing perfective and progressive aspects

Tense	**Perfective aspect**	**Progressive aspect**
Present	Has fallen	Is falling
Past	Had fallen	Was falling

Note that, while aspect always includes tense, tense can occur without aspect. E.g. 'David falls in love', 'David fell in love'.

Nordquist (n.d.) sees aspect as "a verb form (or category) that indicates time related characteristics, such as the completion, duration, or repetition of an action"… and that "the two primary aspects in English are the perfect (perfective) and the progressive (continuous)" as already seen in the above discussion. Nordquist, states that" these two aspects may be combined to form the perfect progressive"; and that "in English, aspect is expressed by means of particles, separate verbs, and verb phrases (https://www.thoughtco.com). Tense behaves differently in that it refers only to the past, present and future references.

Looking at “Change in Contemporary English”, Leech (2012) reviews ‘Aspect” and asserts that “a verb in the progressive aspect usually describes something that takes place during a limited time period” and that, “the English progressive has developed a rather complex meaning, or set of meanings by comparison with progressive constructions in other languages”. The fact that evidence of comparison exists for the English progressive aspect with other languages justifies this venture into contrasting English and Adara languages. We have stated that there are no such works in Adara language as far as the researcher knows. We have, however, noted that the Adara language is similar to English in terms of the major constituents in their sentence structure of subject – verb – object. They however differ structurally within each constituent (group) to be seen at the end of the contrastive exercises (analyses).

2.4.4 Tense and Aspect in English and other Languages

There appears to be some confusion about the structure of tense. In every language there is ‘aspect; as well as, or instead of ‘tense’, tense supposedly referring to time and aspect to completion, duration and similar concepts (Palmer, F., 1984:86-87). While this may be universally accepted, these concepts structurally differ with different languages. For example, in Latin according to Palmer (ibid), “we contrast the distinction between the perfect tenses and the others as one of aspect”. In Slavonic languages, “a regular distinction is made between verbs referring to completed and those denoting non-completed action”. “Russian too has to distinguish between reading a book but not finishing it (‘citat’) and reading a book and finishing it (‘procitat’)” and “in classical Arabic, the only distinction in the verb seems to be one of aspect, ‘complete’ and ‘incomplete’.

Morphologically, English has only two tenses - past and present as illustrated with; takes' and 'took', 'loves' and 'loved' below. The English progressive is expressed by the 'auxiliary' + -ing; the English perfect is expressed by auxiliary 'have' + 'past participle' (Palmer, F. 1980: 86-87).

Tense is conceived as orientation along a time axis so as to involve the point of initiation of speech and the points anterior and posterior to this point". In view of these, Adara could be said to have three tenses marked by the auxiliaries: 'ku', 'su' and 'ki' (past, present and future) respectively. The traditional future is formed with the auxiliary verbs 'will' and 'shall'. But English also has progressive (continuous) expressed by the auxiliary verbs followed by an '-ing' form as in: "The boy is reading a book" ; the perfect, for example "The boy has read the book" which is expressed by the auxiliary 'have' following 'past participle'. The term 'aspect' is often used to refer both to the progressive and perfect, though the term 'phase' has been suggested for the latter (perfect). In any case, it is important to realise that they are only labels.

2.5 Levels of Grammar

Contrasting grammatical structures is carried out on comparable systems of the two languages concerned. 'Levels' in James (1980:67) is a step –by-step algorithm (a logical step-by-step problem solving procedure) for the execution of a representative CA. which involves the juxtaposition of data.

CA owes to linguistics the framework within which the two linguistic descriptions are organised. By 'framework' we mean three things:

i. CA adopts the linguistic tactics of dividing up the unwieldy concept of "a language" into three smaller and more manageable trees: the levels of phonology, grammar and lexis.

ii. CA uses the descriptive categories of linguistics: unit, structure, class and system.

iii. A contrastive analyst utilises descriptions arrived at under the same 'model' of language.

Observance of levels in a contrastive analysis of two languages has its repercussions, as it is difficult to deal with one level without overlapping into another. One cannot say 'because I am dealing with morphology, I dare not mention phonology'. James, (1980:28) states the descriptive statements of an imaginary octogenarian who is a last surviving speaker of a language which says:

i) The language uses the sound [θ], [β], [H], etc.

ii) The language has four words for 'cousin', depending on whether the cousin is male or female or from one's mother's or father's side of the family.

iii) The language shows plurality of nouns in four different ways, each involving addition of consonant to the end of the noun in its singular form.

iv) To ask a question, take the finite verb (which is in initial position in declarative sentences) and transpose it to sentence final position.

A careful look at the above statements should tell the analyst that "the four descriptive statements of our hypothetical last-surviving native speaker are each made on a different level" (James, ibid) as follows:

i) Phonology

ii) Lexis

iii) Morphology

iv) Syntax

Contrastive Analysis of languages does not pretend to cover all aspects of language simultaneously. Therefore, none of the above statements encapsulates a total description of language. Although it is easy to separate the statements according to levels at the stage, it is difficult to do so in the analysis of the juxtaposed texts of the two languages being contrasted. There is the tendency to shift from phonology to grammar in the analysis and so across levels. Such overlaps are illustrated in the following chart by James (ibid):

Table iv illustrating overlap in levels of grammar (James, 1980:28).

L1 / L2	Phonology	Lexis	Grammar
Phonology		ii)	iv)
Lexis	iii)		i) ii)
Grammar	iv)	i) ii)	

2.6 Morphology

The structures of tenses and aspects in English are related to morphological processes involving the English lexical verb. These are called 'inflections'. An example of such inflections can be seen in verb forms illustrated by Aliyu (2006) as 'open, opens, opened, and opening' showing the different forms of the verb including the base and the inflected forms. These inflected forms account for tense

present and past; progressive and perfective aspects. This relationship necessitates the mention of morphology in a syntactic analysis.

The review on "Levels of grammar" above has clearly illustrated how overlaps exist in grammatical analysis. There is no level, be it phonology, lexis, morphology or syntax that is clearly independent of the other (Di Petro, 1971; James, 1980:67). The analysis of past and present tenses as well as perfective and progressive aspects as reviewed above are examples of inflectional morphology.

Yule (1985:60) defines Morphology as "a process of investigating word forms in language generally. Matthews (1991:3) sees it as "a term for that branch of linguistics which is concerned with the forms of words in different uses and constructions". Haspelmath (2002:1) defines morphology as "the study of the internal structure of words". The above definitions refer to the same thing in different ways. Bauer (1983:34) identifies a scope which he divides into two classes, namely: "inflection and word formation" whose operation is primarily through the use of the morphemes construct in English language.

Dealing with the indices used on treatment of the morpheme, Quirk (1972) outlines three categories namely: prefixes, suffixes, and infixes. These are components of affixation and occur only at the word level. The importance of morphological processes in syntactic analysis, especially dealing with tenses and aspects structure, cannot be over emphasised. Thus the three elements in affixation are as follows defining with the umbrella word – affixation:

i. Affixation

Any element in the morphological structure of a word other than a root is called an affix. For example the word un-kind-er has a prefix 'un-', and a suffix '-er' while

the root (or base) is ‘kind’. The root constitutes the core of the word and carries the major component of its meaning. Unlike ‘roots’, the inflectional affixes do not belong to the lexical category of words and are always bound morphemes. A third characteristic of affixes is ‘infix’- a type of affix that occurs within another morpheme. While this is not common to English language, an example has been given in Tagalog from ‘bili’ (buy) to ‘b-in-ili’ (bought) (O’Grady et al. 2011: 118 – 121); in Adara from ‘anu’ (child) to ‘a-na-nu’ (little child); and ‘anayi’ (girl) singular to ‘ana-ra-yi (girls), plural. The process of affixation (distinct from types of affixes – prefixes, infixes, and suffixes) is generally classified into two (Crystal, 2003:15) as ‘derivation’ and ‘inflection’:

ii. Derivation

Derivation is an affixation process that forms a new word with a distinct category or meaning from its root/base form. A common example is that of combining a suffix with a verb to form a noun, changing the word class entirely. .For example; write + -er to realise writer, etc. in Adara: ‘kpa’ (carry) with a flat tone or (cut) with a low tone, and ‘U+kpa+ra’ (load), etc. This category has no direct link with the tense and aspect systems. It will, therefore, have no relevance in the analysis of tense and aspect.

iii. Inflection

Inflection, on the other hand, varies with derivation. Although it uses the same process of affixation in terms of adding suffix to the root in some cases, the following characteristics makes inflection distinct from derivation:

(a) inflection does not change either the grammatical category or the type of meaning found in the word to which it applies.

(b) inflectional affixes occur after all derivational affixes (where applicable) have been applied.

(c) inflectional affixes frequently occur more with the verb than the derivational affixes. See the table below O'Grady (2011: 134-135),:

Verb	With 'ed' (inflectional morpheme)	With 'ment' (derivational morpheme)
Confine	Confined	Confinement
Align	Aligned	alignment
Treat	Treated	treatment
Arrest	Arrested	*arrestment
Strengthen	Strengthened	*strenghtenment
Cure	Cured	*curement

(d) inflectional affixes have semantic transparency and consistency (O Grady, ibid). The inflectional category is the determinant for the formation of tense in view of its structural input on the lexical verb. This will be applied in the analysis with a syntactic approach.

2.7 Syntax

The word syntax originally came from Greek and it means 'a setting out together' or an arrangement, (Yule, 2002:100). Yule (ibid) believes that Syntax is also a traditional term referring to the way words are combined to form sentences. Syntax is opposed to 'morphology' (the study of word structure). It can be seen as 'the study of the interrelationships of the elements in a sentence structure', (Yule, 2010: 96-7). It can be defined according to Carnie (2007:4) as "a study of the level of language that lies between words and the meaning of utterance": i.e. the sentence; and that "it mediates between the sounds that someone produces (organised into words) and what they intend to say".

Most relevant to the CA of the structure of tenses and aspects is the definition of Syntax as an approach to linguistic analysis that works on sentences as sequences of words and the relations which the words of a sequence have to each other as captured byAtkinson, Kilby and Roca (1982:169). They illustrate for example that, in the sentence "Mary writes very interesting letters", the word 'very' indicates a high degree of some property. But if the word 'interesting' is omitted from this sequence we shall be left with "*Mary writes very letters" which renders the 'very' useless as it does not show any relationship to the elements preceding or postposing it. So also, if the word 'letters' is omitted in the sequence, we shall be left with "*Mary writes very interesting … (?). Worse still is when the verb 'writes' is omitted, the sentence becomes 'Mary … very interesting letters' and the meaning becomes distorted.

A sentence is said to be syntactically or grammatically correct if the native speakers of the language judge it to be a possible sentence of their language. The above situation is in O'Grady, TArchibald & Katamba, (2011:153) who also state that "Syntax is the set of rules, principles that govern the structure of sentences in a given language, specifically the word order". It is also used to refer to the study of such principles and processes. In most cases, the goal of syntacticians is the discovery of syntactic rules common to all languages. A basic feature of a language's syntax is the sequence in which the Subject (S), Verb (V), and the Object (O) usually appear in sentences. Crystal (1982:81) states that in language universals, the word order, typological parameters are used to characterise the relative order of subject, verb, and object. There are six logically possible variants accordingly which can as well be utilised in a CA to state the characteristics of a given language.

These are:

Subject – Object – Verb (SOV)
Subject – Verb – Object (SVO)
Verb – Subject – Object (VSO)
Objects – Verb – Subject (OVS)
Verb – Object – Subject (VOS)
Object – Subject – Verb (OSV)

Fromkin, Rodman & Hymes (2003:532) further give examples of languages with the following word order illustrative to the above:

SVO – English, French, Swahili, Hausa, Thai
VSO – Tagalog, Irish, (clasical) Arabic, (biblical) Hebrew
SOV – Turkish, Japanese, Persian, Georgian
OVS – Hpalai (Brazil) Barasano (Columbia), Panare (Venezuela)
OSV – Aparima and Yavate (Brazil)
VOS – Calchiquel (Guatermala) Huave (Mexico).

It thus behoves to accept the fact that every language differs in structure but belongs to a group whose syntactic structures are similar at least, in their broad sense. In which case, English and Adara, under study, belong to the SVO syntactic group in the broad sense as it is with English: I(S) love (V) you (O); and Adara: Ime (S) yo (V) nghu (O) respectively.In the recent linguistic literature, there has been increasing attention paid to the nature and the resolution of conflicts in grammatical descriptions also referred to as mismatches. These conflicts arise between syntax and meaning, between syntax and phonetic form, and among various aspects of syntax itself. The resolution of conflicts in linguistic descriptions manifests syntactically through the various syntactic models.

2.7.1 Theories of Syntax

A model of syntax is a general view of the relations in which words stand, of the rules that govern these relations, etc., hence, again, a pattern that may be followed in describing the syntax of particular languages. Model in this sense is often used interchangeable with theory (Matthews, 2007: 248). Essentially, in our CA of tenses and aspects, we are syntactically interested in the linguistic elements that are used in expressing tenses and

aspects, the interrelationship of the words as arranged syntactically in the structures of available data. There are so many models applicable to this form of analysis hinging on specific syntactic rules as follow:

i. Scale and Category Grammar

According to Crystal (2003:406), Scale and Category Grammar is a linguistic theory devised in the early 1960s by M.A.K. Halliday. In the theory, the structure of language is seen as an interesting set of scales and categories operating at different levels. At the level of substance, the physical data of speech or writing are defined in phonic graphic terms. The organisation of substance into linguistics contrasts is carried out at the level of form: Grammar and lexis being the two main subdivisions. Phonology is seen as an inter-level connecting the levels of substance and form.

Context is a farther inter-level, connecting the level of form with the extra linguistic situation. Linguistic analysis in this view proceeds by establishing four theoretical categories, including - units, classes, structure and systems – an interrelating this by the scales of rank, exponence and delicacy. The theory is best used in a synchronic approach of linguistic analysis (Cummings, 1975). The theory was however superseded by a systemic model of analysis to the extent that Carnie (2014:368) views it (Scale-and-category grammar) as an early version of Systemic Grammar. Morley (1985), states that "Scale and Category Grammar seeks to account for any stretch of language as it actually occurs, in either written or spoken form …" Carnie (ibid) states further that "By contrast, with transformational grammar (TG), however, scale and category is designed to analyse structures as they appear rather than generate them." The theory is thus opposed to principles of TG and constrained to be deficient for the CA of English and Adara tenses and aspects which involves in generating transforms.

ii. Systemic Grammar

Systemic Grammar is concerned to establish a network of systems of relationships which will account for all the semantically relevant choices in the language as a whole (Crystal, 2003:458). It is a model of functional syntax developed by Halliday from the late 1950s. The basic idea is that any act of communication realises a set of choices. For example, utterances such as "She went out" realises among others, the choice of a declarative structure. Each choice is at a certain level in a hierarchy of ranks. The choice of declarative is at clause level. It is also added to other choices on a scale of delicacy and detail. For example, the choice of an interrogative instead of declarative would entail a choice between 'polar interrogative' and WH-interrogative.

Each individual set of choices forms a 'system', thus polar interrogative and Wh-interrogative form one system, declarative and interrogative form another or a part of another. Therefore, a grammar will accordingly describe the system of a language, the relations between them, and the ways in which they are relayed to a level of detail at which all remaining choices are between open sets of lexical units, (Matthews,2007:398-9).

Systemic Functional Linguistics takes the resource perspective rather than the rule perspective, and it is designed to display the overall system of grammar rather than only fragments (Bavali and Sadighi, 2008). Thus, systemic grammar is semantically related and more popular with the British sociolinguistics than structural linguistics.

The theory was originally syntax and structure based. But as it developed, meaning and function became central and thereby affected the original concern of the model. Thus, systemic grammar "became increasingly influenced by ideas on the functional nature of language ... and a multifunctional semantic dimension was not merely added to systemic theory but became central to it" (Morley, 1985 and Carnie, 2014: 410).

The choices offered by the system have a restricted range and tilts towards semantics and sociolinguistics in the contemporary application. It is, therefore, not the chosen model for the structural analysis of English and Adara tenses and aspects.

iii. Tagmemics

Tagmemics is a theory of grammar involving category of tagmeme (the smallest meaningful unit of grammatical form) to convey formal and functional information (Luntalan, n.d.). It is a model of functional syntax developed by Pike, R.E. Langacker, and others from the 1950s. The central concept was the tagmeme, defined as the relation between a syntactic 'slot' and the 'function' such as, subject or object, and a class of units, such as noun phrase or pronoun that can fill its constructions or syntagmemes. Syntagmemes are accordingly characterised by sequences of obligatory and optional tagmemes: for example that of "the people were leaving" by one in which there is an obligatory subject slot, filled by the noun phrase, followed by an obligatory predicate slot, filled by a verb phrase. Each syntagmeme is of a specific size-level: thus this example is of a clause-level-syntagmeme, while those which would represent the construction of "the people" and "were leaving" are at phrase level. Size-levels in turn are linked by potentially recursive relations among syntagmemes, functions and classes. For example, the structure of "the people" is that of a noun phrase. This function as a subject in a structure which is that of a certain class of clause' that in turn might function for example as the object in a larger clause. (They said//the people// were leaving).

This shows that in tagmemics, a construction is a string of tagmeme units or "a syntactic construction viewed as a sequence of its tagmemes" (www.yourdictionary.com). These

exist at the levels of the morpheme, the word, the phrase, the sentence and so on. Here are Sample analyses (Huddleston, 1971):

1. at the sentence level:

She saw John = Subject + Verbal + Obect / Pronoun + Transitive verb + Noun respectively.

2. at the syllable level:

Beg = Tagmeme 1 – b; Tagmeme 2 – e; Tagmeme 3 – g which are Non syllabic slot + Syllabic slot + Non syllabic slot respectively.

Pike was the first to develop clearly a model of this type. The earliest version of systemic grammar was to have much in common with Tagmemics, so too the functional grammar of S.C. Dik and his colleagues, (Matthews, 2007:401). For example, one of tagmemes required for the analysis of English at the syntactic level might be noun-as-subject, in which 'noun' refers to a class of substitutable, or paradigmatically related, morphemes or words capable of fulfilling a certain grammatical function and 'subject' refers to the function that may differ (www.britannica.com).

The structure of verbal groups in some languages is sometimes mainstreamed with particles and negative elements. It is thus clear from the above illustrations that tagmemics may be too restrictive for the syntactic analysis of tenses and aspects in English and Adara, especially where the verb phrase in the translation of "I **will not come** – **aux + particle + verb**" in Adara is "Ime **ki ba mi ba – aux + verb + pronoun + particle".** The principles of tagmemics are therefore not chosen for the analysis of data in this research work to avoid unforeseen restriction that may inhibit success of the contrastive Analysis.

iv. **Cognitive Grammar**

Crystal (2003:80) explains that Cognitive Grammar (CG) is a linguistic theory which uses language as an integral part of cognition (ability to acquire knowledge), a means whereby cognitive content is given structure: originally called 'Space Grammar'. Crystal digresses further that in this approach, the basic function of language is to symbolise conceptualisation of phonology. Grammar is seen as inherently meaningful (or symbolic) component of the theory linking semantics (viewed in conceptualists' terms) and phonology. The pairing of forms and meanings sets up connections between established (entrenched) patterns of neurological activities (units), which serve as templates for categorising expressions. Each unit, (semantic, phonological, or symbolic) corresponds to an aspect of structure; and well-formed expressions are conventionally constructed using a series of units.

Grammatical classes and constructions are analysed as configurations or symbolic structures: a basic distinction is drawn between nominal (things, e.g. noun phrase) and relational expressions (relationships, e.g. verbs, prepositions, adjectives, clauses); grammatical rules are characterised as abstract constructional schemes, (Matthews, 2007:80). This is opposed to Chomsky and his followers' view that knowledge of language forms an independent mental system interfacing with others; characterised in practice by a range of favoured types of investigations including 'Frame Semantics'(conceptual notions) and construction grammar. Leading proponents are R.W. Langacker and G.P. Lakoff, (Matthews, 2007:62).

Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner (2014:69) sum it that CG, as coined by R. Langacker, refers to "the study of grammar using the insights and methodology of Cognitive Linguistics (CL). And CL "is a cover term for a number of different usage-driven and meaning-driven linguistic frameworks in which language is viewed as being part of general human

cognition, rather than being autonomous as in Chomskyan linguistics." While this theory appears to be more inclined to acquisition – relating phonology to semantics, this research is geared towards analysing established structures syntactically, i.e. a step beyond acquisition.

v. Glossematics

Glossematics is a theory of linguistic structure developed by Louis Hjemslev in the 1930s and 1940s (Matthews, 2007:109). Crystal (2003:203) says, it was developed with a view to making it applicable "not just for language, but for general study of humanities (such as Semiology- the study of symbolic systems) in general". Thus, language according to this theory "was seen as one kind of symbolic system whose special features would be classified only when it was compared with others; non-linguistic symbolic systems (e,g, logic, dancing). According to Crystal (ibid), Hjemslev (1943) presented language as a purely deductive system with irreducible and invariant units established by the theory and called 'glossemes' (the smallest units of language. e.g. phonological and semantic features), while the proponents were called glossematicians.

Fricke and Siefkes (2015) see 'Glossematics' as a theory of language of which not all aspects (assumed categories and properties) are empirically accessible in view of its arbitrariness in principle. They state that "the empirical principle together with the principle of arbitrariness ensures that consistency is placed over empirical verification of theoretical categories". In other words, glossematics "is the smallest irreductible unit of both the content and expression planes of language; in the expression plane the glosseme is said to be identical or nearly identical with the phoneme". To the greatest extent possible, Glossematics seeks to take a tabula rasa approach, constructing an internally

consistent framework of axioms (basic propositions assumed to be true) and principles with minimal reliance on external terms (https://educalingo.com).

Although relevant for linguistic analysis, glossematics is not considered by the researcher as the best option for the contrastive study of the structure of verb phrase indicating tenses and aspects English and Adara. Its emphasis on determining the classification of special features, only by comparing symbolic systems with non-linguistic symbolic systems, such as logic and dancing are irrelevant for the contrastive analysis of pure syntactic structures in verb phrases. Glossematics simply deal with phonological and semantic features.

vi. Stratificational Grammar

Stratificational grammar is a linguistic theory devised by an American Linguist, Sydney M. Lamb (b.1929), as exponded in "Outline of Stratificational Grammar (1962), which models language as a system of several related layers (or strata) of structure. Six strata are recognised for English and many other languages. The components of:

Phonology (Comprise of: Hypophonemic- or phonemic; and phonetic Strata).

Grammar (Comprise of: Morphemic and Lexemic Strata).

Semology (Comprise of: Sememic and Hyposememic Strata).

Each stratum is organised in terms of a set of stratal systems, and each system deals with an aspect of linguistic structure which has to be stated independently of the structures operating at other strata. The two patterns of analysis are the 'Tactic analysis' (the patterns of sequential arrangement within each stratum) and 'Realisational analysis' (the relationships between units operating at higher and lower levels (Crystal, 2003:434). Stratificational Grammar has also been defined as a structural framework developed by Sydney Lamb (1969) in the 1960s that aims to provide an account of the structure of

language, the relationship between meaning and speech (www.glottopedia.org; Algeo, 1969).

This theory is considered deficient for the CA of English and Adara tenses and aspects in view of the forms of the study on the verb phrases whose structure involves movements of elements and the use of inflections, derivations, etc.

vii. Government and Binding Theory

Government Binding (GB) is a version of Chomsky's principles and Parameters theory (Matthews, 2007:161-2). Crystal (206) says it assumes that sentences have three main levels of structure – D-Structure, S-structure, and Logical form. S-structure is derived from D-structure and logical form is derived from S-structure, by a simple transformation, 'Move Alpha, which essentially means, 'to move anything anywhere'. The proponents of GB suggest that essentially the same principles of syntax are operative in all languages although they can take a slightly different form in different languages.

GB is commonly called 'Module Theory; in view of its interaction with other theories such as the X-Bar Theory, Case Theory, Binding Theory, Bounding Theory, Control Theory and Government Theory.

II. They have three levels of projection:

(a) a **head** (symbolized as X or X°):

A head is the lowest (or zero) level of projection, which lends its features to the whole XP. These features are lexical (N, V) and/or functional (e.g. person, number, gender).

Some heads take **complements**, i.e. obligatory XPs which are sister to the head.

(b) a recursive **intermediate level** (symbolized as X'):If there is only one ‘X', it may be sister to the **specifier** (SPEC) of XP. A specifier means YP immediately dominated by XP.

In Government-Binding Theory, binding is particularly concerned with the relationship of ‘anaphors, pronouns, and referential expressions to their (grammatical) antecedents, or directly to their referents in the outside world. Here is a simple example from Aarts, Chalker, and Weider (2014:183), ‘When Tom arrived, he unpacked the case’ and ‘When he arrived, Tom unpacked the case’, the people referred to as ‘Tom’ and ‘he’ may (though need not) be one and the same person, with the pronoun ‘bound’ to ‘Tom’. By contrast, in ‘He arrived and Tom unpacked the case’ two people are involved, and the pronoun is not bound.

The processes involved in grammatical analysis using the GB theory deal holistically with complete utterances at phrase and sentence levels. The theory becomes dysfunctional in some transformed structures such as interrogatives especially in contrastive analysis of tenses and aspects structures from two different languages, and so on. For example, it is easier to identify the head and the governed in ‘The man/ is coming’ where ‘man’ is the head of the NP and ‘coming’ is the head in the VP. But, where transformation occurs and the sentence becomes ‘interrogative’ as ‘Is the man coming?’ There are several things that will be left unattended to if GB is used as a means of analyzing the sentence. This includes movement of elements from one constituent to the other, the affixes, and the differences in structure between the source language and the target language.

viii. **Chomskyan Linguistics**

The term ‘Chomskyan’, derived from the name ‘Chomsky’, refers to the “characteristics of, or follower of, the principles of (Avram) Noam Chosmky (b. 1928), Professor of Linguistics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Chosmky’s theory of language structure, known as transformational generative grammar revolutionalised work in linguistics in 1957, with a publication of his monograph “Syntactic Structures”. Later, major publications in technical linguistic topics included “Current Issues in Linguistic Theory (1964) and “Aspects of the Theory of Syntax” (1965). The latter publication introduced a new direction into generative theory, and became the orthodoxy several years. Chomsky’s main publication on phonology was “The Sound Pattern of English (1968) with Morris Halle, referred to in Crystal (2008:75) as “Chomsky and Halle”. Later developments in Chomsky’s linguistic thinking in book form may be found in “Reflections in Language” (1976), “Rules and Representations” (1980), “Knowledge of Language” (1986), “Barriers” (1986), and the “minimalist Program” (1995) and so on.

Crystal states further that by the mid-1960s Chomsky had come to stress the role of language as a key means to the investigation of the human mind. That linguistics can be profitably seenas a branch of cognitive psychology is argued especially in “Language and the Mind” (1968). It is this aspect of his thinking which has attracted a wide readership outside linguistics, especially among philosophers and psychologists. A collection of essays since 1992 is “New Horizons in the Study of Language and the Mind” (2000). In the 2000s, Chomsky has argued that his whole generative grammar project is an exercise in ‘Biolinguistics’: a good summary is in “On Nature and Language” (2002).

Apart from his contributions in linguistics, Chomsky has also been involved in politics and has written widely on US power and involvement (or lack of involvement) in many conflicts around the world, as well as on issues of propaganda, world trade and globalization.Forexample, we have "American power and the New Mandarins" (1961), "The Fateful Triangle" (1983), and "9-11" (2001). Chomsky's political action increased after 11th September, 2001 (Crystal, 2008:76).

In the words of Aarts et al (2014:62), "Chomsky's "Syntactic Structures" (1957) and "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965) introduced "Generative Grammar and gave a radically new direction to linguistics". In this circumstance, Chomsky is known as the father of modern linguistics. Treating a language from the Chomskyan perspectives (Scientific approach) explains why languages are the way they are. For example, that there is a universal basis, or faculty, in the mind, innate in every human and dedicated to language, that incorporates the basic features of language. That "what we all do while learning our mother tongue at a tender age, then is determined relationships between these features based on the data we get by exposure to an unorganized and random set of utterances via interaction with other speakers" (Dovey, 2015; Mouma, 2018).

ix. Deep Structure and Surface Structure

According to Crystal (2008:131), Deep Structure is the abstract syntactic representation of a sentence – an underlying level of structural organisation which specifies all the factors governing the way the sentence should be interpreted. The level provides information which enables us to distinguish between the alternative interpretation(s) of sentences which have the same surface form (i.e. they are

ambiguous). For example, “Flying planes can be dangerous” to mean “Planes which fly” or “To fly planes”; or, even active and passive sentences.

The Surface Structure according to Crystal (2008:466) is the final stage in the syntactic representation of a sentence, which provides the input to the phonological component of the grammar, and which thus most closely corresponds to the structure of the sentence we articulate and hear. Analysing a surface structure of morphemes through constituent analysis is a universal procedure which indicates many important facts about linguistic structures; but it by no means indicates everything. For example, it cannot explain how we recognise certain ambiguous sentences or how we intuitively relate sentences which have different surface forms but the same basic meaning. For example, ‘cats chase mice’ and ‘mice are chased by cats’.

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968:18) explain that:

> The meaning of a sentence is conveyed by its deep structure; the form of a sentence is given by its surface structure. The deep structure of a sentence or constituent provides an explicit account of the meaning of the sentence or constituent, a meaning which is often, not contained in any explicit way in the surface structure. For example, “we know this idea is new” when we hear ‘a new idea’, but the surface structure does not explicitly contain the sentence.

Grinder and Elgin (1973:18, 21) state that:

> All sentences of human language have both a deep structure and a surface structure. The meaning of a sentence is conveyed by its deep structure. The form of a sentence is given by its surface structure. Transformation transforms one constituent into another. A deep structure is what one assumes as the basis of the meaning of a sentence and its syntax.

x. Standard Theory

Standard Theory is the model of Generative Grammar presented by Noam Chomsky in his book (Aspect of the Theory of Syntax (1965). This model introduces the

concept of Deep Structure and Surface Structure", and also posited differences between a speaker's competence and performance (Aarts, 2014:387). The Standard Theory differs from the early Transformational Generative Grammar theory in that it introduces the distinction between competence and performance of an ideal speake-hearer of a language as well as between deep and surface structure in a sentence (Fabisz, 2016).

Chomsky (1965:3) emphasised that the concern of linguistic theory is the 'ideal speaker-listener' in a completely homogenous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is not affected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions such as memory limitations, distractions, shift of attention, interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

However, this model has been developed by Chomsky himself and his associates, and has radically changed (Aarts, ibid).

xi. Extended Standard Theory (EST)

According to Crystal (2008:181), 'Extended Standard Theory' is a model of generative grammar which developed (was revealed) in the early 1970s out of that expounded (described and explained) in Noam Chomsky's "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965), The extension is primarily due to the range of semantic rules, some of which Chomsky suggested should now be allowed to operate with surface structure as input. It was no longer the case that only the deep structure was the development of the semantic representation of a sentence. In a later development of this view, it is argued that perhaps the notion of deep structure can be disposed with altogether, in relation to the semantics, this being determined by a developed notion

of structure. Features of surface structure relevant to the semantics include various functions of stress and intonation, aspects of quantification and the forms in a sentence which provides information concerning the sentence's presuppositions.

xii. Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST)

The name given to the revised version of the EST, proposed by Noam Chomsky in mid-1970s, following the adoption of the 'Trace' convention on the application of movement rules. There are several aspects to the revision; the base component of the grammar now incorporates the lexical hypothesis and the X-bar convention; the notion of surface structure is supplemented by the notion 'shallow structure (S-structure), which provides the input to the semantic rules (as opposed to the 'deep structure of 'standard theory'); there are two semantic components and two levels of semantic representation (logical form and full semantic representation) (Crystal, 2008:416).

Xiii, Universal Grammar

The term 'universal' in linguistics, according to Aarts, (2014:428), refers to "a grammatical feature that is common to all natural languages". Thus, language universals are grammatical characteristics which feature in all languages, and tend to be rather general. For example, all languages have nouns and verbs, have ways of talking about time and place, and distinguish between speaker and addressee.

As stated in "Tool Module", Universal Grammar consists of a set of unconscious constraints that let us decide whether a sentence is correctly formed. The mental grammar is not necessarily the same for all languages. But according to Chomskyan theorists, the process by which, in any given language, certain sentences are perceived as correct while others are not is universal and independent of meaning.

Thus, we immediately perceive that the sentence “Robert book reads the” is not correct English, even though we have pretty good idea of what it means. Conversely, we recognize that a sentence such as “colorless green ideas sleep furiously” is grammatically correct English, even though it is nonsense.

A pair of dice offers a useful metaphor to explain what Chomsky means when he refers to universal grammar as a “set of constraints”. Before we throw the pair of dice, we know that the result will be a number from 2 to 12, but nobody would take a bet on its being 3.143. Similarly, a new born baby has the potential to speak any of a number of languages, depending on what country it is born into, but it will not just speak them any way it likes; it will adopt certain preferred innate structures. One way to describe these structures would be that, they are not things that babies and children learn, but rather things that happen to them. Just as babies naturally develop arms and not wings while they are still in the womb, once they are born, they naturally learn to speak, and are to chirp (short high-pitched sound) or neigh (horse sound).

xiv. **Phrase Structure Grammar**

A phrase-structure grammar analyses sentences or utterances in terms of its syntactic constituents. The instruction formula known as rewrite rules for example states that X→Y means rewrite X as Y (Tomori, 1977:67). In ‘Syntactic Structures’, Chomsky (1957) gave the following examples:

Sentence → NP + VP

NP → T+N

VP → verb + NP

T → the

N → man, ball, etc.

Verb → hit, took, etc.

According to PS rules, Chomsky shows dissection of the sentence “the man hit the ball” in strings where the last line is known as the terminal string shown below:

Sentence

NP + VP

T + N + VP

T + N + verb + NP

the + N + verb + NP

the + man + verb + NP

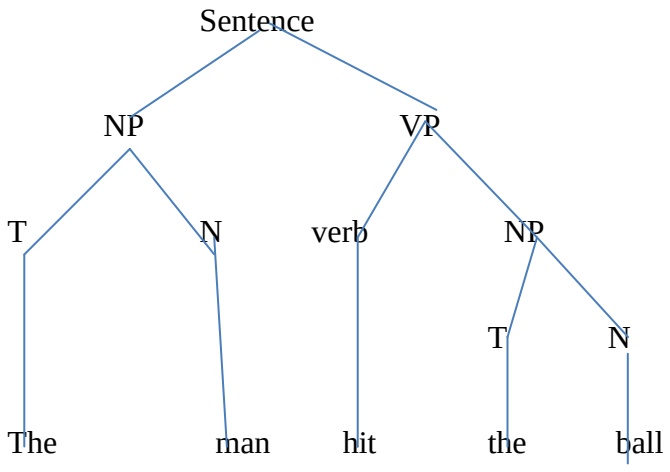
the + man + hit + NP

the + man + hit + T + N

the + man + hit + the + N

the + man + hit + the + ball.

Apart from labeling the sentence elements with the string pattern, it can equally be shown in its constituent structure in a tree diagram as follows:



That is to say that PS rules analyses grammar in terms of its syntactic constituents (Olu-Tomori, 1977:67) Firstly; the rules above are expanded in details as:

S → NP + VP

NP → {Art (Adj) N, (Pro/ PN)}

VP → V NP (pp) (Adv)

PP → prep NP

In the case of the first example, NP means noum phrase and VP means verb phrase. The second (T) example means a noun phrase can have an article to function as determiner, an adjective, a noun or pronoun (or proper noun). In the constituent, the element in bracket is optional and only one of noun (N), pronoun (Pro) or proper noun (PN) can be used at a time in a slot. The VP rewrites as a verb (V), a noun phrase (NP), a prepositional phrase (pp), and adverbial phrase (adv.) where elements in bracket are not obligatory. They are only applied where the context requires.

These rules help to identify and describe the elements of a sentence. It is an attempt to describe sentence elements in linear order. For instance, in the sentence "John saw the boy" has the structure 'Subject + Verb + Object, we see PS grammar in action (Olu-Tomori, ibid)

Secondly, just like the PS rules generate structures at the phrase level, the other rules are the lexical rules which generate structures that specify which words can be used when we rewrite constituents such as N, PN, Art, Pro, Adj., etc. They are as follows:

PN → {Mary, George}

N → {girl, dog, boy}

Art → {a, the, an}

Pro → {it, you}

V → {followed, helped, saw}

These rules can be relied upon to generate the following grammatical sentences as against the ungrammatical:

Grammatical	**Ungrammatical**
A dog followed the boy.	*Followed boy dog.
Mary helped George.	*The helped you boy.
George saw the Dog.	*George Mary dog.
You saw it.	*Saw it you.

Lexical rules are a mechanism to reduce stipulation and redundancy and to capture generalisations in the lexicon. The outputs of lexical rules are words which can be used to build syntactic structures. They relate lexeme (unit of vocabulary) to lexeme, lexeme to words, and words to words as shown in the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences above ((ELLO, 2003).

The third model is the 'movement rules' which were formulated by Chomsky as an improvement to account for elements not clearly generated by the PS rules. These include question sentences which require movement of some elements in the sentence structure. For example; 'He is coming'. This sentence will transform to 'Is he coming? This is not accounted for by the PS rules - S →NP VP. The PS rules deal with sentences that have a fixed word order; merely declaratives. Application of the movement rules requires the expansion of the PS rules to include an auxiliary verb (aux) or particle as part of the sentence as S → NP Aux VP. This is necessary for the CA of the verbal group where lexical and auxiliary verbs occur in sentences as given by Ojo (2011:129-132):

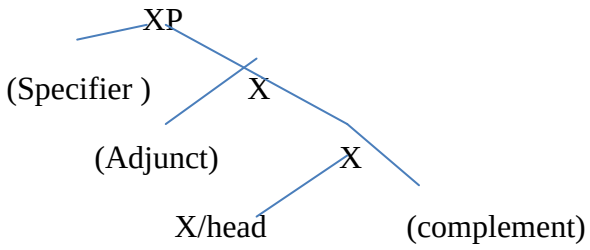
1. **Declarative statement + Negative statement**
   - The examination will start next week. + The examination will not start next week.
2. **Positive statement + Negative Statement**
   - He will come. + He will not come.
3. **Interrogative Question + Inversion**
   - Is the food being served now? + The food is being served now.
4. **Imperative command + Vocative**
   - Eat your food now. + You should eat your food now.
   - Follow the instructions given + You should follow the instructions given.

It is clear thus that the PS rules are expanded to accommodate grammatical sentences and phrases in English and they are used at certain levels of transformational grammar, whether in questions as illustrated above, in passive constructions (e.g. from "He killed the dog" to "The dog was killed by him", or in negative constructions (e.g. from "He will come" to "He will not come"). These rules have general application and the researcher believes that same will be applicable in the analysis of Adara language sentences and differences if any would be observed. Where the verb phrase is a declarative with or without auxiliaries, the lexical rules apply; and where the verba phrase is a negative expression of which an expansion occurs as illustrated above; or in inversion where statements are transformed into questions, the relevant rules apply.

xv. **The X-Bar Syntax**

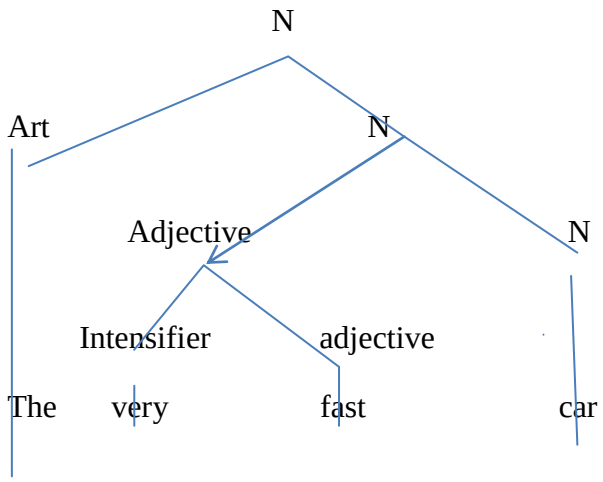
Aarts et al (2014:444) views the X-bar theory of syntax as "model of syntax, introduced by the American Linguist Noam Chomsky into Generative Grammar,

that treats all phrases as having the same skeletal hierarchical structure, as shown in the following diagram:



XP stands for a phrase headed by X (to obligatory head), where X stands for N(oun), V(erb), A(djective), P(reposition), and sometimes Adv(erb). In this representation, X (read 'X bar') is called 'a bar level category, i.e., a category that is intermediate between XP and X; optional adjuncts are linked by adjunction to the left of the lower X in the tree above. (e.g. [v- quickly open {or opened the door] quickly).(Crystal, 2008:444)

In particular, within the main phrase, the need is felt to recognize intermediate categories larger than the noun but smaller than the phrase. For example, 'very fast' or 'very fast car' in the phrase "the very fast car". These intermediate categories which have no status in previous phrase structure models are formally recognized in x-bar syntax by a system of phrasal expansion. Given a lexical category, X, Xo = with no bars; Xi =X1=X single bar; Xii=X2=X with double bars; Xiii=X3=X treble bars; and so on. The following trees illustrates two levels of expansion for N(N-bar and N-double bar):



Each of the categories corresponding to X is known as a bar projection of X. the value of recognizing intermediate categories in this way is widely agreed, but discussion continues about the number of categories which need to be recognized, and how far it is possible to generalize rules of category formation throughout a grammar.

xvi. Government-binding theory (GB)

Government-binding theory of syntax refers to a model of grammar, a descendant of Extended Standard Theory (EST) and ultimately of classical transformational grammar. It assumes that sentences have three main levels of structure: D-structure, S-structure and Logical form. S-structure is derived from D-structure, and Logical form from S-structure by a single transformation, 'move alpha', which essentially means move anything anywhere. Various sub-theories interact with this to allow just the right structures to be generated. Thus, it is also called 'principles and parameters theory' (Crystal, 2008:215; Matthews, 2007:161-2). The proponents of GB suggest that essentially the same principles of syntax are operative in all languages although they can take a slightly different form in different languages.

GB is commonly called ‘Module Theory; in view of its interaction with other theories such as the X-Bar Theory, Case Theory, Binding Theory, Bounding Theory, Control Theory and Government Theory. These theories have three levels of projection:

(a) a **head** (symbolized as X or X°):

A head is the lowest (or zero) level of projection, which lends its features to the whole XP. These features are lexical (N, V) and/or functional (e.g. person, number, gender).

Some heads take **complements**, i.e. obligatory XPs which are sister to the head.

(b) a recursive **intermediate level** (symbolized as X'):

If there is only one ‘X', it may be sister to the **specifier** (SPEC) of XP. A specifier means YP immediately dominated by XP. If more than one X' is generated, in order to create (optional) **adjunct** positions, the top X' … … …

In Government-Binding Theory, binding is particularly concerned with the relationship of ‘anaphors, pronouns, and referential expressions to their (grammatical) antecedents, or directly to their referents in the outside world.To give example a simple example in both (Aarts, Chalker, and Weider:2014:183), ‘When Tom arrived, he unpacked the case’ and ‘When he arrived, Tom unpacked the case’, the people referred to as ‘Tom’ and ‘he’ may (though need not) be one and the same person, with the pronoun ‘bound’ to ‘Tom’. By contrast, in ‘He arrived and Tom unpacked the case’ two people are involved, and the pronoun is not bound.

The processes involved in grammatical analysis using the GB theory deal holistically with complete utterances at phrase and sentence levels. The theory becomes dysfunctional in some transformed structures such as interrogatives

especially in contrastive analysis of tenses and aspects structures from two different languages, and so on. For example, it is easier to identify the head and the governed in 'The man/ is coming' where 'man' is the head of the NP and 'coming' is the head in the VP. But, where transformation occurs and the sentence becomes 'interrogative' as 'Is the man coming?' There are several things that will be left unattended to if GB is used as a means of analysing the sentence. This includes movement of elements from one constituent to the other, the affixes, and the differences in structure between the source language and the target language.

xvii. Minimalist Programme

This is a development in generative linguistic thinking, which emphasizes the aim of making statements about language which are as simple as possible. The term 'program'(programme) expresses the notion that this is an ongoing research initiative, not a fully articulated grammatical theory (Crystal, 2008:306). The minimalist programme developed from various versions of 'Generative Grammar' (Aarts et al, 2014:249).

According to Zwart (1997) in his review of Chomsky (1995),

> … the Minimalist Programme by Noam Chomsky, is a collection of four articles: in these articles, 'The theory of Principles and Parameters' (written with Howard Lasnik, 13-127); 'Some notes on Economy of Derivation and representation' (129-166); 'A minimalist Programme for Linguistic Theory' (167-217); and 'Categories and Transformations'(219-314).

Thus Chomsky (1995) is quoted to have said that:

> Concepts and principles regarded as fundamental in one chapter are challenged and eliminated in those that follow. These include the basic idea of the Extended Standard Theory that were adopted in the (Principles and Parameters) approaches including: D-Structure; S-Structre; Government; the Projection Principle; and the Ɵ-Criterion; other conditions held to apply a D-Structure and S-Structure; the Empty

Category principle; X-Bar theory generally; the Operation move α; the split-l [infl] hypothesis; and others.

xviii. Transformational Grammar

Transformational Grammar (TG) or Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) is a model of grammar proposed by Noam Chomsky in 1957, which describes a language in terms of transformations applied to an underlying logical deep structure, in order to generate the surface structure of sentences that can actually occur (Shiela May, N.,TG, https://www.mu.edu.sa 17/11/2013). It is a theory of grammar in which transformational rules first introduced by Noam Chomsky play an essential part. TG recognises two levels of analysis namely 'Deep Structure'- an abstract underlying structure that incorporates all the syntactic information required for the interpretation of a given sentence (Crystal, 2008:131); and 'Surface Structure' (a structure that incorporates all the syntactic features of a sentence required to convert the sentence into a spoken or written version (Crystal, 2008:466; The Columbia Encyclopaedia.). In other words, 'Deep' and 'surface' structures are often used in simple binary (two parts) opposition with the deep structure representing 'meaning' and the 'surface structure' being the actual sentence (utterance) (Aarts, Chalker, and Weiner, 2014: 401)

Chomsky believes that grammar has recursive rules allowing one to generate grammatically correct sentences over and over, and that human brain has a mechanism which creates language by following the language principles and grammar. Thus, TG or TGG is a grammar that enables the analyses of utterances (sentences) in terms of their syntactic constituents. It is the theory which tells us that a sentence (S) can consist of, or be expanded as the sequence of NP (noun phrase) + AUX (auxiliary) + VP (verb phrase); and NP can be expanded as Art (article) + N

(noun); VP as V (verb) + NP, (Atkinson, Kilby, and Roca 1982: 213; Tomori, 1977: 67).

Chomsky is believed to have turned linguistics from the prescientific stage of the collection and classification of interesting facts to focus on construction and validation. He claims that the rigorous methods stressed by the structuralists were trivial, and perhaps leading to false conclusions, (Kess, 1992: 105). The native speaker of a given language is believed to know exactly what is acceptable and what is not in the grammar of his language. Thus, TG does explicitly what the native speaker does implicitly with his language (Gleason, 1970: 243) and it is strong in the use of formulas with more accuracy and complexity, (Tomori, 1977:65).

Chomsky (1957:13 & 80) asserts that "TG is a more powerful model combining phrase structure and grammatical transformations". Some transformational rules change one structure into another according to such prescribed conventions as; moving, inserting, deleting, and replacing items. For example, transformations link deep with surface structure. A typical transformation is the rule for forming questions, which requires that the normal subject-verb order is inverted so that the surface structure of 'Can I see you later?' differs in order of elements from that of 'I can see you later'. TGG theory postulates that the two sentences have the same order in deep structure, but the question transformation changes the order to that in the surface structure. Sentences that are syntactically ambiguous have the same surface structure but different deep structures. For example, the sentence "Visiting relatives can be a nuisance" is ambiguous in that the subject 'Visiting relatives' may correspond to "To visit relatives" or to "Relatives that visit".

The ambiguity is however dissolved if the modal verb 'can' is omitted since the subject requires a singular verb (Visiting relatives is a nuisance), whereas the phrasal subject requires the plural (Visiting relatives are a nuisance).

Chomsky formulated the rules in two phases including the 'early transformational rules' and 'later transformational rules'. Each of these phases is also categorised into three levels as illustrated below;

A. Early transformation grammar:

i. Phrase Structure Rules (PS).

A PS grammar is one that analyses utterances in terms of its syntactic constituents. The instruction formulas for the Phrase Structure (PS) rules are known as rewrite rules. For example, X → Y means rewrite X as Y. In 'syntactic structures' Chomsky in Tomori (1977: 67) states that:

Sentence → NP + VP;

NP → T + N;

VP → Verb + NP;

T → the (Determiner);

N → Man, ball, etc.;

Verb → hit, took, etc.

Thus, a full derivation for "the man hit the ball" as given by Chomsky is:

Sentence → NP + VP

T + N + VP

T + N + Verb + NP

The + N +Verb + NP

The + man + verb + NP

The + man + hit + NP

The + man + hit + T + N

The + man + hit + the + N

The + man + hit + the + ball

ii. **Transformational Structure Rules**

This is the level where transformational rules operate. **They** are:

1. Tand rule: this is the rule for conjoining sentences
2. TAf rule: rule for deriving the correct form of the verb in a verbal group.
3. Tp rule: rule for deriving the passive form from the active form of a sentence.
4. Tnot rule: rule for forming the negative version of a positive sentence.
5. Tq rule: rule for forming questions from positive sentences.

The rules are relevant and applicable to describing the structures of 'tenses and aspects' in declarative sentences, questions, positive sentences and their negative versions as well as passive constructions.

Note that transformational structure rules have to look further back into the history of the derivation of sentences for the accurate description of any linguistic change and for the ordering of rules governing the change.

iii. Morphophonemic Rules

The third and last level of early TG is the application of morphophonemic rules. It is the level of TG which converts the string of morpheme comprising a terminal string into the sounds of the language. It is the morphophonemic rule of the language which combines the string of morphemes 'past' and 'stand' into 'stood', and converts 'redeem' into 'redemp + -tion to realise 'redemption'. Thus, morphophonemic rules govern the realisation of morphemes. The early

transformational rules especially the morphophonemic rules are relevant in the analysis of the processes involved in generating the linear structure of verb phrase.

The morphophonemic (MS) rules convert the strings of morphemes comprising a terminal string into the sounds of the language. For example, *in* replacive morphemes, *stand* + *past* = *stood* (Olu-Tomori, 1977:32). This rule, which governs the phonetic realisation of morphemes, combines 'past' and 'stand' into 'stood'.

Affix is used by Chomsky to refer to bound morphemes such as 's' in 'hits', 'past' in 'rode', The TAf rule is the rewriting rule needed for realising correct V forms as presented by Chomsky (Olu-Tomori, 1977:72. The further rewriting rules required for realising correct V forms are:

a. Verb →auxiliary + verb

b. V→hit, take, read, etc.

c. Aux→ C(M) (have+-en) (be+-ing) (be+-en).

d. M→will, can, may, shall, must.

Then the 'TAf' states:

i. C { S in the context NP sing. / Ø in the context NP pl. / Ø past }

ii. Let any Af stand for any of the affixes past, *s*, *Ø*, *en*, *ing*. Let v stand for any *M* or *V*, or have or be (i.e. for any non-affix in the phrase Verb).

Then: *Af*+*v*→*v*+*Af* # where # is interpreted as word boundary.

iii. Relace + by # except in the context *v*—*Af*. Insert # initially *and* finally.

In rule (c.) above, the forms in brackets are optional; which means that, for the auxiliary the choice of C is obligatory; the choice of the elements enclosed within brackets is optional.

Rule *TAf* spells out C more clearly. It can be *s* as in *hits*, in the context of singular, third person: *The man hits the ball*. It can be *zero* in the context of a plural noun as in *The men hit the ball*; it can be the past as in *The man saw the ball*, where the verb is a combination of *past* + *see* to produce *saw* according to the morphophonemic rules.

Chomsky's explicit example of the application of the TAf rules in Olu-Tomori (1977:72):

The + man + verb + the + book

The + man + aux + V + the + book

The + man + aux + read + the + book

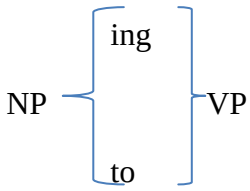
The + man + C + have + en + be + ing + read + the + book

The + man + S + have + en + be + ing + read + the + book

The + man + have + S# be + en # read + ing # the + book

the # man # have + S # be + en # read + ing # the + book

The last line above constitutes the terminal string on which morphophonemic rules act to convert it into the sentence 'the man has been reading the book'. In applying morphophonemic rules, it must be remembered that 'have + s' becomes has; will + past becomes would, and so on for the auxiliary verbs. The affix '-ing' is also used to form noun phrases; so Chomsky groups 'to' and '-ing' together as in 'to prove' that theorem, proving that theorem was difficult. He then gives the rule thus:



The terminal string for the derivation of 'proving' will be 'ing + prove'.

B. Later Transformational Rules

Chomsky's (1965) modification of the Phrase Structure Grammar represented by the early transformational structure rules is an improvement on the PS rules (that sees the sentence as NP + VP (as in 'Musa came) which is incapable of accounting for complex sentence structures with complements or adjuncts (as in 'Musa came yesterday') that are either noun phrases or adverbial phrases. Also, in the sentence 'The man killed the rat', the object NP 'the rat' cannot be accounted for by the PS rules. This necessitates the modification by Chomsky (1965). Where we have S → NP + VP + NP, there is restriction to the structure of every sentence. The rules as given by Chomsky are (Tomori, 1977:77):

i. Sub-categorisation Rules

V → CS → NP
#
Adjective
Predicate - nominal
Like predicate
nominal
Prep phrase
That s
NP (of Det N) S

The strict sub-categorisation rules stated above mean that a verb should be rewritten as a complex symbol which can occur in each of the framed designated, shown as follows:

a. _____ *a noun phrase* as for instance in "the fierce dog *may frighten* the boy".

b. In the environment _____ *#,* which means that the verb may be the end of a sentence The hash symbol or octothorpe – the official name for the 'hash tag' is the sign for sentence end, as in "three weeks have *elapsed*" (Dictionary.Com).

c. In the context _____ *adjectives*, as in the sentence: 'It *looks* good'.

d. In the frame '*verb* + *predicate-nominal*, as in 'John *is* a teacher'.

e. _____ *like predicate – nominal*, as in 'James *is dancing* like John".

f. _____ *Prepositional phrases*, as in "the boy *is* in front of the class", where *in front of the class* are prepositional phrases.

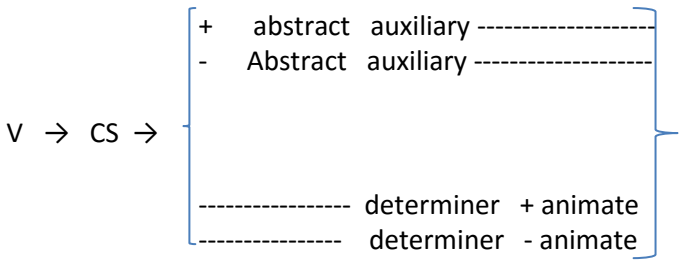
g. '*That'* + *another sentence*, as in 'I *think* that he is a good boy'.

h. In the environment of a noun phrase (*occurring with or without of* + *a determiner* + *a noun)* + another sentence, as in 'John *reminded* Mary (of the fact) that they had to go.

These are some of the contexts in which a verb can occur in English. Thus rewriting rules specify in what frames verbs can occur as an example of strict sub-categorisation rules that are context-sensitive.

ii. Selectional Rules

The selectional rules are 'complex symbols' (a collection of features peculiar to the particular linguistic items in its occurrence in utterances of the language) that describe the syntactic features of co-occurrence of linguistic items within a particular frame. For example, using the frame S → NP + VP + NP, we can derive the sentences: (i) The darkness may frighten the girl; and (ii) John loves Mary. While sentence (i) will be meaningless if reversed, sentence (ii) can be reversed to 'Mary Loves John'. Chomsky's example of the selectional rules for describing the verb phrases are:



This means that a verb should be written as a complex symbol (CS) as already defined in the box above and interpreted in the following frames:

1. An abstract noun may co-occur with an auxiliary and a verb, as in '*the work may prove too difficult'* where *work* is an abstract noun.
2. A verb may occur with a noun that is not abstract - as in 'John *may go tomorrow*'.
3. A verb may occur before a determiner and an animate noun, as in, 'I *know the boy*'.
4. A verb may occur before a determiner and a noun that is not animate [--animate] as in 'I *know my job'.*

The use of 'know' in 3 and 4 shows that the verb is specified for the two syntactic features of co–occurring with suitable animate and inanimate nouns. This is not true of the verb 'frightened' examined earlier as it only occurs with an animate noun + animate as object.

TG is thus a suitable tool for contrastive analysis which is limited to showing differences in the surface sentences' data of two different languages.

C. Criticism of Chomskyan Linguistics

Chomsky thus continues to believe that language is "pre-organised" in one way or the other within the neuronal structure of the brain, and that the environment shapes the contours of this nature into a particular language. His approach thus remains radically opposed to those of Skinner (1957) who believes that language is acquired through operant conditioning, i.e. gaining rewards for functional use of language; and Piaget and Inhelder (1969, 1975) who believe that language is constructed through assimilation and accommodation as a result of simple interaction.

The predominance of Chomsky's theories pricks the reaction of evolutionary biologists who view that "it may be only brain's general abilities that are pre-organised" (not language). The biologists believe that understanding language must be approached from evolution and the evolution structures that have resulted from it. For example, Lieberman (2007) says language is not an instinct encoded in the cortical networks of a "language organ", but rather a learned skill based on a "functional language system" distributed among numerous cortical (visible) and subcortical structures, including that of language (but not limited to it).

Lieberman accepts the status of language as "the most sophisticated form of animal communication but rejects the "qualitatively different form" claimed by Chomsky. Lieberman (2007:41) simply accord language that status of the neurological system comprised of several separate functional abilities. Thus, it is the neural circuit of this system, and not some "language organ" (to say language has special organs meant for language alone) that constitute a genetically predetermined set that limits the possible characteristics of a language. In other words, Lieberman believes that our ancestors invented modes of communication that were compatible with the brain's natural abilities. And the constraints inherent in these natural abilities would then have manifested themselves in the universal structures of language.

Also, generative semantics by Lakoff (1971) shows that semantics, context, and other factors can come into play in the rules that govern syntax; and that meaning can come directly from the deep structure without recourse to syntactic rules. He then sees metaphor (seen by some authors as a simple linguistic device) as a conceptual construct that is essential and central to the development of thought.

Some Chomsky's allies, like Pinker (1994) deals sympathetically with Noam Chomsky that all human language shows evidence of a universal grammar, but dissents from Chomsky's view that evolutionary theory can explain the human language. This is an adaptational position at variance with Chomsky's viewpoint.

2.7.2 Relevance of Transformational Grammar to Contrastive Analysis

The term 'generative' has been explained by Lyons (1968:155) as containing two senses: (i) projective (or predictive); and (ii) explicit. The grammar is projective in that it establishes as grammatical not only actual sentences (of a corpus) but also 'potential' sentences'. It defines the grammatical boundaries of the language in question in terms of the transformational relation of sentences between the sentences of that language. It says which sentences are possible in the language by specifying them, and ungrammatical sentences are by definition omitted from the grammar. Anyone that reads such a grammar therefore is not given the job of deciding which sentences are grammatical and why are they. The grammar does this for him. One reason for using Transformational Grammar in Contrastive Analysis is the same as that for using it in describing one language. That is, its explicitness. For each step in deriving a surface from deep structures, an explicit rule must be formulated. CA uses transformational grammar for the fact that:

a). it is explicit

b). it basis its operations on the claim that 'deep structures are universal.

c). the transformations applied to deep structures are taken from a universal stock known as 'formal universals'.

d).. it is a 'sine qua non' (prerequisite) for Contrastive Analysis.

Di Petro (1971:26) states that "… the differences between languages must come at various levels of intermediate structure", while Whitman (1970:40) justifies the contrastivists' reference to these 'intermediate structures' by saying "If deep structures are what we fed into the transformational component, and surface structure is what came out, then one can usefully talk about intermediate structures as well". The difference therefore, between the structuralists' approach and this approach in CA is that instead of looking for surface-structure correspondence, we look for correspondence between transformational rules (Nickel and Wagner, 1968 in James, 1980: 45). When a rule of L1 corresponds perfectly with a rule of L2, no contrast results: to be perfect correspondents, rules of L1 and L2 must, according to Marton (1968) in James (1980: 45);

i. operate on the same base string of intermediate string.
ii. involve the same 'operation': deletion, insertion, or reordering elements.
iii. follow that (i) and (ii) result in congruent structures of L1 and L2.

Contrastive analysis is concerned with how rules differ in their applicability to congruent deep structures (or intermediate structures) of two languages.

Differences in rule application are that (James, 1980:46):

i. One of the languages applies the rule, whereas the other either does not, or does so less generally.
ii. in L1, the rule is obligatory, but in L2 it is optional (or vice versa). By 'optional' we mean that the grammar generates equally correct sentences irrespective of whether the particular rule is applied or not.
iii. transformations are 'extrinsically ordered', or applied in a certain fixed order (Chomsky, 1965:133).

iv. some transformations are less specialised or have a broader scope, than others. It may therefore happen that two transformations which are recognised as "the same", although they operate in two different languages, are different in their scope. The copula – insertion rules of English and Russian are a case in point. It is supposed that deep structures do not contain copulas (i.e. forms of 'be' in English; of byt in Russian).

v. the TG approach yields 'significant generalisations. This happens when two different areas of the grammar call for the application of one and the same transformational rule.

vi. not only do some transformational rules strictly precede or follow others, as we have seen, some rules imply others.

2.7.3 Transformation of Tense and Aspect in English

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1970:100-119), provide an exhaustive discussion on transforming tense and aspect (by deriving surface structures from deep structures). TG deals with the framework within which a number of questions about human intellectual capacity and question concerning the knowledge involved in "speaking" a language have been answered, and currently are being answered. It is a set of principles called linguistic universals which allows a native speaker to describe his language using what he knows about the language intuitively. It will be difficult, if not impossible, to describe language without such guiding principles. We can only describe/classify the facts which we observe if we know how to do it.

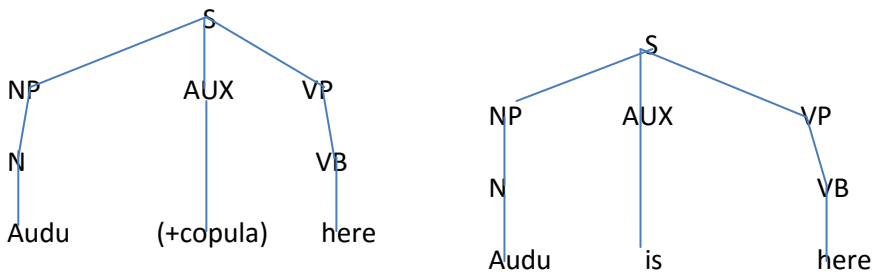
A. Tense Transformation

Tense forms are the variations found in the morphological forms of the verb. In this thesis, the approach is syntactic, not morphological, and it applies syntactic principles in analysing linguistic structures. For example;

i). Audu is here

This surface structure derives from the deep structure as follows: 'Audu here'. This is because auxiliary verbs in TG do not reflect as the deep structures where the verbal is an adjective. For example, in Audu (…) here, the notion of the item 'Audu' and his location 'here' reflects in the deep structure but it is transformed into a surface structure with the copula 'is' through a process called 'copula transformation'. After this, the obligatory second transformation that replaces the copula segment with the auxiliary (aux).

This transformation introduces the copula into the deep structure through the copula transformation. Application is similar to the interrogative transformation which brings 'is' to the front of the sentence in the formation of yes – no questions. This is applicable here by bringing 'is' at an independent (aux) copula segment to form the auxiliary only subordinate to the sentence noun phrase as follows (modified from Jacobs and Rosembaun (1968: 102):



Elements in a verbal, like nouns, have inherent syntactic properties. Where a verbal is an adjective (-V), a copula segment is introduced by the copula transformation to

generate sentences such as ‘the man is here’, the woman is dark’, Audu is tall’, etc. One of the most complex inherent properties of verbal is traditionally referred to as ‘aspect’.

B. Aspect Transformation

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 40) say “Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal is experienced or regarded, for example, as completed or in progress”. Aspect according to Crystal (2003:36) “is a category used in the grammatical description of verbs, referring primarily to the way grammar marks the duration or type of temporal activity denoted by the verb. The aspect properties and the transformation through which these properties are converted into words in the surface structure suffice. The above explanation shows that aspect is divided into two properties namely, perfect (completed) action and progressive. The perfective aspect is shown in the following sentence (a) and the progressive aspect is shown in sentence (b) framed depending on the explanation made in the quoted references above:

a). The Professor lectured in ABU.

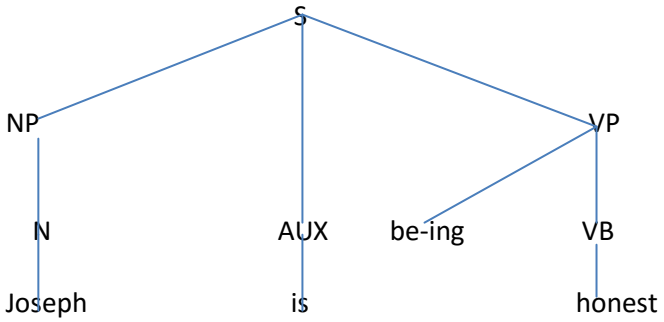
b). The Professor is lecturing in ABU.

c). The Professor lectures in ABU

Note that the verb in the perfective sentence (a) ends with a ‘-d’ which is a form of ‘be’ copula as well as the verb in the progressive sentence (b) ending with ‘-ing’. Also, the verb in the present perfect tense (c) ends with an ‘s’ Thus, it is clear that the progressive has the sequence of ‘be … ing’ of which the dots in between take either a verb or another copula.

To derive our sentence from any deep structure, transformation must be applied at one, two or all of these three levels: (a) the copula; (b) the progressive transformation; and (C) the affix transformation.

In a more complete derivation, the progressive segment would end up under the domination of the auxiliary through the application of the auxiliary incorporation transformation. When the segments are replaced by items from the lexicon, the following final structure results from Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968:113): See the sentence "Joseph … honest" transformed into a progressive aspect as "Joseph <u>is being</u> honest" as illustrated below:



The perfective aspect transformation

The perfect aspect is illustrated in the following (b) sentences:

1 a). No one 'eats' mud

b). No one 'has eaten' mud (" perfect –en)

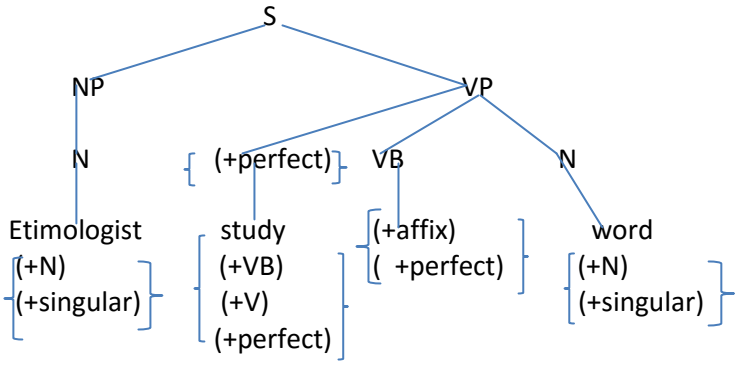
2 a). We struggled with the giraffe

b). we have struggled with the giraffe (" perfect – d)

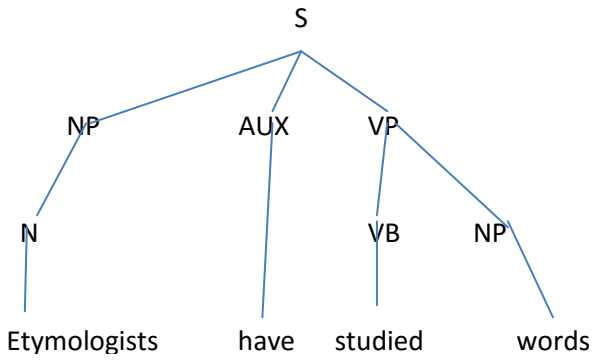
3 a). Etymologists study words

b). Etymologists have studied words.(" perfect – ed)

Unlike the progressive which consists of copula and the ending '-ing', the perfect has two parts; the first is a form of 'have' – i.e. have and had; and the second is an ending which is usually either 'd' or 'en' depending on the word into which it is attached. Generating the perfect aspect involves transformation. First, the perfect is represented in deep structures by the feature (+ perfect) on the verbal segment. Sentence 3(b), used to introduce a perfect segment with the feature (+ perfect) to the verbal, then the affix transformation is applied as is the case with the progressive aspect. The affix segment is introduced with the feature (+ perfect) to give the structure below from Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968: 115);



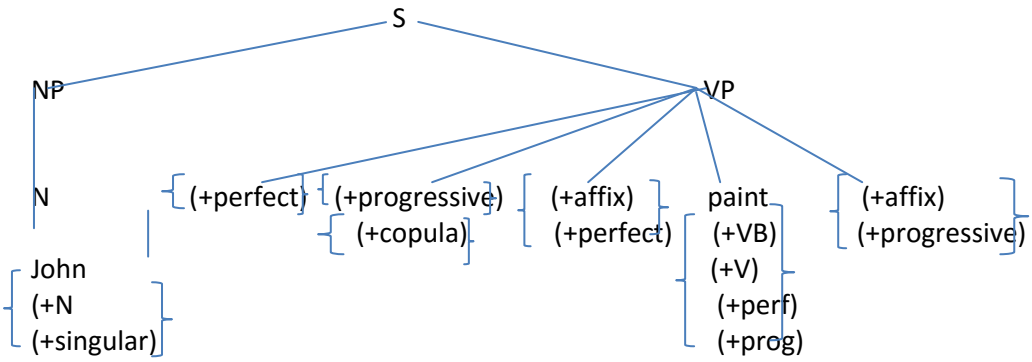
and the resulting structure after replacing these segments from the lexicon is:



When a sentence has both the progressive and the perfect such as 'John has been painting', the perfect, the progressive and the affix ordered transformation must be

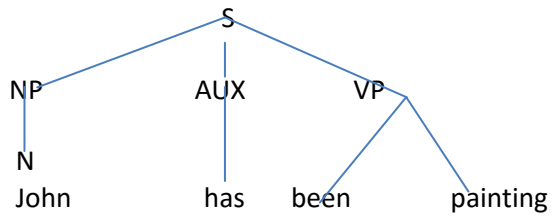
applied. The deep structure for the above example contains both the features (+ progressive) and (+ perfect).

For the perfect segment, perfect transformation is applied preceding the verbal; and for the progressive segment, it is introduced to the left of the verbal (verb element) by the progressive transformation rule; and finally, the affix transformations must apply to both the perfect and progressive segment existing in the structure. The transformation introduces an affix segment with the feature (+ progressive) to the right of the verbal segment and the affix segment with the feature (+ perfect), to the right of the progressive segment to generate the tree diagram below from Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968: 117-118):



If no other transformations are applied, the perfect segment is replaced by the correct form of ‘have’, ‘has’, the progressive segment by ‘be’, the affix segment with the feature (+ perfect) is replaced by ‘en’, the verbal segment by ‘paint’, and the affix segment with the feature (+ progressive) is replaced by ‘ing’. The word ‘has’ in such a position becomes an auxiliary capable of being shifted around the subject noun phrase if the presence of the QUESTION constituent necessitates the

application of the interrogative transformation after the auxiliary incorporation process takes place; we have the structure as follows:



The above shows how sentences with both the progressive and the perfect aspects are generated with assumptions that aspect is marked in deep structures in terms of features of verbal (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, ibid: 100-119).

Knowledge of transformational rules is necessary for the contrastive analysis of any syntactic structure such as the verbal group. The above review is adjudged as relevant in that the TAf, Tnot, movement and sub-categorisation rules, etc. are all relevant for the analysis of tenses and aspects. These will help in determining the structure of the verbal group in simple declarative sentences, questions, negative sentences as well as passive constructions where applicable in both English and Adara languages tenses and aspects respectively.

2.8 Authorial Review

Diverse CA related researches have been carried out by individuals in their bid to solve linguistic related problems at the sentence level in general and particularly on tense and aspects. Many researchers have come up with findings that are useful towards solving the identified language problems especially in L2 teaching and learning situation, and for the development of the field of linguistics as a discipline, but not without shortcomings with regards to this research topic. The following

research works that are relevant to this thesis were reviewed extensively and summarised here either based on the linguistic items investigated or the theoretical framework adopted.

The realisation of different times with the verb forms that indicate the grammatical tense distinctions of present, past and future vary in English and other languages. This is evident in the work of Lamidi (2010) who studied "tense and aspect in English and Yoruba: problem areas …" Where there are phonological, morphological or syntactic differences in L1 and L2, there is the tendency of errors occurring in trying to speak or write in the target language. Lamidi (ibid) in his study finds out that "aspect in English affects learner's performance. The learner's problem is attributed to the learner's performance in the English language. This is because its scope is primarily on the mother tongue, which can be transmitted into the learner's English language usage, generated among scholars on the number of tenses in Yoruba. The variation that exists between the tenses of English and Yoruba languages may violate some rules of English grammar. This study by Lamidi yields pedagogical benefits to Yoruba L2 learners of English language in view of the existing distinctions. Sveneioniene (1982) also found such tense distinctions of present, past and future in English and Lithuanian languages.

Al-Asmad (*nd*) in a pure "Contrastive Analysis of Arabic and English verbs in tense structure" whose purpose was to identify and "show the contrast between Arabic and English tense, aspect and structure", arrives at some conclusion on the tenses and aspects of the two languages. First, Al-Asmad discovers that Arabic and English are similar in tense in that they both indicate tense by morphological forms. Both languages have two tenses: Arabic – perfect and imperfect; English – past and non-

past. These tenses are similar in function. The Arabic 'perfect' and the English 'past' are narrational and the Arabic 'imperfect' and the English 'non-past' are situational. Arabic and English tenses are generally similar in timing, i.e. the Arabic 'imperfect' and the English 'non-past' express simultaneously with the moment of speaking. The Arabic 'imperfect' and the English 'non-past' are different in that the Arabic 'imperfect' may denote simultaneously with the main verb while the English 'non-past' does not.

Arabic and English are similar in their classification of aspect. Both languages have a major class of aspect namely perfective / imperfective and sub-class of aspect which include the progressive, predictive, habitual and generic. However, the two languages' verbs are different with progressive and habitual aspects. Thus, Arabic expresses progressive aspects with two kinds of sub-structures. English uses only one. English denotes past habitual aspect by two types of verb structures, while Arabic uses only one structure.

Arabic verb structure is different from English in that where Arabic has particle + main verb; particle + particle + main verb or auxiliary + particle + main verb, English has auxiliary + infinitive or auxiliary + past participle.

Apart from this study in Arabic, other studies exist in the same languages which confirmed such differences. An example is the "Tense and Aspect in Arabic and English: A Contrastive Study" by Slal (www.iasi.net). Thus, variations observed between a language and another go with pedagogical implications. Even in the same language, a misunderstanding of a given aspect can confuse the learning of the other. Quirk et al (1985:40) states that "the expression of present and past time cannot be considered separately from aspect". Therefore, differences in the verb

systems of one language affects the understanding, use, learning or teaching of the other. Languages whose syntax or morphology differs from each other may encounter some difficulties when a speaker of one delves into learning the other. McArthur (1998:297) on "The Contrastive Analysis of the verbs in reference to Syntax and Morphology" asserts that "in English there are few inflections and verbs which are inflected through suffixation, e.g. '-s', '-ing', '-ed'" with the exception of irregular verbs which "depart from the norm" such as "see, saw, seen". There are languages that the verbs are not inflected at all as it is done in English. The Adara for example does not accept inflections as English does in the verb phrase.

Gwah (1994) sets out to identify resemblances and contrasts and a detailed examination of tense and aspect in verb systems of English and Jenjo languages. This was carried out using the already identified paradigms of tense and aspectual systems of English and Jenjo language. Findings of the research show that the notions of time, tense past/present/future are present in both languages. However, they differ in form and function. Time is signalled by tenses (except otherwise) by the orientation of the verb forms to an identical time. That is, past or present and time adverbial in English. But in Jenjo it is expressed by the context, use of time adverbials and tonal variations.

In English, aspect is signalled by the presence or absence of the expanded verb and verbal clusters: 'BE + – ing' and 'V-ing'. But in Jenjo, it is signalled by 'sen' and 'kusen' (imperfective) and 'yan' (perfective) which are not made of the same elements and do not function exactly the same way as the English aspectual markers. Jenjo X-markers are not bound to any specific time (past, present or future) but can refer to different times according to different context. The research shows that time

is universal and common to all languages, but tense in the English form is not present in all languages and it is operated differently. Consequently, the vocabulary and near semantic approach differ from the syntactic investigation being carried out in this thesis.

Ozo-Mekuri Ndimele (2010: 545-555) reports "a Contrastive Analysis of the basic clause in Ejagham and English" languages by Ogbonna, J.E. (n.d.), with a view to identifying some areas of similarities and differences that can militate or impede the learning of English by Ejagham learners. The Ejagham language, a Nigerian language, did not only appear different from English in having a different article for every noun, but also has distinctions in their verb phrases. The researcher notes that features of inflection such as agreement, tense, aspect and modal function in different ways in both languages, whereas, the verb phrases behaves alike. Tense and aspect mark some differences in Ejagham and English. For example, past tense in Ejagham is marked with an 'n' which occurs before the verb: 'Mme n (tense past) sen' which means "I wrote" (a simple past). These variations are determined in English through the use of auxiliary verbs and inflections which mostly occur as suffixes. Syntactic rules in Ejagham are not exactly the same with Adara. Thus, the findings by Ogbonna, while useful as a reference material and a contribution to knowledge are not the exact solution to the problem which this thesis intends to solve.

Note that the past tense marker (n) is not an affix as it is in English where the past tense marker '-ed' is attached to the verb (p.552). On the other hand, aspect in English dominates verbal roots like 'have' and 'be' with their perfective morpheme '-en' and progressive '-ing'. In Ejagham, the perfective marker 'ta' and the

progressive marker ‘ki’ are not attached to the verbal roots. They occur separately before the verb with an agreement marker that is homorganic (formed using same vocal organs) with the first consonant of the verb:

Mme (1sg) n (agr) ki (prog) bene (run) which means ‘I am running) (p.551)

Yaro (2011) carried out a contrastive analysis of the tense formation in English and Kenyi (Jaba) language of Kaduna State Nigeria in order to highlight the syntactic patterns of both languages and their implication for L2 learning of English. The data for the analysis was a product of performance of 40 Senior Secondary School (SSS) II students from Government Secondary School (GSS) Kenyi all of whom were native speakers of Kenyi who responded by translating sentences from Kenyi language to English language. The findings of the research revealed some similarities in both languages such as the occurrence of tense morpheme. The use of inflection in English language is, however, the major dissimilarity from that of kenyi language, which is marked by tones. (In Adara, tones affect the verbal group mostly in interrogatives, and affect more nouns or noun phrases.).Whereas, in English tenses are marked by the use of inflections such as ‘-d’, ‘-ed’, ‘-ing’, ‘-en’, etc., in Kenyi language, rising tone is used to mark past tense and the falling tone to indicate present activity or happening.There are uses of irregular verbs in English but none in Kenyi language.

The research lacks other research works in the literature review. The work is on how tense is used to express time in English and Kenyi and perhaps to predict errors. It differs from this thesis which is a contrastive study of tenses and aspects of English and Adara. There is a mixed up in the meaning of tense as a linguistic phenomenon and time – a non-linguistic phenomenon in the research work. There is also no

discussion about the structure of ‘tense’ and aspect’. The findings are inadequate in solving the problem of this thesis that is basically on syntax.

The work of Adaji (2018), being a contrastive syntactic study of the sentence structures of English and Igala is found to be relevant to this thesis. The researcher’s aim was to ascertain areas of differences and similarities between the two languages in order to contribute to the development of contrmporary Igala grammar. Questions delineating the extent of structural variations found in English and Igala simple sentences, compound senrences and complex sentences were raised and answered. The researcher obtained data from two categories of informants, including literate and illiterate native speakers of the dialects of Igala in the rural area and in ueban area. From the illiterate native speakers, the research was based on the central dialect of Igala spoken in Anyigba, Ejule and environs which had no border with other linguistic groups. Another source (secondary) of data was a book with a collection of seven hundred and fifty one Igala proverbs “Ito Igala” and others. These data were collected through observation, unstructured interview, books and recording.

The data were analysed through the descriptive method of Quirk et al (1985). Findings related to this thesis are where Adaji finds out that English tenses of present, present continuous and past are differentiated using morphological markers (-s, -es, -ing, -ed), while the Igala tenses are distinguished through intonation, the context in which they are used or time adverbials - ‘engini’ today, ‘onale’ – yesterday, and ‘ojole’ – that day. Adaji also stated that aspect in English grammar is the distinction between progressive and perfective action expressed in the verb phrase. Igala verb phrase according to Adaji quite agree with that of English showing similarity between English and Igala with regards to aspect. There is

variation where, unlike in English, in which the verb is expressed as ‘has’ (singular), ‘have’ (plural), ‘had’ (past), Igala rather uses the verb ‘fu’ as an auxiliary to express the verb ‘have’ in all situations.

The operations of the verb phrase in Igala differ from that of Adara. The use of have stressed as a variation between English (has, have, had) and Igala (fu) also varies from the use of ‘have’ in Adara. The use of intonation in Igala to mark present, present continuous and past varies from Adara which uses auxiliaries (sa, su, shi). The existence of other research works reviewed above has helped a lot in putting this thesis together, but certainly do not fill the existing gap intended to be covered in this thesis relating to the contrasts in tenses and aspect structure of English and Adara. The review is however worthwhile.

2.9Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the analysis of data in this thesis is eclectic. It is a combination of Chomsky’s (1957 and 1965) transformational grammar (TG or TGG) and Whitman’s (1970) model of constrastive analysis (CA). the term transformation is “a formal linguistic operation which enables two levels of structural representation to be placed in correspondence” and “a structural transformational rule consists of a sequence of symbols which is rewritten as another sequence, according to certain conventions”. The input to the rule is the structural description (or structural analysis or structural index), which defines the class of phrase-markers to which the rule can apply. The rule then operates a structural change on this input, by performing one or more of several operations (Crystal, 2008:491). TG is characterised by a high degree of abstract formalisation with

ordered rewriting rules, and claims to do explicitly what the native speaker does implicitly (Olu-ttomoei, 1977:65; Gleason, 1965:243).

TG is divided into two main parts namely "Early Transformal Grammar" and "Later Transformational Grammar" (Olu-Tomori, 1977:65, 76). The early transformational grammar comprises of phase-structure (PS) rules, transformational structure (TS) rules, and morphophonemic rules presented in Chomsky's (1957) "Syntactic Structures". The PS rules describe the overt syntactic structures of most utterances. The TS rules operate at the level of transformational structure by way of conjoining two sentences using the 'Tand' rule, deriving the correct form of the verb in a sentence using the 'TAf' rule, deriving the passive form from the active form of sentence using the 'Tp' rule, forming negative versions of positive sentences using the 'Tnot rule', and forming questions from positive sentences using the 'Tq' rule. Finally, the morphophonemic rules, being the third component following the PS and TS rules, converts the string of morphemes comprising a terminal string into the sounds of the language, i.e. the rules govern the phonemic realisation of morphemes. For example, under replacive morphemes, 'stand + past = stood' (Olu-Tomori, 1977:71). Thus, it is the morphophonemic rule of the language that combines the strings of morphemes 'past' and 'stand' into 'stood'.

In the later TG, Chomsky (1965) presented the 'sub-categorisation rules' and the 'selection rules'. The sub-categorisation rules are meant to limit certain classes of linguistic items to certain syntactic frames. It is in these syntactic frames that the selection rules operate by describing the restrictions on the co-occurrence of certain linguistic items (Olu-Tomori, 1977:76). For example, the structure S→NP + VP represented by the sentence 'Two weeks elapsed" is context free and operates within

the level of early TG; whereas, S→NP + VP + NP represented by the sentence "The fierce dog may frighten the boy" is context sensitive which require operations of both the sub-categorisation rules and the selection rules in the later TG (Olu-Tomori, 1977:76-81).

Although some linguists argue that TG is merely abstract and theoretical, it embodies the linguistic operations required for the determination of grammatical sentences needed for the CA of two languages, in this case, tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara. While TG provides the necessary processes involved in the selection of grammatical sentences to serve as data in both English and Adara, it requires the input of a CA model for a successful CA of such data. In a CA of two languages, the points of structural difference are identified (Crystal, 2008:112). The limitation of TG necessitates the use of the CA model by Whitman (1970) to complete the process of the analysis of data in this thesis.

Verb phrases bear tense structures that vary structurally in declaratives, interrogatives, negative constructions, imperatives, and in passive constructions. Thus the responsibility of the researcher is to identify, translate, label, state the rules, and contrast the corresponding surface structures of the data in English and Adara languages.Hence, "TGG approach provides the contrastive analyst with some kind of measure of degree of difference between compared constructions in the first language (L1) and those of the second language (L2)" (James, 1980:45).

Whitman's (1970) model of contrastive analysis provides that "A Contrastive Analysis must proceed through four steps: description, selection, contrast, and prediction". He states further that "many analyses are weakened by insufficient care

at one or more of these steps, each of which is beset with problems. A basis for making selections, a format for making contrasts, and a means of relating contrast and prediction is suggested". This model provides for the description of the first language (L1) and second language (L2) respectively, selection of units to be analysed, contrasting the L1 and L2 as well as predicting the outcome. This is illustrated in the analytical procedure in section 3.3 of this thesis.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0 Preamble

This chapter focuses on the sources of data, method of data collection, an the analytical procedure to be adopted for analysis. The study is basically a contrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspects and therefore focuses on the syntactic behaviour of the verb phrases in simple declarative sentences, interrogatives, passives, negative constructions.

The verb phrase which comprises the lexical (main) verb, auxiliary verbs, modals and particles usually follows the nominal group (noun phrase) in English simple declarative sentences with or without the use of adverbials (Scott, Bowley, Brokett, Brown and Goddard, 1968:19).

3.1 Sources and Forms of Data

The data for this study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. Whereas the primary sources were the speech by native speakers of Adara obtained through interviews and observations, the secondary sources were published materials in English Language. Such publications comprised the data used by other researchers in their contrastive studies of English and Nigeria languages, textbooks. The data is compiled and stated as appendix A – F.

3.2 Method of Data Collection

a. Primary Data

The primary data from Adara language were collected through unstructured interview complimented by the use of intuition and observation. Because of the fact that the researcher is a fluent native speaker of Adara language, it was possible to

collate the Adara data with little linguistic difficulty. Therefore, pen and paper were used to generate the data collected from the utterances of both literate and non-literate native speakers. The data were confirmed to acceptable through inter-judge reliability and validity tests by native speakers who are bilinguals in English and Adara, who also have at least University degrees.

Native speakers may not be able to describe the structure of their language if they are not trained linguists. This is because the art of speaking a language as a native speaker differs from that of describing the language. The unstructured interpersonal interview was conducted face to face as it enabled the researcher obtained valid first-hand information from the way the respondents chose their tenses. The non–participant observation enabled the researcher obtained undistorted data as the data spontaneously flow between conversationalists without any interruption by the researcher. These data are stated in the appendices and referred to at each level of the analyses.

b. Secondary Data

On the other hand, the secondary data from English language was obtained from English text books and reviewed research works. The data were carefully selected to ensure that only the relevant data are obtained. Data for the research comprised declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, passive constructions and negative sentences where tenses and aspects occurred.

3.3 Analytical Procedure

The data obtained from the primary and secondary sources on tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages were collated and translated as gloss for the purpose of the contrastive exercise. It is the gloss (word to word translation) that shows the

variation or similarity clearly in the correspondence data for the contrastive analysis, describing the rules in contrast for the two languages.

Considering the nature of the research, being a contrastive study of English and Adara languages' tenses and aspects, the researcher translated the selected data. Literal translation, direct translation, or word-for-word translation was the rendering of text from one language to another one word at a time without (necessarily) conveying the sense of the original text (Translator's Thoughts, 2016). The choice of the technique was dependent on the linear syntactic structural patterns of the tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara. Thus, we have for every datum the original sentence sourced as part data, the gloss which is the product of the literal translation as well as the freely translated version in the other language. The structure of the verb or verb phrase is stated in correspondence with the original data. For example:

Adara: Audu su la imila → ♯aux + V♯
Gloss: Audu is eat food →aux + V
English: Audu is eating food → aux + V-ing

The syntactic structures of the verb phrases in the sentences are; Adara: 'aux + V' → ; English: 'aux + V-ing'. Although there is similarity with the presence of auxiliary in each language, the rules generating the verb phrases differ because of the inflection on the English verb. Therefore the transformational structure rules that operate are; ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verbal group; and ♯v♯v—Af♯ for the verbal group of English language. The labelling of elements with relevant and appropriate symbols is made possible in compliance with the formulae in the theoretical framework. These are reproduced in details as:

1. Af—v = plural morpheme in an irregular verb or NP-pl.

2. V—Af = verbs with inflectional affixes.

3. v = auxiliary verbs, lexical verbs, particles, adverbs, any other non-affix in the VP.

4. S = singular noun phrase or pronoun obligatory within the verb phrase.

5. Ø = plural noun phrases or pronoun obligatory within the verb phrase.

6. Ø = past

7. → = e.g. V → ♯v♯ means where 'v' is the VP, then the TAf rule is rewritten as '♯v♯'.

8. —v = 'not' in negative sentences and its equivalents in Adara.

9. do = appears in structure as the bearer of an unaffix affix in 'Tnot' rule.

After applying the above symbols on the sentence illustrated above, the structures of the verb phrases and TAf rules for English and Adara are:

Adara : aux + V → ♯v♯v♯.

English : aux + V-ing → ♯v♯v—Af♯.

It is clear that the PS rule has generated the structure, transformational structure rule has restricted the correct form of the verb in the correct context, and morphophonemic rule has determined the choice of the singular form of the auxiliary 'is' and the main verb 'eating' with an affix as opposed to the auxiliaries 'are' or 'were' and opposed to the main verb 'eat 'in its present tense form or 'ate' being its past tense form.

The analysis of data as illustrated above took cognisance of Whitman's (1970) model of contrastive analysis. The model insists on four systematic steps for a successful contrastive analysis. These steps are identification, selection, contrast and prediction. A careful observation of the above analytical procedure shows strict adherence to these processes. Details on the processes involved in the contrastive

analyses of structures different from the above are discussed beside each data entry in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Preamble

This chapter contains the analysis of the data collected and the discussion on the findings. The thesis is a Contrastive Study of English and Adara tenses and aspects: A case of Ewa dialect.all subsequent references to Adara indicates the Ewa dialect. Tenses and aspects do not occur on their own; rather, they are made in full sentences. Tenses and aspects comprise of elements within the verb phrase (VP) in a sentence. Whether the sentence is simple, complex or compound, the VP is still comprised of same elements which occur as part of the whole sentence. In order to successfully analyse the VP which carries the tense and aspect markers, samples of complete sentences were collected as representative data for scrutiny.

In the preceding chapters (1-3), it has been stated and it is still maintained here that as far as the researcher knows, verb phrases of Adara language have not been contrasted with another language in this form of study. Therefore the researcher has found English language within his linguistic repertoire to be useful for the study.

4.1 Data Presentation

The data used for analysis were excerpts of sentences obtained from primary and secondary sources of data. These have been presented in the appendices to ease the location of data for each research question. The primary data used for analysis were collected from speeches of the native speakers of Adara (Ewa dialect) and from intuition (applied to the translation of English data to Adara). On the other hand, the secondary data used for analysis were obtained from published materials in English language. Finally, the researcher used his personal linguistic competence as a means of cross validating the grammaticality of the data used for the contrastive analysis.

Note that the analyses of tenses and aspects structures mainstreamed the declarative sentences, interrogatives and those expressing negation for quick contrasts.

4.2 Data Analysis

The data analysis is split according to designated subheads so that their syntactic structures in the two languages can easily be contrasted and described within specific contexts. The range of this distribution considered full sentence structures from the beginning, followed by selected sentence elements. This is followed by the analysis of verb phrases according to the various types of sentences (present, past, and future). The section concludes with analysis of structures carrying tenses and aspects, since all aspects markers must occur in tenses.

The further rewriting rules required for realising correct forms of V are (Olu Tomori, 1977:72):

1. Verb → auxiliary + verb
2. V→ hit, take, read, etc.
3. Aux → C(M)(have + en)(be + ing)(be + en)
4. M → will, can, may, shall, must.

Then rule TAf states:

1. S → NP-sing
2. Ø →NP-pl
3. Ø→ past
4. ♯ →Word boundary in place of +
5. v → M or V, have or be (i.e. for any non-affix in the phrase Verb or verbal group)
6. Af → stand for any of the affixes past, s, Ø (-d, -ed), en, ing.

Symbols representing affixes, morphemes, affixes/inflections in tenses and aspects are applicable to the analyses of verb phrases from 4.2.3 to the end.

4.2.1 The Sentence Structure of English and Adara Languages

This analysis is to contrast the structure of English and Adara sentences. The English data in this section are excerpts from Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). This part of the analysis is necessitated in view of its implication on location of tense elements in sentences.

1. English: She / was ironing / clothes. → NP + VP + NP

   Adara: A / shi ku deri / Uma. → NP + VP + NP

   Gloss: He/She / was do iron / clothes. → NP + VP + NP.

The structure of both English and Adara versions of the sentence above is NP + VP + NP.

The internal structures of the constituents show variations in the operations of the transformational rules. But at this level, the intention is to contrast the major constituents of the sentences.

2. English: We / saw / a good film. → NP + VP + NP.

   Adara: Aywu/Iyi / nu / ufim ududumа → NP + VP + NP..

   Gloss: We / saw / film good. NP + VP + NP.

Every language has its grammar. *While* there are similarities in the syntactic structures of the major constituents in English and Adara languages, the internal structures vary. The common thing is the presence of the major constituents in the same order. However, in the English initial noun phrase, the personal plural pronoun 'we' is used to refer to any number above one. In Adara translation, there are two personal plural pronouns connected to the speaker(s). Iyi refers to 'We- 2' whereas Aywu refers to 'We-more than 2'. In the VP, the application of the transformational structure rules differ in the two languages such that the morphophonemic rule in TG converts the English verb from 'see' to 'saw', but the Adara verb remains the same

in both present and past simple tenses within the context. In the final NP, the English version has T+Adj +N as a derivational structure. But in Adara, the structure is N+Adj. The slot of the determiner is empty. In Adara, the noun precedes the adjective in the object NP slot. One can easily be deceived by the superficial resemblances of the phrase structure of sentences in both English and Adara to assume their similarity.

3. English: She / finished / her work. → NP + VP + NP.
   Adara: A / kpe / utina ngha. → NP + VP + NP.
   Gloss: He/she / finished / work her. → NP + VP + NP.

The sentences are superficially similar in both English and Adara in terms of their major constituents as NP+VP+NP. But in the internal structure of each constituent, the structure of the English VP has an inflectional suffix (-d). The Adara language has no such inflectional suffix. This shows varying operations the transformational structure rules within the VP. In the final NP in both languages, the positions of the determiners (T) and nouns (N) are swapped. English has T+N and Adara has N+T.

4. English: She /saw/ that /it / rained / all day.→ NP + VP + conj + NP + VP + AdvP.
   Adara: A / nu / mana / avua / kpa / si wua.→NP + VP + conj. + NP + VP + AdvP.
   Gloss: He/She / saw / how / rain / fall /all day.

In the data presented in (4), the 'T$_{and}$'is the transformational rule for conjoining sentences. The structures of the sentences are similar in both English and Adara languages as visible in the data. The *Tand* rule derives the structure of both sentences as NP+VP+ T$_{and}$ + NP+VP + AdvP. However, the operation of the morphophonemic

rule differs within the VP in that the verb form of Adara retains its base form (kpa) while takes an inflectional suffix (rain + -ed).

5. English: He / has / a degree.→ NP + VP + NP.

   Adara: A / shi / kunu udigri. → NP + VP + NP.

   Gloss: He / has / a degree.

The NP+VP+NP is the deriving rule for both English and Adara in the data above. In the various constituents however, the English pronoun representing the initial NP is masculine. Such clarity is not marked in Adara. The pronoun 'A' (he/she) applies to both sexes structurally the same way as evident in the initial NPs in (3), (4) and (5) above.

The analyses in this section clearly show the relationship of the sentence structure of English and Adara languages. Traditionally, they are similar as subject-verb-object (SVO) structured languages but differ in the internal arrangements of their constituents and within transforms. This confirms the assertion that "sentences are more than just strings. They are structured strings whose words fall into natural groups … called constituents" in terms of noun phrases, verb phrases, etc.(Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968:15).

4.2.2 Noun Phrases (NP) in English and Adara Languages

Despite the fact that the syntactic structure of English language and Adara language sentences agree at the general constituents of 'NP + VP + VP' or SVO, each language has some unique characteristics in the internal structure of each constituent. The following analysis of noun phrases suffices this fact. The English data featuring NPs in this section are sourced from Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:12):

1.English: The / horses. NP → T + N

Adara: Ihwari. NP → N

Gloss: Horses (N).

In accordance with the PS rules the structures of the NP in the above data differ in English and Adara. The explicit determiner (the) and the plural marker (horse + -s) in English have T+N as its structure. It is not so marked in the Adara translation where only the N constitutes its structure. The determiner in Adara is marked by a low tone on the third syllable (Ihwa‘ri) and plurality is marked by high tone on the first syllable in the word (′Ihwari). Here, the phonological implication in Adara varies in the structural patterns of the NPs in the two languages.

2.English: His / brother. NP → T + N.

Adara: Anayu / ngha. NP → N + T.

Gloss: Brother / his. (N + T).

The PS rules of the above data are T+N for English and N+T for the Adara. The possessive pronoun (his) which is an adjective but occurs as a determiner precedes the noun (brother) in the English language phrase. But, on the other hand, the noun (anayu –brother) precedes the possessive pronoun (ngha-his) in Adara language..

3. English: The / tall / man. NP → T + Adj + N

Adara: Aghimi / agbagba. NP → N + Adj.

Gloss: Man / tall (N +Adj).

The structure of the English data is T+Adj +N different from N+Adj of the Adara translation of the NP. In Adara, it is the noun (aghimi) that precedes the adjective (agbagba) within which the determiner (the) is marked by low tone on the third and

last syllable of the adjective. That is to say that the determiner 'the' is marked phonologically in Adara in this context. It is a product of the PS (or F) rules (Olu Tomori, 1977:67).

In the analysis above, it is clear that the internal structures of noun phrases in English and Adara vary, unlike their superficial resemblances shown in major constituents of sentences.

4.2.3. The English and Adara Verb Elements

The task in this section is to analyse the verb phrase elements of English and Adara as used in sentences that appear as data in line with the principles of transformational grammar (TG). In generative grammar, the verb phrase has a broader definition, being equivalent to the whole of the predicate of a sentence, as is clear from the expansion of S as NP+VP in PS grammar (Crystal, 2003:490). In view of this, where our data has other elements beyond the verb elements, only the verb elements will be considered for the contrastive analysis (CA). The element 'v' is then used to label the verb phrase to avoid confusion. Such verbal groups being considered for the CA are also underlined for easy identification.

1. English: The Sun / <u>sets</u> / in the west. S → T + N + V + Af + pp + T + N.

   Adara: Unuh / <u>ka kpa</u> / wu / ku sigh awura. S → N + aux + v + pro + pp + T + N.

   Gloss: Sun / <u>do fall</u> / it / in the west.

The verb 'sets' constitutes the verb element of the English sentence in the data. The syntactic structure is V+-s, and the transformational rule is TAf (tense affix). Thus the TS (transformational structure) rule for the English verb element is ♯v—Af♯. The operation is carried out using the 'TAf' rule to restrict the correct form of the verb within its correct context. The morphophonemic rule converts the string of morpheme

comprising a terminal string into the sounds of the language, i.e. the required phonemic form by adding '-s' to the root 'set'. In later TG the sub-categorisation rules restricts the verb 'sets' into the proper syntactic frame, while the selection rules generate the restrictions on the co-occurrence of the same linguistic item. These rules have been applied to determine the grammaticality of the verb elements in the two languages being contrasted. In Adara verb elements, there are two words (ka kpa) which form the VP. The '-s' inflected form in English is not marked in Adara translation. In view of the above, the syntactic structure of the Adara translation of 'ka kpa' is aux + V and the TS rule is '*#v#v#'*. The symbol '♯' represents word boundary and it is used to replace the symbol + in stating the rules except in the context of inflectional affixes where the symbol '— ' is used to separate the root word from the affix. To restate the rules: English is ♯v—Af♯ and Adara is '*#v ♯ v#'*.

2 English: The /food /<u>is finished</u> → T + N + <u>aux + V +Af</u>

Adara: imila / <u>ku /kpe</u> /yu.→ N + <u>aux + V</u> + pro

Gloss: Food / <u>is finish/</u> it.

The English verb element consists of an auxiliary 'is' with an inflected lexical verb 'finish+ed', while the Adara has an 'aux + V'. The use of an auxiliary is common in both languages but the inflectional suffix (-ed) is only applicable to the English verb. The syntactic structure of the English verb elements in the data is 'aux + V+ –ed'. Therefore, the TS rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯. In the Adara translation of 'ku kpe' (aux + v), the TS rule is ♯v♯v♯. English and Adara exhibited different TS rules.

3. English: John /<u>is amusing</u> / Mary → N + <u>aux + V</u> + N

Adara: John / <u>su sira /</u> Mary alale; → N + <u>aux + V</u> + N + N

Gloss: John /<u>is causing</u> /Mary / laughter.

The underlined verb elements in English have an auxiliary before an '-ing' inflected form of the verb. Thus, the syntactic structure is 'aux+v-ing'. It is not so in Adara which has its structure as 'aux+v' due to the absence of inflected form in the context. The TS rules therefore differ as follows: English: ♯v♯v—Af♯ and Adara: ♯v♯v♯

4. English: Some /birds / <u>eat</u> /worms /and /insects.→Adj + N + V + N + conj + N

Adara: Apiye /anurnu /<u>ka la</u> /edei /kana /anarajiji.→ Adj + N + aux + V + N + conj + N

Gloss: Some birds/ <u>do eat</u> /worms /and /insects.

The verb 'eat' of the English version is translated with an auxiliary before it in Adara notwithstanding similarity of the sentence constituent elements. The structure of the verb elements for English is 'V' and the TS rule is ♯v♯. The syntactic structure for the Adara translation is 'aux+V' and the TS rule is ♯v♯v♯.

5. English: He/ <u>has</u> /fair /hair.→ N (pro) + V + adj + N.

Adara: A <u>shi /</u> kunu /ufarchwi /uyuyer.→ N (pro) + V + Pre + N + Adj.

Gloss: He <u>is</u> with hair fair.

This verb 'has' in English is also translated as a single word in Adara 'shi' but differs in their derivational processes. The English word 'has' is transformed based on the morphophonemic rules which converted the string 'have' to the string 'has' according to the rules. It has been observed that some morphemes undergo phonetic changes before combining with some others (Olu Tomori, 1977:32). This conforms to the morphophonemic rule operation which converts such string to the correct phonemic form in English grammar. Thus, since 'has' is what appears as the terminal string, the syntactic structure of the verb elements is only a 'V' having passed through a form of deletion (of 've') and the insertion (of 's') on the root word

‘have’. The TS rule then is ♯v♯. In Adara, the translation of ‘has’ is ‘shi’. The word ‘shi’ is the verb but needs the insertion of the obligatory preposition ‘kunu’ (with) before the object for the terminal phonemic realisation to be complete and correct. The word ‘kunu’ in the context is a preposition preceding the object noun. The adjective in Adara is placed after the noun unlike English. Therefore the TS rule for the Adara is ♯v♯.

6. English: He went to college for four years.→ N (Pro)+V + Pre+N+Pre + Adj + N

   Adara: A ki umakaranta anyi anari.→ N (pro) + V + N + N + Adj.

   Gloss: He /go / school /years /four..

The sentences are syntactically similar at the constituent level. They however differ in the internal structure of their constituents. The English verb (went) is irregular, a feature that is absent in Adara. In TG, the morphophonemic rule converts the strings of morphemes ‘past + go’ into ‘went’as a terminal string under replacive morphemes, being the required phonemic realisation. Therefore, the morpheme past + go = went. Having carried out the operation, bearing in mind that the structure of the verb element is irregular, the TS rule for the above verbal group is ♯v♯. In the data of Adara language, the verb has no structural change and thus remains in its base form. The TS rule therefore is ♯v♯. The difference is in the mode of morphophonemic operation of complete replacement of the morpheme ‘go’ with ‘went’ based on English language conventions.

7. English: I /phoned /him /three times /today.→ N (Pro) + V + Affix + pro + Adv + Adv.

   Adara: Ime /yuru /ngha /irtai /kawadi.→ N (pro) + V + Adv + Adv.

   Gloss: I call /him /thrice /today.

These two sentences are similar at all the constituent levels but differ in some of their internal structures. However, our subjects of analysis are the verb elements 'phoned' and 'yuru' for English and Adara respectively. The morphophonemic rule converts the strings 'phone + -d' into the terminal phonemic string 'phoned'. Therefore, having carried out the operation, the structure of the English verb element is 'V+-d' and the TS rule is ♯v—Af♯. The syntactic structure of the Adara verb 'yuru' is in its base form. Therefore the TS rule is ♯v♯. While the morphophonemic rule converts the strings of the English verb elements into the terminal phonemic form, the TAf rule restricts both the English and adara verb elements into their correct contexts.

8. English: Ladi /smiled → N + V + Affix. (Balarabe, 2015:137).

Adara: Ladi /muanyu. → N + V.

Gloss: Ladi /smile.

The English verb 'smiled' in the data constitutes the VP and has undergone the morphophonemic rule operation which converted the strings of morphemes 'past + smile' to realise the past form of the verb 'smile' as 'smiled' with the '-d' inflection. This accounts for its rewriting as V→ v+-d. the transformation is a combination of the morphophonemic rule and the TAf rule. The TS rule is ♯v—Af♯. The symbol '—'is applicable instead of the word boundary symbol ♯ because the '-d' inflection is an affix, not a separate word from the base form 'smile'. In Adara, the structure of the verb element is only the lexical verb as 'V". Thus, TAf rule is ♯v♯.

9. English: We /must eat /or /we /die.→ N (Pro) + M + V + conj + pro + V.

Adara:Shi/Aywu/la/ko/niaywu/kpuru-bu→M+N(pro)+V+conj+part+pro+V-Af +Part.

Gloss: Must /We /eat /or /do we /die do.

The data is a combination of two sentences joined by the conjunction ‘or’. ‘Or’ is a conjunction used to link two alternatives as evident in the data. The English VP comprises of must + eat which is a modal and a lexical verb (M + v) in the first sentence (S1) and a single lexical verb (v) ‘die’ in the second sentence (S2). The modal verb ‘must’ and the lexical verb ‘eat’ in S1 are in their basic forms, thus the TAf rules of the verb elements in English for S1 and S2 are ♯v♯v♯ and ♯v♯ respectively. The combination of the modal and the verbs in English is an morphophonemic operation by combining the to form the phonemic form required as a terminal string.

In the case of Adara, the process of generating the modal in the context differs from English. The M ‘shi’ occurs before the NP ‘Aywu’ followed by the V ‘la’. That is, M+N+V in S1. In S2, there is a conjunction ‘ko’, the ‘do insertion’ ‘na’ before the NP ‘Aywu’ which qualifies another ‘do insertion’ ‘bu’ after the VP ‘kpuru’. The root word for the verb ‘kpuru’ is ‘ukpo’ as a singular form of die now converted to conform with the plural form ‘aywu’ (we). It is an exceptional case where Adara has a suffix ‘-ru’, just like the plural form of the verb ‘uku’ (inject0 as ‘ukuru’ (to inject many times). Look at the gloss above for clear view of the structure. So we have M+NP+v in S1 and we have ‘conj+do+NP+v +Affix+do’. The TS rule therefore is (S1) → ♯v♯NP♯v♯ ... (S2) → conj♯v♯NP♯v—Af♯v♯. It is clear that the NP is moved to a slot between the M and V in S1 and between ‘do’ and V in S2. This type of syntactic movement is found in English interrogatives such as ‘Must (M) we (NP) eat (V)?’ but not in positive simple declaratives. The structure M + NP + V in a positive declarative sentence is strange to English.

The ‘do’ insertion ‘na’ preceding the NP ‘aywu’ influenced the do insertion ‘bu’ which occurs after the verb (kpuru). The Adara conjunction ‘ko’ (‘or’ in English) translates the same way as Hausa as ‘ko’ (or). It is not clear whether it is mere coincidence or borrowed. One assumes that ‘ko’ is a grammatical word present in Adara prior to any contact considering the spontaneously way it is used. Looking at the Adara verb elements, the ‘do’ insertion ‘na’ which precedes the NP ‘aywu’ in S2 is linked to the ‘do’ insertion in the verbal group ‘kpuru bu’ in the V slot. Since the Taf rule renders auxiliaries and modals as ‘v’, the process is applied here to render the ‘do insertions’ as ‘v’.

In contrast, the rules generating the above data of English verb elements are: English - S1 and S2 are ♯v♯v♯ and ♯v♯ respectively. And Adara S1 and S2 are ♯v♯NP♯v♯ and ♯v♯NP♯v—Af♯v♯ respectively. This Adara structure being a positive statement is at variance with known conventions of any positive declarative sentence in English.

10. English: The /patient / <u>is /fast /recovering</u>.→ T + N + aux + aux + V + affix.
    Adara: Adumu /<u>su/ ba/ achu</u> /<u>kisisa</u>.→ N + aux + aux + V.+ Adv.
    Gloss: Patient / <u>is / come /well /quickly</u>

In this data, the syntactic structure of the English verb elements comprises of two auxiliaries preceding an ‘-ing’ inflectional verb. Thus, the structure is ‘aux+aux+V-ing’. Therefoe the transformational rule generating the verbal group is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯. On the other hand, the Adara verbal group consists of ‘aux+aux+v. The contrast in the rules is the outcome of varying operations by the morphophonemic and TAf rules in the two languages.

4.3 Syntactic Analysis of Tenses in English and Adara Languages

This section is on the syntactic structure of tenses in English and Adara languages. Although some verb phrases expressing tenses also refer to aspects, reference to aspects is reserved in a subsequent section for clarity. The data cut across tenses and aspect structures in simple sentences. Depending on the random documentation made, the data include simple declarative, negative or interrogative sentences in order to vary the structural patterns. The tenses covered in the analysis include:

a. Present simple tense.
b. Present progressive tense.
c. Present perfect tense.
d. Past simple tense.
e. Past perfect tense.
f. Past progressive tense.
g. Simple future tense.
h. Future perfect tense.
i. Future progressive tense.

There are a number of sentences for each type of sentence as representative of the different types of sentences listed above. The data comprised of those from English and Adara languages.

4.3.1 The Present Simple Tense (https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org; https://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/tense-simple-present)**.**

This section is the crux of the thesis because it is basically on tense realising elements. Because of that, only the verb phrases have been contrasted and the transformational structure rules have also been generated**.** It is the second level in

transformational grammar and it is the level where early transformational rules operate (Olu-Tomori, 1977:69). The first level has the PS rules and the third level has morphophonemic rules. We shall refer to the First and third levels only when necessary. The analysis is based on the **bold** verb elements and the rewriting rules apply to the verb elements only as follows:

1.English: I **am** nineteen years old. → v

Adara: Ime **shi** anyi uso nuloso. → v

Gloss: I **am** years ten and nine.

The word 'am' is the 1st person singular form of the verb 'be'. The English verb and the Adara translation 'shi' are generated by the TAf rule in transformational grammar. TAf is one of the Five early transformational structure (TS) rules. The syntactic structure of the verb elements is the same in the two languages because they have only one verb each in its base form in the slot. In line with the above, the single rule generating the verbs in English and Adara data above is ♯v♯. There is no element of contrast in the rule structure except that the languages are different.

2.English: He **lives** in London. V+Affix

Adara: A **hi** ka London.→ V

Gloss: He **live** in London.

In English, the verb 'lives' is in the simple present singular and it refers to something that is true in the present. The verb 'live' is inflected with the suffix '-s'.. The transformational structure rule that generated the verb is ♯v—Af♯. The '-s' inflectional form is a suffix, a type of affix which occupies the space after, and joined to the lexical verb as a single word. Chomsky used affix to refer to bound morphemes such as '-s', in 'hits', 'past' in 'rode', Ø and others (Olu-Tomori, 1977:72). The Adara translation for the verb is 'hi (live)" and it has no inflection like English. As a

single lexical verb, the TS rule that generates it is ♯v♯. The contrast therefore between English and Adara verbal group is the affix slot in the English verb.

The morphophonemic rule of the TS rules converts the two morphemes 'live' and 's' in English into the required phonemic form based on the conventions of the language. The TAf rules restrict the verbs in both languages to the correct contexts.

3.English: I <u>sometimes go</u>to the cinema.→ adv + v.

Adara: Ime <u>ka kya usilima kapiyeachwa</u>**.**→ aux + v + N + adv

Gloss: I **do go**cinema sometimes.

The tense elements consist of an adverb-s (sometime + -s) + verb (go) in the case of English. The adverb is restricted by the morphophonemic rules to occur as an auxiliary to the verb 'go'. And all non-affix elements in a verb phrase are labeled as 'v' in transformational structure rules (Olu-Tomori, 1977:72). Thus, the TAf rule for the English tense elements is ♯v—Af♯v♯. This is a strange development in which suffixes known to be associated with lexical verbs in verb phrases now found with an element that occurs as an auxiliary. The English adverb 'sometimes' that functions as auxiliary is translated in the context of an utterance as 'kapiyeachwa' in Adara and occurs as an adverbial phrase and the final element of the sentence. The base form of the Adara translation of 'sometimes' is 'apiyeachwa'. But for the adverb to be translated in the context of the English tense elements correctly, and to function in the context, the prefix 'k-'must be added. This confirms that both languages have adverbs but differ in usage because their direct translations do not occupy same syntactic slots, and their processes of affixation differ. The English word 'sometime + s' takes a suffix and the Adara translation of the word as 'a+piyeachwa' is derived by using a prefix as shown.

The tense structure of Adara verb phrase is split by the NP that occurs as the object of the sentence. The structure of the verb elements is aux+v+N+Adv. Thus, the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v♯N♯v—Af♯. Clearly, the contrast in the rules of English and Adara verb phrases lies in the number of auxiliaries and the affixation processes. While the English adverb 'sometimes' has a suffix '-s', the Adara has a prefix in its translation as 'k-'. So we have the transformational structure rules as ♯v—Af♯v♯ for English, and ♯v♯v♯S♯v—Af♯ for the Adara language.

4. English: She **never plays** football.→ adv + v

Adara: A **ka ha** ngha ubolu ba.→ aux + v + pro + N + v

Gloss: She do play her ball not.

In forming negatives, the English verb phase is sometimes preceded by a negative particle/adverb as in 'never plays' above. The verb takes the '-s' form of inflectional suffix where the subject is third person singular in the simple present declarative sentence. The structure for the English verb elements is 'adv + v —-s'. Although the verb phrase conveys negative sense which ordinarily should be generated by the Tnot rule (the TS rule that expresses negation), the negative element is rather an adverb which also functions as an auxiliary in view of its direct subordination to the main lexical verb (Crystal, 2008:46). Therefore, the TAf transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯. The Adara verb phrases 'ka ha' an 'aux + v' linked to the negative element 'ba' (not) at the end of the sentence. The negative element 'ba' is separated from the verb slot by NP representing the object of the sentence. The structure of the verb elements therefore is 'aux + v + pro + N + — particle'. The noun is singular and it is labelled in the rule as 'S'. Since the negative particle is not an affix, it is labelled as 'v' in the rule as follows; ♯v♯v♯S♯S♯v♯. The 'S' in the rule represents the singular NP as specified by the TAf transformational structure rule. The pronoun and the noun

in Adara represent an obligatory corresponding pronoun 'ngha' (i.e. 'her' in the context) in the objective case to connect with the object of the sentence "ubolu" (i.e. ball) as accepted by the native speakers of Adara. The contrasts in the structures are the inflectional form of the verb in English, the variation of the slots occupied by the negative elements and the presence of the 'S' slot in the Adara language. The Tnot transformational structure rule applies in the English and Adara. Tnot is used to introduce the element 'not' into an auxiliary phrase for forming the negative of a sentence (Olu-Tomori, 1977:74). While the Tnot rule places the negative element 'never' before the main verb in English, that of Adara is placed as a final element in the sentence having been separated from the main verb by a pronoun and a noun slots.

5.English: Where do **you** live? → aux + pro + v

Adara: Ukabiwu nu **nghu** hi? → aux + pro + v

Gloss: Where do **you** live?

In English, where Wh- questions are asked in the simple present tense, the structure of the verbal group is split by a pronoun in both languages as 'aux + pro + v'. The pronoun element in each language is highlighted within the underlined verbal group and treated as a NP because it functions as the subject of the sentence. The structure of the 'Wh-'question's verb phrase in the data therefore, is aux + NP + v for both languages. In view of the fact that the pronoun 'you' is 2nd person pronoun in English and operates as both singular or plural depending on context, the rule incorporates both the singular and plural symbols as alternatives in the NP slot as follow: ♯v♯pro♯v♯. English and Adara verbal groups accommodate NPs between auxiliaries and lexical verbs as grammatical in Wh- question sentences.

6.English: Where does **he** come from? → aux + pro + v.

Adara: Ukabiwu na **ngha** kunu ku? → aux + pro + v.

Gloss: Where do he come from?

The operation of the transformation structure rules in the above differs in spite of the fact that the sentence in English is Wh- question. The difference is in the '-es' suffix in the auxiliary 'do' which occurs as 'does'. The structure of the English verb phrase incorporating the pronoun 'he' in between is aux + NP + v + prep. In line with the specification of the TAf rule, the preposition is linked to the main verb and functions as an adverb of place. Based on that, the preposition is a non-affix in the context, and non-affixes that must occur within the verb phrase are labelled as 'v' in the TAf rule. Thus, the transformational structure rule that generates the verbal group is ♯v—Af♯S♯v♯v♯. The 'S' slot in the rule specifies the NP.

In the Adara translation, the verb phrase also incorporates the NP slot in questions such as the one in the context. There is no inflection in any of the words in the VG. The structure therefore is 'aux + pro + V+ pre'. The pronoun is the subject of the sentence and it is considered as a singular NP. The element 'ku' is the preposition which in some context is treated as an adverb or particle. In any case, if it occurs in a VG as in this context, it becomes a non-affix in the definition of Chomsky in Olu-Tomori (1977:74), and it is labelled accordingly with the symbol 'v' in the TAf rule. The transformational structures rule therefore is ♯v♯S♯v♯v♯ for the Adara. The difference from the rule of English is the inflection (—Af).

7. Adara: Anu ngha (NP) shi na ali ababi → aux + v

Gloss: Children him/her have do type bad.

English: His/Her children have bad behaviour'. → v

The syntactic structures of the verb phrasess in this data differ in Adara and English languages. The Adara has 'aux+do' respectively. The transformational structure rule therefore is ♯v♯v♯. The English translation is merely the 'be' verb form 'have'. In this case, it is a single verb. Thus, the rule is ♯v♯. While Adara has two verb slots in the rule, English has one verb slot.

8.Adara: Ime ghie imila → v

Gloss: I buy food.

English: I buy the food. v

The data above in Adara was uttered in a conversation in the simple present. The transformational structure rule for the verb phrase is ♯v♯. The English translation is the same in the verb phrase. The rule therefore is ♯v♯.

4.3.2 The Present Progressive Tense

1. In the present progressive tense, the verb structure in Adara is constant when used with singular or plural forms:

Adara: Anu su chi → aux + v

Gloss: Child is cry.

English: A child is crying. → aux + v + -ing

The verb phrase of the Adara is aux + v and that of English is aux + V-ing.

The TS rules for the two languages differ. The Adara *TAf* rule for the verbal group in the data is ♯v♯v♯ and the *TAf* rule for English is ♯v♯v—Af♯. The difference is in the inflected form of the English language verb and that accounts for the variation in the rule from that of Adara.

2. Adara: Ime kyuo nghu → v

Gloss: I seeing you.

English: I am seeing you. → aux + v + -ing

The structure of the Adara verb elements in the data is one lexical verb ‘v’ (kyuo). But in the English translation of the Adara data, the structure has an auxiliary preceding an inflected lexical verb as ‘aux + v-ing’. This shows that the transformational structure rules differ in the two languages. The TAf rule in Adara is ♯v♯, whereas in English it is ♯v♯v—Af♯.. These elements are absent in the Adara data which has only a lexical verb without auxiliary and without inflection.

3.Adara: Iyi kyuo nghu → v.

Gloss: We (pl- two) seeing you → v + -ing.

English: We (pl) are seeing you → aux + v + -ing.

Here, there are complexities to explain with regards to the NPs. In Adara, there are different terms for plural referring to two and plural referring to more than two. ‘Iyi’ in the above data refers to two persons (of any sex). ‘Ime’ means ‘I’, ‘Iyi’ means ‘We’ (Two) and ‘Aywu’ means ‘We’ (more than two. Whether the NP is singular or plural, and whether it refers to One, Two or more than two, the auxiliary verb or verb phrase remains the same. In English, a variation of number in the subject NP affects the structure of the auxiliary verb or verb phrases. In the above data, the transformational structure rules of the verb phrases of Adara and English thus differ. These are: ♯v♯ for the Adara, and ♯v♯v—Af♯ for English..

The morphophonemic rule converts the string of the singular verb ‘is’ to the plural verb ‘are’ as well as ‘see’ to ‘seeing’ in the English translation.

4.Adara: Aywu kyuo nghu. → v

Gloss: We seeing you.

English: We are seeing you → aux + v +-ing

The data in (4) is similar to that of (3) above except that the plural NP in Adara “Aywu’ refers to a number more than two. This is not specified in the English

translation because the plural NP “we’ refers to any number more than one. The transformational structure rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯; and that of English is ♯v♯v—Af♯. When the gerund ‘ukyuo’ (seeing) in Adara is put in context within a sentence in the progressive sense, the morphophonemic rule carries out operation of deleting the initial letter ‘u’ so that the sound agrees with the native speaker’s convention. In the case of English, the morphophonemic rule carries out similar operation by converting the strings of the simple present tense from the verb ‘see’ through the addition of the ‘-ing’ inflectional suffix.

5.Adara: Aywu su kyuo nu. → aux + v

Gloss: We are looking you.

English: We are looking at you. → aux + v + -ing

The structure of the verb phrases for Adara and English languages are ‘aux + v’ and ‘aux + v +-ing’ respectively. The structures of the verbal groups both have auxiliaries but differ in the structure of the lexical verbs. While in Adara TAf rule is ♯v♯v♯, in the English translation however, the structure of the lexical verb differs. Thus, the rule for the English verb phrases is ♯v♯v—Af♯.

6. Adara: A su keri utina → aux + v

Gloss: He/she is doing work.

English: He is working. → aux + v + -ing

The syntactic structure of Adara verb phrase is ‘aux + V’ and that of English verb phrase is ‘aux + V-ing’. The TS rules for the Adara and English are ♯v♯v♯ and ♯v♯v—Af♯ respectively. The difference between the rule of Adara and English verb elements is the presence of a suffix in the English main verb.

7. English: He is moving to London → aux + v + -ing

   Adara: A ki sah kya ngha ka London. → aux + aux + v.

   Gloss: He will leave go him to London.

In the data above, the syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux + v +-ing' while that of Adara is 'aux + aux + v'. The transformational structure rules therefore are ♯v♯v-ing♯ and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for English and Adara respectively. The English verb phrase takes one auxiliary and the Adara VG accepts two auxiliaries in the context.

8. English: They are washing the dishes. → aux + v + -ing

   Adara: A(pl) su huru akwanu. → aux + v

   Gloss: They are wash (the) dishes.

The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux +v + -ing'. This signals the conversion of the singular verb 'be' from 'is' to the plural form 'are' to agree with the plural NP 'they'. That is a variation from Adara in which the verb is constant irrespective of number changes in the NP. On the other hand, the syntactic structure of the Adara verb elements is 'aux + V'. The transformational structure rules of the verbal groups in the data are: English - ♯v♯v—Af♯; and Adara - ♯v♯v♯.

9. English: The plane is taking off at 5:20. → aux + V-ing + adv

   Adara : Ujirgi ki funu ka atu ni shipai. → aux + V

   Gloss: (The) Plane will fly at 5 with 20.

The English verb phrase 'is taking off' in the data combines an auxiliary + phrasal verbs. Thus, the syntactic structure of the verb phrase is 'aux + V-ing + adv'. The Adara verb phrase 'ki funu' translated as 'will fly' is simply 'aux + v'. The

differences lie on the presence of an inflection of the English lexical verb as well as the adverb occurring after the inflected lexical verb. These elements are absent in the Adara translation. Therefore, the transformational structure rules of the verb phrases are therefore, ♯v♯v—Af♯v♯.for English; and ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara.

10. English: The President is coming to the UN this week. → aux + v +-ing

    Adara: Aghirbu ki ba UN ku sati ri. → aux + v.

    Gloss: Landowner will come UN in week this.

The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux + v + -ing' and that of the Adara is 'aux + v'. The Adara auxiliary is not translated using the present simple 'is' because it is not acceptable to the native speaker to say 'ta ba' (is coming)' 'ku sati ri' (this week). The auxiliary 'ta' refers to the time 'now'. So since the coming is not 'now', the Adara rather accepts the auxiliary 'ki' (will) signifying the future. The transformational structure rules for the verb phrases are ♯v♯v—Af♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara. The variation is clearly the affix element. The morphophonemic rules and TAf rules are responsible for generating the structures of the verb phrases.

4.3.3 Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense in English is used to indicate a link between the present and the past. The time of the action is before now but not specified, and we are often more interested in the result than in the action itself (https://www.ef.com/ http://www.ef.edu/english-re sources/).

Perfect tense in grammar "describes a verb or verb aspect for an action that is brought to a close" (Microsoft Encarta, 2008).The analysis of data here is a contrast

between the syntactic nature of English and Adara underlined verb phrases to ascertain the differences

1.English: I have lived in Bristol since 1948.→ aux + v + -d.

Adara: Ime ku hi ka Bristol ku kpa ka 1948.→ aux + v.

Gloss: I have live in Bristol start from 1948.

The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase in the data is 'aux + V-d'; and that of Adara is 'aux + v'. This shows that the inflection in the English data is not in the Adara translation. Thus, the transformational structure rules certainly differ in the two languages. In English the TAf rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯, and in the Adara, the rule is ♯v♯v♯. In converting the verb structure from the simple present to the perfect tense sense, the morphophonemic rule must come to play. The base form of the verb 'live' is then converted by the addition of the past morpheme as an affix. The auxiliary 'have' is obligatory in English just like the auxiliary 'ku' in Adara. The TAf rule and the morphophonemic rule combine to do the required operation on the applicable strings in the data.

2.English: She has been to the cinema twice this week.→ aux + v + -en.

Adara: A ku kya usilima irpai ku sati ri.→ aux + v.

Gloss: She has go cinema twice in week this.

The structure of the English verb phrase 'has been' is 'aux + v + -en' and that of Adara is 'aux + v'. We have stated earlier that the perfective is used to indicate a link between the present and the past. This requires introduction of the past morpheme to make the action refer to the present in the perfect sense; or in other words as a complement to the perfect auxiliary 'has'. The Adara auxiliary and verb remains in their base forms. The morphophonemic rule must again come to play in order to convert the strings of the 'past + present' morphemes in the verb phrase.

Thus, ‘be’ becomes ‘been’ in English. In the case of Adara the auxiliary verb “ku’ is required before the lexical verb ‘kya’ in order to realise the perfect sense. The transformational structure rule for the underlined English verb phrase therefore is ♯v♯v—Af♯, and that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯. The difference exhibited by the rules is the affix slot in English that is absent in Adara.

The perfect reference in English is marked by both the perfect auxiliary and the past form of ‘be’ as ‘been’ in the verb phrase, whereas in Adara it is marked only by the auxiliary ‘ku’.

3.English: I <u>have just finished</u> my work. → aux + aux + v + -ed.

Adara: <u>U*ki kpe*</u> *utina* <u>*mi wudi*</u>. → aux + v + pro + adv.

Gloss: <u>Just-finish</u> work my <u>now</u>.

In the data above, the syntactic structure of the verb phrase in English is ‘aux + aux + v + –d’. The English structure of the verb phrase has two auxiliaries (the perfective ‘have’ and adverb ‘just’ which occurs as an auxiliary here) before the lexical verb which itself is inflected with the past morpheme (-ed suffix). The structure of the verb phrase of Adara is ‘aux + v. The auxiliary and the verb in Adara appear in their root form. The word ‘just’ in English which occurs as auxiliary between the perfective auxiliary ‘have’ and the main verb ‘finished’ is ordinarily an adverb. In Adara, the translation of ‘just’ is the last element in the sentence. It does not not form part of the verb phrase but occurs as a complement. The TAf rule for the English verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯; and that of Adara is ♯v♯v♯. The differences are in the varying number of auxiliaries, presence of a suffix in English and the non-inclusion of the adverb ‘wudi’ in the verb phrase structure of Adara.

4. English: We <u>have visited</u> Portugal several times. → aux + v + -ed.

   Adara: *Aywu <u>ku ki</u> apotugal si vivulo.*→ aux + v.

Gloss: We <u>have go</u> Portugal repeatedly.

The verb phrasess in the data exhibit similarity by having one auxiliary each. They however differ in view of the inflectional suffix on the English lexical verb. Their syntactic structures vary as follow: English 'aux + V-ed'; Adara - 'aux + V'. As a result, the transformational structure rule for English is ♯v♯v—Af♯ while that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯. The difference is similar to the variation in other entries above. It however differs in the English verb phrase where the past morpheme is '-ed' as against the '-d' form in (3) above. Variation on the structure of auxiliary, verb or affix across languages is of no effect to their labelling as such. The emphasis is whether the element, for example, is an affix or auxiliary or lexical verb. Whatever the affix is, it is labelled as an affix irrespective of type. But the element must be placed in the appropriate slot.

5.English: She <u>has worked</u> in the bank for five years. → aux + v + -ed.

Adara: *A <u>ku keri</u> utina ku banki anyi atu.*→ aux + v.

Gloss: She <u>has do</u> work in bank years five.

The syntactic structures of the verbal groups are: English: aux + v + -ed; and Adara: aux + V. The transformational structure rules therefore are ♯v♯v—Af♯ and ♯v♯v♯ for English and Adara respectively. In the context, Adara translation does not accept the vocabulary 'utina' (work) as part of the verb. Rather, it is the object of the sentence. This shows that the TAf rules discussed above are applicable. The English sentence has no object but has adverbial phrases of place and time. The full realisation of the two sentences syntactically is: English – NP + VP + adv + adv.

But our concern is about the underlined verb phrase only because in can be generated without necessarily involving the adverbial phrases.

6.English: It has rained a lot this year.→ aux + v + -ed.

Adara: *Avua ku kpa na giga ka nyiri.* → aux + v.

Gloss: Rain has fall very well this year.

The verbal groups syntax is: English: 'aux + v + -ed'; and the Adara: 'aux + v'. The transformational structure rules are therefore: English- ♯v♯v—Af♯. Adara- ♯v♯v♯. The TAf morphophonemic rules apply by exerting the affix in English and restricting all morphemes into their correct contexts. The difference between the rule of English and that of Adara is the presence of an affix in English.

7.English: We have just seen her. → aux + aux + v + -en.

Adara: *Umana aywu ki nu ngha wudi.* → aux + v.

Gloss: How we just see her now.

The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux + aux + V-en'. The structure of Adara verb phrase is 'aux + V'. The transformational structure rules of the verb phrases therefore are: English - ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯. Adara - ♯v♯v♯. it shows that it is the TAf rule that accounts for the affix in English, while the morphophonemic rule restricts all morphemes to correct contexts.

8.English: Someone has eaten my soup. → aux + v + -en.

Adara: *Apiyaghu ku la mi irniye.* → aux + v.

Gloss: Someone has eat my soup do (past).

The structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux + v-en', and the Adara translation is 'aux + v'. The rules for the two languages therefore are ♯v♯v—Af♯ for the English verb elements, and ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara translation. These are similar to (7) above.

9.English: Has he just left? → aux + pro + adv + v.

Adara: *Uki sa ngha wudi?* → aux + v + pro + adv.

Gloss: Just left he now?

The English simple past tense verb phrase in the interrogative context involves movement of pronoun (NP) from the subject slot to the space between the auxiliary and the lexical verb. This practice is found in yes-no questions where the interrogative transformation rule moves the auxiliary in front of the subject noun phrase (Jacobs and Rosenbaum, 1968:158).

In the above data, the auxiliary 'has' occupies the NP (subject) slot at the beginning of the sentence. The NP on the other hand occupies the space left by the auxiliary immediately preceding the lexical verb. The syntactic structure of the verb phrase must then incorporate the NP to bring out the interrogative effect in the terminal string. The structure is 'aux + pro + adv + v'. In the case of Adara, the structure of the sentence is aux + v + pro + adv'.

The verb 'left' in English has been transformed through the morphophonemic process. This falls under 'replacive morphemes' which combines 'leave + past = left'. It converts the string of morpheme comprising terminal string into the sounds of the language. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯S♯v♯v♯ for the English interrogative sentence where 'S' stands for the incorporated subject into the verb phrase; and ♯v♯v♯S♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrase. The analysis shows that apart from the differences in the structure of English and Adara interrogative sentences, the verb phrases cannot be separated from other elements in the sentences if the interrogative effects of 'yes-no' answer is expected. The NPs for both languages have been moved but placed in varying slots. While the English NP occurs as a

second element in the sentence, that of the Adara occurs as the third element in the sentence.

The movement rule has been applied to suit the language's convention accepted by the native speaker to translate the declarative sentence to interrogative sentence. In Adara, the structure of the sentence is the same both in positive declarative and interrogative forms. The difference is noted by a tone variation on the final syllable of the sentence.

10.English: We <u>have **not** seen</u> her today. → aux + part + v + -en

Adara: *Aywu <u>ku nu bu</u> ngha kawadi <u>ba.</u>*→ <u>aux + v + part + pro + adv + part.</u>

Gloss: We <u>have see **not**</u> her today **not.**

Here, whereas English verbal structure introduces the negative particle (not) between the auxiliary and the main verb, the Adara has two 'not' particles ('bu' and 'ba' which both mean 'not' in the context). In dealing with negative sentences as in the data above, the approach differs from those used to analyse positive sentences. The 'Tnot' rule applies. It is a transformational rule for the introduction of 'not' into an auxiliary verb phrase for forming the negative of a sentence. Note that negative sentences must be derived from the positive irrespective of whether they (the positive) are stated or not. Thus, the 'Tnot' transformational rule operates in strings that are in three parts structurally as one of the following:

1. NP—C—V…;
2. NP—C+M-…;
3. NP—C+Have- …;
4. NP—C+be- …

The element ‘not’ or ‘n’t’ is introduced into the string after the second element which is regularly an affix designated by C in each of the above strings. For example:

1. they— Ø + can — come;
2. they— Ø + have— en + come;
3. they —Ø + be —ing + come.

Tnot then converts each of these terminal strings to;

1. they— Ø + can+ n’t— come;
2. they— Ø + have + n’t— en + come;
3. they— Ø + are + n’t— ing + come.

When the morphophonemic rules of the language are applied, these become; they can’t come; they haven’t come; they aren’t coming respectively. This is how Tnot rule is applied for sentences that have auxiliary verbs (Olu-Tomori, 1977:73-4) as the sentences in the data.

In view of the above, the syntactic structure of the verbal groups of English and Adara in the data (10) above are ‘aux + part + V-en’; and ‘aux + v + not+ pro + adv + not’ respectively. The ‘Tnot’ rule generates the ‘not’ element as the second element in the verb phrase but it occurs as the third element in Adara verb phrase. The second ‘not’ particle (ba) in Adara which is the final element in the entire sentence combines with the auxiliary ‘ku’ and the first ‘not’ particle ‘bu’ which is immediately after the main verb to give the negative verb. This is why in negative sentences the verb phrase above is split by the object pronoun and the adverb phrase to be syntactically acceptable. Let us illustrate beginning with English: We — Ø + have + n’t — en + come. The ‘not’ element occurs after the second element (have) as specified in the structure. In the case of Adara, it is Aywu (we) — Ø + ku (have) + nu(see) + bu(not) — ngha (her) + kawadi (today) + ba (not). In the first place, there are two ‘not’ elements in the sentence with the first occurring after the third

element (not after the second as specified by the Tnot rule in English), it is also not possible to ignore the second 'not' element which is the final element in the sentence. More complex is the fact that the noun phrase and the adverb that occur between the two 'not' elements are obligatory for the verbal group to be meaningful. Also, the Tnot rule present the 'not' elements as contractions or affixes which are not applicable to Adara in this context. In conclusion, the Tnot rule is seen to be applicable to English and not to Adara going by the specification strictly. However, transformational grammar is capable of generating utterances explicitly in any natural language in the way it is accepted and use by the native speakers. As such, the transformational structure rule for the English verbal group (We — Ø + have + n't — en + come) is ♯v♯—v♯v♯. Since contractions are not in the class of affix, the 'not' element is labelled as '—v' in the TAf rule.

In the case of the Adara language, an attempt is made to state the rule based on the syntactic structure of the sentence (Aywu— Ø +ku +nu —bu(not)NP+adv +ba (not). That is: We —Ø+have +see —not +NP+adv+not. Thus, the TAf rule is: ♯v♯v♯—v♯S♯v♯—v♯. The 'not' elements are clearly marked as '—v' to differentiate them from positive declarative sentences.

4.3.4 The Past Simple Tense

An action in the past may be seen as having taken place at a particular point in time, or over a period. If it is over a period, the period may be seen as extending up to the present or relating only to the past. If it relates only to the past, it may be seen as having been completed or as not having been completed (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:42). The contrastive analysis of the verb phrases' syntax of Adara and English in the past simple tense is as follows:

1.Adara: *Adjua ku hi khi da pah* → aux + v.

Gloss: People have live in caves.

English: People lived in caves.→ v + -d.

The structural distinction between the past simple and the past perfect is determined by the auxiliary usage in Adara. The verb phrase structures in the data above are: Adara has 'aux + V' and English has 'V—d'. In Adara verb phrase 'ku (aux) hi (V)',the simple 'past' is marked by the auxiliary verb. The TAf rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯. Remember that non affix elements in verb phrases are labelled as 'v' bounded by the symbol '♯' as the word boundary (Olu-Tomori, 1977:72). But in English, the morphophonemic rules convert by adding an affix to the root to form the past tense verb to form a participle. This action is completed by adding an inflectional morpheme as suffix to the base form of the verb. That is, past + live = lived. Consequently, the transformational structure rule for English is ♯v—Af♯. The syntactic differences are the presence of an auxiliary in Adara as against the affix in English. In Adara, the verb retains its base form while English accepts participles (verbs used to form complex tenses such as continuous or past tenses or even as adjectives) except in irregular verbs (verbs not formed by usual grammatical rules).

2. Adara: *Aywu (ku)nuaninu adadama*.→ v

Gloss: We see bird beautiful.

English: We saw a beautiful bird.→ v

Adara uses the base form of the verb with an option of adding an auxiliary 'ku' to form the simple past, English replaces the present form of 'see' with an irregular form (saw) to indicate the simple past. It is clear that while referring to general past (when not specific about the actual time past), the simple past can be expressed with or without the auxiliary in Adara. The operation carried out by the morphophonemic

rule under replacive morphemes results to having the irregular verb (saw) as the English verb phrase. The syntactic structure of Adara verb phrase is simply the (optional aux +) base form of the lexical verb 'nu' (see) which has no inflectional morpheme in the context. In the case of English, the 'past' form of 'see' is converted through suppletion in morphophonemic rules to 'saw'. That is to say 'past + see' = 'saw' (Olu-Tomori, 1977:32-3, 70). It is a special type of replacive morphemes. The transformational structure rules for Adara and English therefore are ♯v♯ for Adara; and ♯Afv♯ for the English language. 'Af' stands for Ø (past) in the rule(Olu Tomori, 1977:72). Thus, the irregular form of the past tense verb 'saw' is stated as ♯Afv♯ in the rule.

3. Adara: *Ime ba kya ulije kamushiye* → aux + v.

Gloss: I did go business yesterday.

English: I went to the market yesterday. → v.

In Adara language, the auxiliary that refers to the past -yesterday differs from that which refers to past - beyond yesterday. 'ba' in 'ba kya' is constraint to 'yesterday'. Assuming it is 'sa kya', the 'sa' referent is to the 'past' beyond yesterday. Thus, Adara selects an aux (past) 'ba' to precede the base form of the main verb 'kya' (go). English simply uses an irregular verb 'went' to refer to the past. The structure of the verbal group for the Adara is 'aux + V' where the auxiliary is the past marker. The structure of the English verb element is 'past + go = went' with merely a single irregular verb 'went' as both the main verb and the past marker. If the adverb 'yesterday' is deleted from the sentence, it will be optional for the Adara to use the auxiliaries as discussed (in 2.) above. Having carried out the morphophonemic operations, the transformational structure rule using the TAf are ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara with the first slot representing the auxiliary, and the second slot the lexical verb. The

TAf rule for the English verb phrase is ♯Afv♯ where the 'Af' stands for the past morpheme and the 'v' for the base form of the verb.

4. Adara: *Amushiyeni, Ime <u>ba sugh</u> ka Abuja* → aux + v.

   Gloss: Yesterday, I <u>did arrive</u> at Abuja.

   English: Yesterday, I <u>arrived</u> at Abuja. → v + -d.

The structure of the Adara verb phrase is 'aux + v'. The auxiliary 'ba' refers to 'past-yesterday' referent as discussed above and the verb 'sugh' (arrive) is in its base form. In English, the syntactic structure of the verb is 'v-d'. It is a single inflected verb form. The inflectional morpheme (i.e. suffix) marks the 'past'. There is a semantic difference in the two past markers. Whereas in the Adara verb phrase, the auxiliary 'ba' is limited to 'past-yesterday', the English past marker refers to unlimited past. The transformational structure rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯. That of the English verb is ♯v—Af♯.

5. Adara: *A <u>kpe</u> utina ngha kunu ughe*. → v.

   Gloss: He/she <u>finish</u> work his/her in evening.

   English: He/she <u>finished</u> her work in the evening. → v + -ed.

In the above data, the Adara verb phrase slot has a single verb in its base form as 'kpe'. The English verb element slot also has a single but inflected verb form 'finished'. The syntactic structures will however be different in view of the inflection in English. These are; Adara 'v'; and English 'verb + -ed'. The TAf rules are therefore ♯v♯ and ♯v—Af♯ for Adara and English respectively. There is no structural change in Adara verb because past is marked by the auxiliary. The main verb is pronounced the same way at all times.

6.Adara: *A ku ba fama*→ aux + aux + v.

Gloss: He/she has come reach.

English: He/she has arrived. → aux + v + -d.

The Adara data above has two auxiliary verbs preceding the lexical verb. In English, there is only one auxiliary verb preceding a suffix ended main verb. The verbal groups are: Adara: aux + aux + v; and English: aux + v –d. The TAf rules for the verb phrases are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for Adara and ♯v♯v—Af♯ for English.

7.Adara: *A ku ba fama ngha ba*→ aux + part + v + pro + part.

Gloss: He/she has come reach he/she not.

English: He/she has not arrived. — aux + part + v + -d.

The sentence above expresses negation. The structure of the verbal group differs in the two languages as follows: Adara: aux + part + v + pro + part. Then English: aux + particle + v-d.

In Adara, the particle that marks the negative sense ‘ba’ (not) occurs as a final element in the sentence. This should not be confused with the auxiliary ‘ba’ (come) as seen in the gloss. Also, the negative marker ‘ba’ will be meaningless without the objective case pronoun ‘ngha’ (NP) preceding it. The role played by the pronoun is the reason why it has to be incorporated in the verb phrase in accordance with the application of the Tnot rule. It is not because the pronoun is a verb, but because it has to be there for the negative element to function with other verb phrase elements. The transformational structure rule of the English verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯. The negative particle functions as an auxiliary. Whereas the ‘—‘symbol forms part of the rule of affixation as in ‘v—Af’ connecting the ‘-d’ suffix. In Adara, the rule incorporates the ‘S’ slot because of the obligatory NP (ngha – he/she) before the

negative marker (ba) as ♯v♯v♯v♯S♯—v♯. Note that the word 'ba' serves multiple purposes. It can occur as main verb, auxiliary, or as a particle to mark negation in the context.

8.Adara; *Unu kpwila **nu** ba?* → v + pro + part.

Gloss: You play you not?

English: Did **you** not play? → aux + pro + part + v.

The above data are negative interrogative sentences. The sentences have been converted from their positive declarative states to the negative interrogative states through transformation. Chomsky believes that the conversion of such sentences is made possible through the application of the 'Tq' rule of transformational grammar. Tq is the transformational rule for converting declarative sentences into questions. Tq acts on strings that are in three parts of which Chomsky gave the following examples in Olu-Tomori (1977:75):

1. they —Ø— arrive.
2. they— Ø+ can — arrive.
3. they — Ø + have — en + arrive.
4. they — Ø + be—ing + arrive.

Each of these four strings is converted by Tq into the following:

1. Ø — they — arrive.
2. Ø + can — they — arrive.
3. Ø + have — they —en + arrive.
4. Ø + be —they — ing + arrive.

After applying the necessary transformational and morphophonemic rules, the terminal strings above become:

1. Do they arrive?
2. Can they arrive?
3. Have they arrived?
4. Are they arriving?

In the data in (8) above, we are faced with sentences that are both negative and interrogative. Since our concern in this thesis is to contrast the terminal strings of verbal groups, and here we have verbal groups that are mainstreamed with other elements in the sentences, we shall place the terminal strings of Adara and English for the contrastive analysis. The TAf rules, the Tnot rule and the Tq rule will be referred to in discussing the structure of the negative interrogative sentences. Our data for analysis are:

Adara : pro + v + pro + Particle ;

English: aux + pro + Particle + v.

From the foregoing, it is clear that the structures were converted from the positive declarative versions as 'Unu kpwila', that is translated as 'you played' to 'unu kpwila nu ba? That is 'you play you not? The terminal strings thus show that the Tnot rule (Olu-Tomori, 1977:74) has been applied to introduce the negative particle (ba) in Adara as a final element and the 'not' particle preceding the only verb in English. The Tq rule on the other hand operated by the introduction of the second pronoun ('nu'- which means 'you') in the Adara structure which is linked to the introduction of the negative particle as an interrogative marker; the same way the 'do' in its past tense morpheme is introduced as an initial element in the English structure to mark the interrogative sense. The operation has shown that the 'Tq' rule, the Tnot rule and the morphophonemic rule mainstreamed to generate the structures of the two languages. The transformation structure rules vary: Adara: ♯v♯S♯—v♯. English: ♯Af—v♯S♯—v♯v♯. Note that only the underlined parts of the data in (8) are included in the rules.

9.Adara: *Ungho ta chi nghu ba.*

Gloss: You do cry you not.

English: You did not cry.

The syntactic structure of the verbal group of Adara is 'aux (ta) + v (chi) + pro (nghu) + part (ba)'; and that of English is 'aux (did) + particle (not) + v (cry)'. In Adara, the recurring pronoun (NP) 'nghu' before the final particle in the data is an obligatory carrier of the negative particle. It has to be inserted for the negation to be marked by the 'not' particle. But in English, the past tense auxiliary (did) preceding the negative element derives from a 'do' insertion to include the 'past' morpheme in English. Chomsky calls the 'do insertion' as "the bearer of the unaffixed affix" (Olu Tomori, 1077:74) in the 'Tnot rule'. The rules in these contexts (Adara and English data) incorporate the TAf rule, the Tnot rule and the morphophonemic rule. Consequently, the transformational structure rules for the verb phrases and the mainstreamed noun phrases (pronouns) of the two languages are: Adara: '#v#v#S#v#. English: #Afv#v#v#. The 'Af' in the 'Afv' stands for 'Ø' (past symbol) (Olu Tomori, 1977:72) and the 'v' stands for the verb slot.

10.Adara: *A ku kya **bu** ku kru kini ngha.*→ 'aux + v + pro + part + v.

Gloss: They have go **them** to fight with him/her.

English: They have gone to fight with him/her.→ aux + v + part + v.

The structures of the verb phrases are: Adara: 'aux (ku) +v (kya) + pro (bu) + part (ku) + v (kru); and English: aux (have)+ v (gone) + inf (to) + v (fight). There is a recurring pronoun (NP) 'bu' (them) mainstreamed in the Adara verb phrase which has to be incorporated, not as verb or doing word but as an obligatory element to establish the acceptable convention in the language. The recurring pronoun which functions in the objective case is most of the time a replica of the subject NP. That

is, '**they** have go **them** to fight'. The 'them' is connected to the 'they' not as the recipient of the action described by the verb phrase but linked to performer of the action for emphasis. It is not acceptable in English to say 'they have gone them to fight with them'. The transformational structure rules of the verb phrases in the declarative sentences are; Adara:♯v♯v♯S♯v♯v♯. the 'S' stands for the mainstreamed pronoun. And in English: ♯v♯Afv♯v♯v♯. The auxiliary in the Adara structure marks the 'past' as against the 'Afv' slot in English. The two elements of the 'to inf.' in each of the languages are labelled as 'v' each. This is because it is not an affix; and all non-affix elements in the verb phrases are labelled as 'v' in the TAf rule except the mainstreamed nouns or pronouns (NPs) labelled as'S'.

In the above structures, the pronoun 'A' in Adara varied by low or high tone is used for 3rd person singular (he/she/him/her) and also as a 3rd person plural marker (they, them). It is however required that a corresponding pronoun occurs after the main verb to signal agreement in terms of number (and as a carrier of negation in negative sentences).

11. Adara: *Ime ku ghie imila*. → aux + v.

Gloss: I have buy food.

English: I have bought food. → aux + v.

See the present form of this datum in 4.3.1(8). In this simple past form, Adara retains the present form of the verb preceded by an auxiliary whereas the English verb also preceded by an auxiliary is a participle. The structure of the Adara verb phrase above is 'aux + v'. The auxiliary marks the past morpheme. In English, the structure is translated as 'aux + v' too. However, the English verb is written in its past tense form having undergone the morphophonemic operation. The operation combines 'past + buy' to get the past form 'bought'. In labelling elements in this

type of operation already discussed under replacive morphemes above, the symbol 'Afv' applies on the verb 'bought' being a combination of 'buy + past = bought'. 'Af' here is not an affix but a replacement for the .Ø' past marker (Olu Tomori, 1977:72). This is the result of the application of morphophonemic rules. The 'TAf' rule for the verb phrase of Adara is ♯v♯v♯. The 'TAf' rule for the English data is ♯v♯Afv♯.

12.Adara: *Anuku la imila*.→ aux + v.

Gloss: The child has eat (the) food.

English: The child ate the food. → v.

The structure of the Adara verb phrase is 'aux (ku) + v (la)'. In English, the structure of the verb phrase is 'v' for the verb 'ate'. The transformational structure rules that generate the verb phrase structure of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯; and that of the English verb phrase is ♯Afv♯. This is accounted for by the operation of the morphophonemic rules under replacive morphemes. The verb phrases of Adara and English differ such that the former is aux plus a verb in its base form and the latter uses an irregular verb accordingly.

13.English: He went to club yesterday. → v.

Adara:*A ba kya ngha ku kulob* kamushiye. → aux + v.

Gloss: He was go him to club yesterday..

The structure of the English verb phrase is 'past + go' resulting to a single irregular verb 'went'. The Adara translation is 'aux + v'. The auxiliary 'ba' in Adara is necessitated due to the presence of the adverb 'yesterday' in the English sentence. The auxiliary would have been different (ku) if it were a general past time. The rules therefore are ♯Afv♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯ for Adara accordingly. The

morphophonemic rules operate differently in English and Adara verb phrases in the data. Whereas the base form of the English verb is transformed into a new word, the Adara verb takes a preceding auxiliary to refer to the past.

14.English: We gave her the key. → v.

Adara: *Aywu ku ma ngha ufuo.* → aux + v.

Gloss: We have give her key.

Yhis entry is similar to the one in No. 13 above. The English verb 'gave' is the past form of give. The structure in line with transformational structure rules is the combination of a past morpheme with the present form of the verb. This is carried out by an operation of the morphophonemic rules as in 'past + give = gave'. The Adara structure takes a past auxiliary 'ku' to precede the main verb as in 'ku ma'. That is, 'aux + v. The transformational structure rule for the English verb phrase is ♯Afv♯; and that of Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯. Adara auxiliaries are always in their base forms (neither modified nor inflected) in every given context.

4.3.5. The Past Progressive Tense

This section is a contrastive analysis of past progressive tenses of English and Adara languages. This type of tense indicates continuing action. That is, something that was happening, going on, at some point in time in the past. In English, the past progressive tense is formed with the helping verb 'to be' in the past tense plus the present participle of the verb with an '–ing' ending. The analysis of the underlined verb phrases is as follows (data from http://grammar.ccc.edu):

1.English: I was riding my bike all day yesterday. → aux + v-ing.

Adara: *Ime ba shi ku ti ihwari mi si wua kamushiye.* → aux + aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I was do do ride bike my all day yesterday.

The structures of the verb phrases in the above data are: English: aux + v-ing; and Adara: ‘aux + aux+ aux + v. The progressive markers in Adara are the second and third auxiliaries. The transformational structure rules are; English: ♯Afv♯v—Af♯. Adara: ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯. It is clear from the above that the morphophonemic rule combined ‘past + am’ to get ‘was’ which is past form of ‘be’. The TAf rules describe the ‘-ing’ affix and labelled as ‘v—Af’ in the English data. The morphophonemic rules apply to the auxiliary ‘was’ through the use a replacive morpheme, and the TAf rule apply on the main verb by adding the ‘-ing’ inflectional affix.

2.English: I <u>was sleeping</u> on the chair last night. → aux + v-ing.

Adara: *Ime <u>ba shi ku muo</u> kaya igu kana ati.* → aux + aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I <u>was do do sleep</u> on chair at night.

The data in (2) exhibit similar features as those in (1). Thus, the rules are the same for both English and Adara as in (1) above. The structures of the verb phrases are: English: aux+ v-ing. Adara: aux+ aux+ aux+ v. In view of these, the rules for the structure of the verb phrases of English and Adara are ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ and ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯ respectively.

Note that in (1) and (2) above, the choice of ‘ba’ as an initial auxiliary in either of the verb phrases is determined by the fact the referent adverb phrases (yesterday, last night) referred to the time - previous day. The alternative auxiliary ‘sa’ would have been used if the referent time adverb referred to any other day before yesterday not specifically mentioned.

3. Adara: *Ime shi ku tih ku sighte aghimi mi kawhi ra*. → aux + aux + v.

   Gloss: I was stand in front husband my day that.

   English: I was standing in front of my husband that day. → aux + v-ing.

The structure of the Adara verb phrase in the above data is 'aux + aux +v'. The auxiliaries 'shi ku' (was do) are markers of the simple past. The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is 'aux + v-ing'. The auxiliary 'was' as discussed earlier is a product of the role played by the morphophonemic rules in combining the strings of morphemes 'past + see'. The transformational structure rules therefore are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara, and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase. The differences lie in the operation of the morphophonemic rules through replacive morphemes and TAf rules of affixation in English. These account for the variations visible in the rules.Note that referring to a point in time beyond yesterday in the progressive tense in Adara share a common structural pattern of having auxiliaries before the main verb with English except that the number of auxiliaries varies. Also, the inflection of verbs in English did not apply in Adara.

4.Adara: *Ime shi ku la imilaka whi ra.* → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I was do do eat food on day that.

English: I was eating food on that day. → aux + v-ing.

The verb phrase structure of Adara is 'aux + aux + v'. The structure has two auxiliaries before the main verb. The English translation has the following structure; 'aux + v-ing'. The variation is that the English verb phrase has only one auxiliary, and the main verb has the '-ing' inflectional suffix. The transformational structure rules accordingly are ♯v♯v♯v♯ and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for Adara and English respectively. In all the past tense verbs in English where the auxiliaries are in past

forms, they are labelled in the transformational structure rules as ‘Afv’ because of the morphophonemic rule operation under replacive morphemes.

5.English: Was he being good to you? → aux + pro + v-ing.

Adara: *A sa ka ju nghu ududumа?* → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: He was do do you good?

The past progressive tense also occur in the interrogative sentences. Here the data is obtained from English language sources. As discussed above, once a positive declarative sentence is transformed into a negative or an interrogative sentence the syntactic structure changes. The structures of the underlined verb phrases in the above data are: English: ‘aux + Subject + V-ing’; and Adara: ‘(Subject +) aux + v’. It is clear that the subject in English is moved to a location between the auxiliary and the present participle form of the verb ‘be’ used with the v-ing suffix. The Adara on the other hand maintains its declarative structure with two auxiliaries preceding the main verb. The first auxiliary ‘sa’ is the ‘past’ marker, the second auxiliary ‘ka’ is the past progressive marker. Both the TAf and Tq rules have been applied and the structures of the verbal groups occur as follows: English: ♯Afv♯S♯v—Af♯. Adara: ♯v♯v♯v♯. Note how the movement rule moved and placed the NP of English data to a slot between the auxiliary verb and the main verb to agree with convention of the native speaker. The differences are in the number of auxiliaries, the affix and movement of the NP in English.

6.Adara: Ingha shi ku la imila? → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: Who was do do eat food (the)?

English Who was eating the food? → aux + v-ing.

The source sentence in the data is the Adara. The syntactic structure of the verb phrase is 'aux + aux + V' and thus the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v♯v♯. In the case of English, the verb phrase structure is 'aux + v-ing'. Although the sentence is interrogative like the one in (5), the structure differs and so is the rule, which is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯. This means that where auxiliaries are fronted in interrogative sentences, the structure differ from 'Wh- questions' despite the application of the same Tq rule in both. Transformational structure rules obey the native speakers' convention.

7.English: The big man <u>was not sleeping</u>. → aux + part + v-ing.

Adara: *Ayaghaghe <u>shi ku muo ba</u>.* → aux + aux + v + part.

Gloss: Man big <u>was do sleep not.</u>

The data here show that the sentences are in the past negative progressive context. The Tnot transformational rule performed the operation by introducing the negative element into the verb elements bringing about the terminal strings in the data in line with utterances of native speakers in English and Adara languages. The structures of the verb phrases are: English: 'aux + particle + V-ing'; and Adara: 'aux + aux + v + Particle'. The negative particle in English occurs between the auxiliary and the main verb. But in Adara, the negative particle 'ba' is the last element in the verb phrase. Accordingly, the transformational structure rules of the verbal groups are ♯Afv♯v♯v—Af♯ and ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯. The morphophonemic rules help in the realisation of the phonetic form 'was' in English, the Tnot rules introduced the .not element, and the TAf rules introduce the '-ing' suffix to the main verb.in the case of the Adara, the TAf rules which help in restricting the correct verb forms into their correct contexts apply.

8.English: The teacher was teaching in the class. → aux + v-ing.

Adara: *Umalime shi ku meh khi da aji.* → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: Teacher was do do teach in the class.

The structures of the verbal groups are 'aux + v-ing' for the English verb phrase and 'aux + aux + V' for the Adara. The morphophonemic rules operation is carried out differently. While the past morpheme combines to convert a simple present verb into an irregular verb in English, it simply introduces an auxiliary that marks the past and it is always the first, followed by two auxiliaries marking the progressive sense. The transformational structure rules are ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for English and Adara respectively.

9. Adara: *shi ku chi*. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: was do cry.

English: was crying → aux + v-ing.

The verb phrase structures in the data above are 'aux + aux + v for Adara; and 'aux + v-ing' English. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯ and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ respectively. The applicable rules are the TAf rules and the morphophonemic rules. The operation of replacing morphemes converts the declarative 'be' form of the verb from 'am'/ is to 'was'.

10.Adara: *Shi ku nyie.* → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: was do defecate.

English: was defecating. → aux + v-ing.

The verb phrases in the data are ‘aux + aux + v’ for Adara and ‘aux + v-ing for English. Accordingly, the transformational structure rule of Adara data is ♯v♯v♯v♯; and that of the English translation is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.

11. Adara: *Shi ku titih.* → Aux + aux + v.

Gloss: was do run

English: was running. → aux + v-ing

The verb phrases’ structures of Adara and English in the data are ‘aux + aux + v and ‘aux + v-ing’ respectively. Accordingly, the transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯ and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ respectively.

The verb phrase structures in (9), (10) and (11) above are similar and have similar transformational rules. The structures are the combination of operations by the TAf rule and the morphophonemic rule. The contrasts between Adara and English verb phrases are in the higher number of auxiliaries in Adara, combining the ‘past’ morpheme and the base form of the English auxiliaries and the presence of affixes in the English main verbs.

It is obligatory to use either ‘shi’ ‘ku’ or ‘su’ as auxiliary to signal on-going activities in Adara.

4.3.6 The Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect tense refers to a time earlier than now and earlier to the immediate past. It is used to make it clear that one event happened before another in the past. It does not matter which event is mentioned first. The tense makes it clear which one

happened first. The structure of the verb phrases in past perfect tenses of Adara are here contrasted with those of English language:

1.Adara: *Ime sa ku ghie imila.* → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I had do buy food.

English: I had bought food.→ aux + v

The structure of the verb phrase for Adara is ‘aux + aux + v’ and that of English is ‘aux + v’. A careful observation shows that the structure of Adara has two auxiliaries before the main verb both in their base form. The past perfect is marked by the chosen auxiliaries. Both the auxiliaries and the main verb never change in their structure no matter how or where they are used. On the other hand, the auxiliary and the main verb in the English verb phrase appear in irregular forms. The irregularity in structure is the result of morphophonemic rule operations on the auxiliary and the main verb to generate the past markers. Therefore, the rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v♯ and that of the English translation is ♯Afv♯Afv♯. The difference between these rules and those of the past progressive are that; in Adara, the first auxiliary ‘shi’ which marks the progressive is replaced with ‘sa’, an auxiliary that marks the past perfect. In stating the Adara rule however, the same labelling takes place.

In the case of English, unlike in the progressive tense where the main verb takes the ‘-ing’ inflection as the progressive element, the main verb undergo similar morphophonemic operation of combining the past morpheme with the base form of the main verb. This operation converts the base form of the verb into an irregular form marking the past.

There are instances where the '-en' inflection on the main verb is used to mark the past perfect tense. In such instances, auxiliaries and the main verbs remain constant in number and form in both English and Adara verb phrase. The differences are that the Adara auxiliaries and main verbs appear in their base forms irrespective of any change in structure or number of the subject noun phrase. English auxiliary and the '-en' inflection on main verb also remain constant. Thus, the transformational structure rules of the verbal groups of Adara and English are constant in (2), (3), (4) and (5) below.

2. Adara: *Ime sa ku la imila.* → aux + aux + v.

   Gloss: I have do eat food.

   English: I had eaten food. aux + v-en.

The structures of the verb phrases are 'aux + aux + v' and 'aux + v-en' for Adara and English respectively. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrase and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase.

3. Adara: Aywu sa ku la imila. → aux + aux + v.

   Gloss: We (many) have do eat food.

   English: We had eaten food. → aux + v-en

The structures of the verbal groups are 'aux + aux + v' and 'aux + v-en' for Adara and English respectively. The transformational structure rules of the verb phrases are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrase and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase.

4. Adara: Ungho sa ku la imila. → aux + aux + v.

   Gloss: You (singular) have do eat food.

   English: You (singular/plural) had eaten food. → aux + v-en

The structures of the verb phrases are ‘aux + aux + v’ and ‘aux + v-en’ for Adara and English respectively. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrase and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase..

5.Adara: Unu sa ku la imila. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: You (many) have do eat food.

English: You (many) had eaten food. → aux + v-en.

The structures of the verb phrases are ‘aux + aux + v’ and ‘aux + v-en’ for Adara and English respectively. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrases and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English VG.

6.Adara: Iyi sa ku la imila. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: We (pl-two) have do eat food.

English: We had eaten food. → aux + v-en.

The structures of the verb phrases are ‘aux + aux + v’ and ‘aux + v-en’ for Adara and English respectively. The transformational structure rule are ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara verb phrase and ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrases..

Note also that number variation in the subject slot does not affect the structure of the verb phrase in Adara. In English, the 2nd person pronoun ‘you’ is used as both singular and plural subject. But in Adara, the pronouns differ as shown in item (4) and (5). The 1st person plural pronoun ‘we’ is used to refer to any number beyond “One” in English, but in Adara, they differ as shown in items (3) and (6) above.

4.3.7 The Simple Future Tense

In English, the simple future tense refers to a time later than now, and expresses facts or certainty. In such cases, there is no attitude. This section contrasts data from

English sources (http://www.ef.edu/english-resources/english-grammar/simple-future-tense) with their translations in Adara language. Only the underlined verb elements are analysed:

1. English: It will rain tomorrow. → M + v.

   Adara: *Avua ki kpa kinichwa*. → M + v

   Gloss: Rain will fall tomorrow.

Futurity in English suggests the use of modal verbs to refer actions to a future time. A modal verb (M) is labelled as 'v' in transformation structure rules of transformational generative grammar (Olu-Tomori, 1777:72). Thus, the structures of the verb phrases in the data above are: English – 'M +V; and Adara – 'M + V'. The structures of the verb phrases in English and Adara are the same syntactically in the data but differ in vocabulary. In the data, the word 'rain' is used as a verb in English but as the subject NP in Adara. It is not acceptable for the word 'rain' (avua) to occur as a verb in Adara language. The vocabulary variation notwithstanding, the transformational structure rule for English and Adara verb phrases is the same in the contexts. The transformational structure rules are English: ♯v♯v♯; and Adara: ♯v♯v♯. The operation that produces these structures is through the TAf rule.

In English and Adara languages, the modal auxiliaries take lead of the helping verbs in the data to refer to the future. While only the modal auxiliary 'will" is used in English, the Adara verb phrase takes 'ki' and 'su' as modals which occur before the main verb.

2. English: I will pay for the tickets now. → M + v.

   Adara: *Ime ki bya akati kachwachwari.* → M + v

   Gloss: I will pay tickets (the) now.

The structures of the underlined verb phrases in English and Adara languages are; English: M + V; and Adara: M +V. The verb phrases of the two languages here share common syntactic arrangement – Modal aux + verb. The main verbs remain in their base form while expressing the simple future tense. Transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯ and ♯v♯v♯ respectively for English and Adara.

3. English: I <u>will do</u> the washing up → M + v.

   Adara: *Ime <u>ki ju</u> uhuru.* → M + v.

   Gloss: I <u>will do</u> wash.

The syntactic structure of the underlined verb phrases in each sentence is: English: 'M + V'. Adara: 'M + V'. The transformational structure rules are the same as above. For English, the rule is ♯v♯v♯; and for Adara, it is ♯v♯v♯.

4. English: I <u>won't leave</u>. → M + part. (n't) + v.

Adara: *Ime <u>ki sah mi ba</u>* . →aux + v + pro + part.

Gloss: I <u>will leave</u> me <u>not</u> until I see Manager.

In stating the rule governing the syntactic structures of negative sentences, the Tnot rule discussed earlier in the analysis applies. In doing so, the Tnot transformational rule operates on strings that are in three parts structurally within the verb phrase, including modal auxiliaries, auxiliary verbs and verbs 'to be'. The element 'not' is introduced into the string after the second element which is regularly an affix designated by 'C' connected to the main verb, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, or verbs 'be' in English. For example in sentences such as the following sentences and their corresponding derivational syntactic structure:

i. they can't come; and the operational structure; 'they— Ø + <u>can + n't — come'.</u>

ii. they haven't come; with the operational structure;'they — Ø+ <u>have — en + come'</u>

iii. they aren't coming; with the operational structure;'they—Ø+ <u>are + n't — int+ come</u>.

To write the positive version of the above sentence is to delete the negative element (n't) from the operational structure in (1) above. However, since we are dealing with the verb phrases, their structures in the above data are: English: I — S + will + n't — leave. The morphophonemic rules are then applied to the structure to arrive at the sentence in the data.

The future morpheme 'would + n't (not) = won't'. The contraction of 'would' and 'not' reduces it into one word and thus functions as an auxiliary. Hence it label as 'v'. Therefore, the transformational structure rule of the English verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯. The morphophonemic rule and TAf rule converts the strings of morphemes into the sounds of the language and as well restricts same comprising terminal strings into correct contexts respectively.

In the case of the Adara sentence in the data, morphophonemic structure is 'I — S + ki (will) + ba (come) — mi (me) + ba (not). Here, there is no contraction of the 'not' (ba) element as is the case with English. Thus, the 'ba' (not) element is linked to the obligatory recursive objective NP in order to establish negativity. Note that the objective NP and the 'not' element are separated from the positive main verb 'ba' by a — sign to prove negativity. The transformational structure rule for the Adara verb phrase therefore is ♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.

The difference between the Adara and English verb phrases is the contraction of the negative element with the modal auxiliary into one word to function as auxiliary preceding the main verb in English. the particle expressing negation in Adara rather occur as a final element in the sentence having been separated from the main verb by an obligatory objective pronoun. This pronoun is thus represented in the rule as 'S'.

5.English: The baby won't eat his soup. → M + part + v

Adara: *Anu ki la ngha irniye ngha ba.* → M + v + pro + N+ pro + part

Gloss: Baby will eat it soup it not.

Considering the discussion in (4) above, the syntactic structure in the data are: English: The baby —S + will + n't — eat'. The morphophonemic rules adds the future morpheme 'will + not = won't'. The transformational structure rule therefore is ♯v♯v♯v♯. Note that modal verbs and particles are labelled as ♯v♯ in the transformational structure rules.

On the other hand, the Adara verbal group 'ki'(will) 'la'(eat) ngha (him) inrniye ngha (soup his) 'ba' (not). The syntactic structure is 'aux+ v + pro + N + pro + particle'. The transformational structure rule therefore is ♯v♯v♯S♯S♯S♯v♯. The verb phrase cannot be structurally disconnected from the pronouns/NP between the main verb and the negative element 'ba' that ends the sentence and still retain the negative sense. The NPs are therefore stated as part of the rules. The morphophonemic rules and TAf rules are therefore applicable.

For the interrogative, verb phrases of the simple future in English contrasts with those of Adara as shown in (6 & 7) below.

6.English: Shall **I** open the window? → M + pro + v.

Adara: *Ime ya femi utaga?* → aux + v.

Gloss: I go open window?

In analysing interrogative sentences, Tq rule being the transformational rule for converting declarative sentences into questions applies. The Tq rule simply convert the positive declarative sentence by inserting the subject NP between the auxiliary and the main verb in the data of English. For example: from 'they can arrive' to 'can

they arrive? From ‘they have arrived’ to ‘have they arrived?’; from ‘they are arriving’ to ‘are they arriving?The structure of the data in (6) above becomes ‘I —S + shall + open’ (the window); converted through the ‘Tq rule’ operation from the positive sentence to ‘S + shall — I — open’. The structure of the verb phrase becomes ‘aux + pro + v’. The verb phrase therefore cannot be divorced from the subject ‘I’. The transformational structure rule is ♯v♯S♯v♯. The auxiliary takes precedence in English after applying the morphophonemic rule operation.

In Adara, the transformation bearing the interrogative marker can only be marked through phonological operation while the verb phrase remains structurally the same. Therefore, the structure of the verb phrase is ‘aux + v’; and the TAf rule is ♯v♯v♯. the transformational structure rules involved in the operation are the morphophonemic and the TAf rules.

7.English: <u>What shall I tell</u> the boss? → wh- + M + pro + v.

Adara: *Ikyamu <u>ni</u> ime <u>ki tira</u> ayaghaghe?* → wh- + M + pro + M + v.

Gloss: What <u>shall</u> I <u>will tell</u> boss (the)

There is no doubt that the positive declarative sentence of the data above is ‘I shall tell the boss’. It shows that two things have happened to the sentence to become what it is now. The first of the two things is; the insertion of the ‘Wh’ slot, an operation that Chomsky called “the bearer of an unaffixed affix” (Olu-Tomori, 1977:74). The second is the conversion of the positive declarative sentence into a question by using the Tq transformational rule. Once this is done, the morphophonemic rules of the language convert the terminal stings into their phonemic form as we have in the data. The syntactic structures of the verb phrases are as follows:

English: ‘Wh- + M + S + V’; and Adara: ‘Wh- + M + Subject + M + V’. To retain the interrogative marker in the rule that generates the verb phrase, the ‘Wh’ occupies the ‘Do’ insertion slot or ‘bearer of the unaffixed affix’ in other words, as well as the subject ‘I’ that has been moved through morphophonemic operation to a slot between the modal auxiliary and the main verb. The transformational rule for the English verb phrase thus is ♯do♯v♯S♯v♯. If we go through the same process, the rule deriving the Adara structure renders it as; ‘What shall I will tell (the boss). Arriving at, ‘Wh + M + S + M + V’, the transformational structure rule becomes ♯do♯v♯S♯v♯v♯. Looking at the rule for the English verb phrase and the Adara verb phrase, they differ on the number of ‘v’ elements. These are the nodal auxiliaries.

8.English: You <u>will do</u> exactly as I <u>say. → M + v.</u>

Adara:Ungho <u>ki ju</u> kunu mana mi <u>tiri</u> ni. → M + v

Gloss: You <u>will do</u> as how I say it.

The structure of the verb phrase is ‘M + V’ for English and Adara. The two languages share same characteristics in the verb phrases. The common rule therefore is ♯v♯v♯.

9.English: <u>Will you come</u> with me? → M + pro + v.

Adara: *Ungho <u>ki ba</u> kini me?* → M + v

Gloss: You <u>will come</u> with me?

The verb phrase structure for the data of English incorporates the Subject NP in an interrogative structure as discussed above. Thus, the verb phrase structure is ‘M + pro + v’ and that of the Adara translation is ‘M + v’. Unlike in English where the subject of the sentence is moved to a slot between the modal auxiliary and the main verb, the Adara subject noun phrase retains its conventional slot as an initial element

in the sentence. This accounts for the different syntactic patterns between the English verb phrase and the Adara verb phrase. The transformational structure rules are the morphophonemic and TAf rules as ♯v♯S♯v♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯ for the Adara. The 'S' slot stands for the subject that is now mainstreamed in the verb phrase of English.

10.English: She shall have music. → M + v.

Adara: A ki peni aya. → M + v

Gloss: He/she shall get music.

The structures of the verbal groups are: English: 'M+ V' and Adara: 'M + V'. The TAf rule is the same in the two languages as ♯v♯v♯.

The major differences in the simple future tense structures are the variations in the negative expressions as well as the interrogatives. In the negatives, the positions occupied by the negative particles of English (not) and Adara (ba) respectively differ as analysed. In the interrogatives, the subject noun phrase of the English language splits between modal and main verbs but the verb phrases of Adara remain constant. The other variations are in the number of auxiliary verbs between English verb phrases and their Adara translations.

4.3.8 The Future Progressive Tense

The future progressive tense is used in English language to talk about an action in the future that overlaps another shorter action or a time. It is also used to talk about something that will happen if something happens as we expect (http://www.perfectenglishgrammar.com/future progressive tense/). The analysis is

limited to the tense structures, particularly the verb phrases, except where the subject or other elements are obligatorily by convention mainstreamed into any verb phrase.

1.English: I will be waiting when you arrive. → M + aux + v –ing.

Adara:: *Ime ki shi ku hisa nghu su ya ba*. → M + aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I will be do wait you till you come.

The syntactic structures of verb phrases in the declarative sentences in the data dwell mostly on modal auxiliaries, auxiliaries and inflections in English. The structures of the above data are: English: 'M + aux + v-ing', and Adara: 'M + aux + aux + v'. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯ for English; and ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯ Adara. The differences are the inflectional affix in English as well as the variation in the number of' 'v' slots in the two languages. note that labelling of elements of verb phrases in transformational structure rules is general the use of 'v' including the particles, auxiliaries, modals and the main verbs, except where 'Af' stands for any affix; or where the 'S' stands for any mainstreamed noun phrase or pronoun or 'wh' in interrogatives.

2.English: At eight o'clock, I will be eating dinner. → M + aux + v –ing.

Adara: *Ka ananari nakiki ni, ime ki shi ku la imila ati.* → M + aux + aux + v.

Gloss: at eight o'clock dot, I will be do eat food night.

The structure of the verbal group for English is 'M+aux+v-ing. Therefore the transformational and TAf rules are ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯. Also, the verb phrase structure of Adara is 'M + aux + aux + v. Thus, the morphophonemic and TAf rules are ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯. The variation is in the use of three auxiliaries in Adara language against two in English. There is also the use of inflectional affix in English which is not applicable in Adara.

3.English: The government will be making a statement. → M + aux + v ing.

Adara: *Agomnati ki shi ku peni upwi.* → M + aux + aux + v.

Gloss: Government will be talk talk.

The structure of the verb phrase of English is 'M + aux + V-ing'. The verb phrase structure of Adara is M + aux + aux + v. The transformational structure rules are ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯. The contrast is that English has two auxiliaries, Adara has three. The affix slot in English is not applicable in the Adara translation.

The future progressive tenses also occur as an interrogative:

4.English: When will you be living? → M + pro + aux + v –ing.

Adara: *Agbaachwaku nu nghu ki sah ku*? → M + v + part.

Gloss: which time that you will leave do?

The syntactic structure of the verbal group is dependent on the type of linguistic operation that is involved. To derive the structure of "Wh" questions and the morphophonemic transposition of the subject noun into the verbal group, the TAf rule and the morphophonemic rule carry out operation on the strings of language. The syntactic structures of the verbal groups are: English: 'M + NP+ aux + V-ing'; and Adara: M + V + particle. The 'TAf'' rules therefore are ♯v♯NP♯v♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara.

5. English: I will arrive tomorrow. → M + v.

Adara*: Ime ki fama kini ichwa*.→ M + v.

Gloss: I will reach by tomorrow.

Structures of the verb phrases in English and Adara are aux + V for both. The rule then is ♯v♯v♯.

6. English: He <u>will be</u> here in half an hour. → M + v.

   Adara: *A <u>ki ba</u> kadi kida minti ishitai*.→ M + v.

   Gloss: He <u>will be</u> here in minutes thirty.

The verb phrase' structures are: English: aux + v.; and Adara: aux + v. The two verbal groups from English and Adara share similar structure. The transformational structure rule therefore is ♯v♯v♯.

7. English: She <u>is going to have</u> a baby. aux + aux + aux + v.

   Adara: *A <u>ki peni</u> anu.*→ M + v.

   Gloss: She <u>will get</u> baby(sgl).

The structures for English are 'aux + v-ing + aux + v' and Adara: 'M + V'. The morphophonemic and TAf rules are ♯v♯v—Af ♯v♯v♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯.

Usually as evident in the above analyses, the English copula 'is' is translated as modal 'will' in Adara language.

8. Interrogatives also occur in the future progressive tense:

   English: When <u>are **you** going to get</u> married? → aux + pro + v-ing + aux + v.

   Adara: *Agba awhi ku <u>nu nghu ki vo</u> ayi?* → aux + pro + M + v.

   Gloss: Which day that <u>is you will marry</u> wife?

The structures of the verb phrases are: English: 'aux + S + V-ing + to inf + V' and the TAf rule is ♯v♯S♯v—Af♯v♯v♯v♯. Adara: 'M + V' and the TAf rule is ♯v♯v♯.

9. English: It <u>is going to rain</u> → aux + v-ing + aux + v

Adara: *Avua <u>ki kpa.</u>* → M + v.

Gloss: Rain <u>will fall.</u>

The structures of the verb phrases are: English: aux + v-ing + aux + v '; and the TAf rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯v♯v♯; Adara: modal M + v. The TAf rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯.

The above analysis show that use of affixes in English is one of the differences, variations in the number of auxiliaries used, and transposition of subject noun phrases into verb phrases in interrogative sentences of English.

4.3.9 The Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense in English consists of two verb elements. These are the simple future of the verb 'to have' (will have) + the past participle of the main verb (http://www.ef.edu/english-resources/english-grammar/future-perfect). The analysis below show how this contrasts with Adara language verb phrase.

1.English: He will have finished. → M + aux + v-ed.

Adara: *A su ku kpe*. → M + aux + v.

Gloss: He will have finish.

The structure of the verbal group of English is 'M + aux + v-ed' and that of Adara is 'M + aux + v'. The morphophonemic and the TAf rules apply. Thus the transformational rules for the structures of the verb phrases are ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯ for English; and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for Adara. In stating the rules, modal auxiliaries, auxiliary verbs and the main verbs are labelled as 'v'. The difference is observed in the affix slot in the English verb phrase, not applicable to the structure of Adara.

The 'su' auxiliary has been analysed elsewhere as a progressive marker but it is used in this analysis as a future tense marker.

There are also negative sentences with future perfect references:

2.English: I would not have finished. → M + Part + aux + v-ed.

Adara: *Ime* *su ku kpe* ***mi*** *ba*. → M + aux + v + pro + part.

Gloss: I would have finish **me** not.

We have looked at the operation of the Tnot rule in converting positive declarative sentences into negative sentences severally in this analysis. Therefore we shall go ahead to identify the syntactic structures and formulate the rules accordingly. The verb phrase structure in the English sentence is 'M + Particle (not) + aux + V- -ed'. The TAf rule therefore is ♯Af—v♯v♯v♯v—Af♯. The 'Af—v' slot accounts for the morphophonemic rule operation of combining the 'past + will = would', the 'v' slots accounts for modals, auxiliaries and verb; whereas, the 'v—Af'' accounts for verbs with affixes, in this case with a suffix..

The structure of the Adara verb phrase is "M + aux + v + pro + particle ('ba' = not). The TAf rule is therefore ♯v♯v♯v♯S♯—v♯. The three 'v' slots account for modal, auxiliary and verb; the 'S' slot account for the pronoun that splits the elements of the verb phrase from the negative particle, and the final 'v' slot is a label for the negative particle. The locations of the negative particles are different in the two languages as specified in the rules. The variations occur in line with the varying conventions used by native speakers of English and Adara. This is understood consequent upon the operations of the 'Tnot' and the morphophonemic rules of transformational grammar.

3.English: Will **I** have arrived? → M + pro + aux + v-d.

Adara: *Ime* *su ku to ku?* → M + aux + v + part.

Gloss: I would have arrive do?

The interrogative sentences that constitute the data above differ in the structure of the verb phrases. The syntactic structures of the verb phrases are 'M + pro +aux + v-d' for English language and 'M + aux + v + particle'. The rule for the English verb phrase is ♯v♯S♯v♯v—Af♯. The rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯. The 'S' slot and the affix slot in the English structure differentiate between the English and Adara structures. The particle 'ku' in the Adara verb phrase is the interrogative marker. The Tq, TAf and the morphophonemic transformational rules apply in realising the structures in the data. The 'Tq' rules convert sentences from being positive to interrogative, the 'TAf' rules restricts verbs into appropriate contexts, and the morphophonemic rules convert sentences into their terminal phonemic forms.

Another use of the future perfect tense is in the negative interrogative sense:

4.English: Wouldn't **I** have arrived? → M + part + pro + aux + v-d.

Adara: *Ime su ku to **mi** ba?* → M + aux + v + pro + part.

Gloss: I would have arrive **me** not?

The structure of the future perfect sentences in the data had undergone certain transformations to arrive at what we have as data above. The 'TAf' rule, the 'Tnot' rule, the 'Tq' rule and the 'morphophonemic' rules are involved in the various operations that transformed the positive declarative sentences into what we now have as data. Processes of carrying out these linguistic operations have already been described in the analysis. The verb phrase structures of the sentences in the data are stated for English as 'M + particle + pro + aux + v—d'. The 'M' slot in the structure is the past form of the modal 'will' with the 'n't' negative contraction resulting from operations of the 'Tnot' and morphophonemic rules; the pronoun slot is the moved subject consequent to a 'Tq' rule operation; auxiliary and 'v-d' slots are operations

of the TAf rule. The transformational structure rule of the verb phrase structure of English is ♯Afv♯v♯S♯v♯v—Af♯.

The verb phrase structure of the Adara is ‘M + aux + v + pro + particle (not). Thus the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v♯v♯S♯v♯. This shows that the negative particle used with modal in contracted form as the initial element in the verb phrase occurs as a final element in Adara structure. The verb phrases of negative interrogatives such as above both have noun phrases mainstreamed in them. While in English the subject of the sentence is moved to the middle of the verb phrase allowing the contracted negative modal to take precedence, a recursive pronoun is introduced into the Adara verb phrase to a slot between the other elements of the verb phrase and the negative particle which occurs as a final element in the structure.

The perfect future tense also occurs in complex sentences:

5.English: By the time you read this, I would have left. → M + aux + v.

Adara: *Achwa mana unghu su pwa imari ni, ime su ku sah mi*. → M + aux + v.

Gloss: time that you do count this, I would have left.

The data show that the structures of the underlined verb phrases marking the future perfect tense are; English: ‘M + aux + v (irregular); and Adara: M + aux + V (past). In English the modal ‘would’ is a past form of ‘will’, meaning that it has undergone a morphophonemic operation, the main verb too is an irregular verb in its past form which shows that a similar procedure has taken place. The rule thus is ♯Afv♯v♯Afv♯. The structure of the Adara verb phrase is a morphophonemic choice of auxiliaries marking future perfect reference. The TAf rule is ♯v♯v♯v♯. There are differences in the stated rules as specified in English and Adara. The ‘Afv’ slots of

the English verb phrase rule indicate morphophonemic operations that convert positive forms of the verbs into past forms to mark the future perfectives.

4.4 The Tense Structure expressing Aspect

In this section, an attempt is made to identify the syntax of verb phrases that express aspect in English, translate such verb phrases into Adara language to show their contrast forms.

Aspects refer to verb categories that distinguish the status of events, etc. in relation to specific period of time as opposed to their simple location of present, past or future (Matthews, 2007:29). Aspect as a grammatical category considers qualities of action independent of tense. In English, aspect covers the same concept as the linguistic category expressing completeness or non-completeness (Olu Tomori, 1977:128). The exercise here looks at the structure of verb phrases in perfective (completed) and imperfective (progressive) actions. It is the syntactic contrast between English and Adara verb phrases that is being analysed according to transformational structure rules of transformational grammar. Aspect exhibits a tight relationship with tense in such a way that there can be no aspect without tense. There can however be tense without aspect but not the other way round. The expression of time present and past cannot be considered without aspect (Qirk and Greenbaum, 1973:40). We are however concerned with the structure of verb phrases that carry out the expressions.

4.4.1 The Progressive Aspect

It allows speakers to express incomplete on-going actions or states. Here is a contrast of the underlined verb phrases structures that express progressive aspects in the present:

1. English: I am listening to the song. → aux + v-ing.

Adara: Ime su huri ute. → aux + v.

Gloss: I am hearing (the) song.

The syntax of the verb phrases in the data is: English: S + aux + v-ing + C; and in Adara: S + aux + V + C. The transformational rules therefore are ♯v♯v—Af♯ and ♯v♯v♯ for English and Adara verb phrases respectively. The presence of an affix in the verb phrase of English differentiates it from the structure of Adara verb phrase where the auxiliary and verb are in their base forms.

2. English: He is watching the movie trailer. → aux + v-ing.

Adara: A su kyuo ufim utrila. → aux + v.

Gloss: He is watching film.

The structure of the English verb phrase is aux + v-ing. Thus, the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯; and that of Adara is aux + v so the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v♯. The transformational structure rules differ due to the affix attached to the English lexical verb.

3. English: His grandfather has been smoking again. → aux + v-en + v-ing.

Adara: Akpwi ngha du vwa sa asigha. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: Grandfather his is again smoke cigarette.

The structure of the English verb phrase in the data is aux + aux + V-ing, so the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯. A careful look at the verb phrase in the data shows that morphophonemic rule operation has transformed the verb ‘be’ from its positive form ‘have’ to ‘has’ to agree with the 3rd person subject (NP); it has also transformed ‘be’ present to past ‘been’ by adding the ‘past + be’ (=been); and by adding the suffix ‘-ing’ to the verb ‘smoke’.

On the other hand, the structure of the Adara verb phrase is aux + aux + v as underlined. Therefore, the transformational structure rule is ♯v♯v♯v♯. The TAf rule which determines the restriction of correct verb to correct contexts has chosen the relevant auxiliaries to express the progressive aspect based on the language convention. It is clear, that the TAf rule and the morphophonemic rule have carried out different operations in the verb phrases of the two languages to achieve the same purpose. This accounts for the variations in the rules of the verb phrases as stated above.

In the analysis touching the progressive aspect, the differences are marked by the '-ing' inflections in English. Adara retains the base forms of the verbs. The verb 'sa' in Adara simply means 'to drink'. It is however used for 'to smoke' as well but requires as a necessity the name of the object being smoked. In English, the word 'smoking' implies the act of inhaling burning fumes from the cigarette family in the context, with or without mentioning the object of the act of smoking.

4.4.2 The Perfect Aspect

The perfective aspect allows speakers to express and emphasise the consequences of a previous action or state **(**https://learnenglish-britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/verbs/perfective -aspect). Remember that 'Afv' is labelled for the auxiliaries or verbs whose base form is changed to irregular or past tense form other than by a prefix, suffix or infix. This is to differentiate such verbs from the basic 'v' label meant for auxiliaries, particles and lexical verbs in the rules.

Here is the analysis of perfect aspects in the two languages – English and Adara:

1. English: I had studied for the test. → aux + v-ed

Adara: Ime sa ku khira Iwu umara. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: I had do read note test.

The syntactic structure of the English verb phrase is aux + v—ed. The verb ‘had’ derived from ‘have’ and ‘studied’ from ‘study’ are products of the morphophonemic rule operation. Perfective aspect relates to the past so the verbs have been transformed into their past forms. The transformational structure rule thus is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯. In the case of Adara, the structure of the verb phrase is aux + aux + v as underlined. Similar operation has taken place in the verb phrase, not by changing the form of a particular verb through affixation, but by simply chosen either an auxiliary or lexical verb that is/are restricted to the applicable contexts. The syntactic rule for the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v♯. Auxiliaries and lexical verbs are labelled the same way as ‘v’ because they appear in their base forms. This is different from English where some auxiliaries or lexical verbs appear as lexemes or transforms of their base forms or their roots.

2. English: The woman had changed her outfit. → aux + v-d.

Adara: Ayi sa ku seri umuku ngha. → aux + aux + v.

Gloss: Woman has do change things her.

The structures of the above verb phrases are aux + v—ed for English and aux + aux + v for Adara. The transformational structure rules are ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for Adara, accordingly.

3. English: The students had met the lecturer before. → aux + v. →♯Afv♯Afv♯.

Adara: Anu makaranta sa ku tachwi kunu umalibe awuwu. aux + aux + v. →♯v♯v♯v♯.

Gloss: Children (of) school had have meet (the) teacher since.

Both the auxiliary and the main verb underwent a morphophonemic operation each and got transformed from their base form to the present form. As a result, they are labelled as 'Afv' in the transformational structure rules. There are more auxiliaries in Adara verb phrases than there are in the English verb translations.

4. English: I had just jumped into the shower … → aux + part +v-ed.

   Adara: Ime sa ku ki funu ghila mi duku sumu … → aux + aux + aux + v

   Gloss: I had just do jump enter me place bath ….

In English, the structure of the main verb changes with a change in the tense. But in Adara, the structure of the verb in simple form is retained elsewhere. The transformational structure rules of the verb phrases are ♯Afv♯v♯v—Af♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara. There are differences in the type of morphophonemic operations on the auxiliaries and verbs which accounts for the differences in the rules. The structural change from 'have' to'had' and the suffix '-ed' in 'jumped' both English do not apply in Adara.

4.4.3 Tabular Analysis of Tenses and Aspects structures in English and Adara languages

In this section, an attempt is made to analyse structures indicating the tenses and the corresponding aspects at the same time. This will make it very clear for the reader who perhaps finds it difficult to merge the above analyses for tenses and the aspects. Structures expressing aspect always include tense but tense can occur without aspect. Thus, a careful selection of data has been made to analyse structures that express both tenses and aspects (https://en.wikipedia.org./wiki/Grammatical-aspect).

1.

Language	Sentence	Verb Phrase	Structure	Aspect

English	I eat	Eat	v	Pre.Perfective
Adara	Ime ka la	Ka la	Aux + v	Pre. Perfective
Gloss	I do eat			

The above data shows that in English present simple tense, where the present participle is used with the perfective aspect, the main verb only is selected. On the contrary, Adara selects an auxiliary (present) to precede the base form of the verb. The transformational structure rules of the verb phrases are ♯v♯ for English and ♯v♯v♯ for Adara. The English verb phrase has no auxiliary in the data. In English, the base form of the verb is retained and restricted to the correct context by the TAf rule. On the other hand, the same rule restricts a perfective auxiliary before the Adara main verb.

2.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I am eating	Am eating	Aux + v-ing	Pre. Progressive
Adara	Ime su la	Su la	Aux(prog) + V(base)	Pre. Progressive
Gloss	I am eat			

The above analysis shows that when the present progressive tense is used with the progressive aspect, English selects the 'be' form of the auxiliary to precede the '-ing' inflected main verb. Adara language has no inflectional form in the context. Instead, a progressive auxiliary is used followed by the base form of the verb. The present form of the 'be' verb 'am' and the '-ing' inflectional suffix are obligatory in English. Thus, TAf and morphophonemic rules apply. The transformational structure rule for English is ♯v♯v—Af♯. The Adara has a progressive auxiliary 'su' to match the lexical verb in its base form. The TAf rule for the Adara data is ♯v♯v♯.

3.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I have eaten	Have eaten	Aux + v-en	Perfective

Adara	Ime ku la	Ku la	Aux(past) + v(base)	Perfective
Gloss	I have eat			

In English, when the present perfect tense is used with the perfective aspect, the native speaker convention is to use the appropriate auxiliary (be) before the perfective (-en) form of the verb. The Adara simply use the perfective form (ku) of the auxiliary before the main verb as in the above data. The transformational structure rules are; English: ♯v♯v—Af♯; Adara: ♯v♯v♯.The difference in the rules lies in the affix attached to the English lexical verb.

4.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I have been eating	Have been eating	Aux + aux + v-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime ka li la	Ka li la	Aux + aux+ v(base)	Progressive
Gloss	I have doing eat	Have doing eat		

For the present perfect progressive tense used with a progressive aspect, English selects the appropriate auxiliary (be) form to precede the past perfect progressive auxiliary and ends with the '-ing' form of the main verb. In Adara language, the structure comprise of two progressive auxiliaries before the main verb in its base form. The transformation structure rules for the two languages are ♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯ for English language and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for Adara language. There is a clear indication that in the English data, the morphophonemic rule operation has been carried out on the verbs by adding '-en' to 'be' and '-ing' to 'eat' as affixes or bound morphemes.

5.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	He eats	Eats	V-s	Perfective
Adara	A ka la	Ka la	Aux (perf.) + V(base)	Perfective
Gloss	He do eat			

Where the 3rd person singular noun or pronoun is used in the present perfect tense with the perfective aspect, English selects the '-s' form of the verb to match the subject. There is no auxiliary in this structure. The Adara selects a perfective auxiliary to precede the base form of the verb as shown in the data. The transformational structure rule for English is ♯v—Af♯ and that of Adara is ♯v♯v♯. the variation in the rules lies on the affix attached to the English verb and the use of auxiliary in Adara.

6.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I ate	Ate	v(irregular)	Perfective
Adara	Ime la	la	V	Perfective
Gloss	I have eat			

Where the verb takes irregular form in the past simple tense and used with the perfective aspect, English does not use auxiliary verb. Instead, the verb is rendered in its irregular form as above (from 'eat' to 'ate' usually analysed as 'eat + past'). Adara on the other hand selects the base form of the main verb. The transformational structure rule for the English verb phrase is ♯Afv♯. It is so because of the morphophonemic operation 'past + eat = ate' that transformed the base form of the verb to its irregular form 'ate' to refer to the 'past' and to generate the phonemic form of the terminal string. In the case of Adara, the rule is simply ♯v♯ because the main verb is in its base form. The variation in the rules occurs because of the morphophonemic operation that took place on the English verb.

7.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + v-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime shi ku la	Shi ku la	Aux + aux + v	Progressive
Gloss	I was do eat			

Where the past progressive tense is used with a progressive aspect, the structure for English is an auxiliary (past) plus the main verb with an '-ing' inflection as above. The Adara language has two auxiliaries (past and progressive) before the main verb in its base form. The transformational structure rules are ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ for the English verb phrase and ♯v♯v♯v♯ for the Adara. The rules clearly show that English verb phrase has affixes with a replacive morpheme 'was' as the auxiliary preceding an inflected lexical verb. Adara has two auxiliaries before the main verb in their base forms.

8.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I had eaten	Had eaten	Aux + V-en	Perfective
Adara	Ime sa ku la	Sa ku la	Aux + aux + v	Perfective
Gloss	I had do eat			

Where past perfect tense is used with the perfective aspect, English language has an auxiliary (perfect) plus the '-en' inflected form of the main verb. The Adara structure has a perfective auxiliary plus a past auxiliary followed by the base form of the verb. The TAf rule and morphophonemic rule combine in transformation processes of the verbal group elements. The auxiliary 'have' and the main verb 'eat' have been transformed into 'had' and 'eaten' respectively and placed in correct contexts. The transformational structure rule for English is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ and that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯v♯. The differences occur due the variation in the processes of transformation the by the relevant rules.

9.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I had been eating	Had been eating	Aux + aux + v-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime sa ka li la	Sa ka li la	Aux +aux + aux +	Progressive

			v	
Gloss	I had do do eat			

Where past perfect progressive tense is used with a progressive aspect, English selects two auxiliaries (perfect + past prog) before the main verb with an '-ing' inflection. The Adara language selects three auxiliaries (perf. + Past prog. + prog.) before the base form of the main verb. Notwithstanding the similarity in selecting the first two auxiliaries, the application of the transformational rules differs. The TAf and the morphophonemic rules differently in the two languages as variously explained and as would be evident in the rules. The rule for the English verb phrase is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯v—Af♯; and that of the Adara verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

10.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + v-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime ba shi ku la	Ba shi ku la	Aux+ aux+aux + v	Progressive
Gloss	I was do do eat			

The Adara has separate auxiliaries for past (yesterday) and past (before yesterday). So when the past progressive tense (yesterday) is used with the progressive aspect, English maintains its aux + v-ing structure. The auxiliary verb 'be' is rendered in its past form 'was' and it is irregular. But the Adara changes its auxiliary from 'sa' to 'ba' as appropriate. In the above verbal group, the reference is 'yesterday' so the auxiliary 'ba' is chosen using the TAf rule. It would have been 'sa' if the reference point were beyond 'yesterday', say, two or more days ago. The structure of the Adara language has aux (past yesterday) + aux (past) + aux (prog) + the main verb in its base form. The transformational rule for English is ♯Afv♯v—Af♯ and that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

11.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I will eat	Will eat	Aux(M) + V	Imperfective
Adara	Ime ki la	Ki la	Aux(M) + V	Imperfective
Gloss	I will eat			

Where the simple future tense is used with the future progressive aspect, the modal verb in English is introduced as an auxiliary before the present form of the main verb. Thus, the structure of the English verbal group is aux (modal) plus main verb in its base form. This is similar to the Adara language which also uses aux (modal) plus the base form of the verb. The verb phrase structures of English and Adara in the data accepts the same rule in the context. Therefore, the rule is ♯v♯v♯.

12.

language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I will be eating	Will be eating	M + aux+ V-ing	progressive
Adara	Ime ki shi ku la	Ki shi ku la	M + aux + aux + V	progressive
Gloss	I will be do eat			

Where the future progressive tense is used with the progressive aspect, the English verbal group is aux (modal) plus the aux (be) plus the v-ing form. Adara language uses aux (mod) + aux (prog) + aux (prog) + base form of the main verb. The auxiliary ‘shi’ has been used with the perfective aspect in (9) above. While maintaining the same slot and used for the progressive aspect, it requires a change of preceding auxiliary to fit in. In the perfective aspect, the auxiliary ‘sa’(had) which must precede ‘shi’ in the context. But in the progressive aspect, the auxiliary ‘ki’ (will) which precedes the auxiliary ‘shi’ (be) is used. This phonological variation does not affect the syntactic arrangement of the structure. The transformational rules

remain the same in the context of syntax. Thus, the rule in Adara is the same for perfective and progressive aspect in these contexts remain the same. The transformational rule for the English verb phrase in the data is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯ and that of Adara is ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

13.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I will have eaten	Will have eaten	M + aux + v-en	perfective
Adara	Ime su ku la	Su ku la	M + aux + v	Perfective
Gloss	I will have eat			

Where the future perfect tense is used with the perfective aspect, English verb phrase is aux (mod) + aux (be-past) + v-en. In Adara, the verb phrase structure is aux (fut) + aux (past) + verb (base). The verb phrases in English chose the present form of the modal verb because it is referring to the future, though in the perfect sense. Transformation did not take place in the modal 'will' as was the case in the past perfective where the morphophonemic rule combines the strings of the past morpheme with the present base form of the auxiliary. The rule can't be the same if the auxiliary 'will' were 'would'. The transformational rule for English verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯ and that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯v♯.

14.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**
English	I will have been eating	Will have been eating	M+aux+ aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime ki ku shi ku la	Ki ku shi ku la	Aux+aux+aux+aux+V	Progressive

Gloss	I will have be			

Where the future perfect progressive is used with the imperfective aspect, English selects the aux (mod) + aux (perf) + aux (prog) + v-ing. In English, there are three auxiliaries. The morphophonemic rule applies on the third auxiliary 'been' and the main verb 'eat' through affixation. Adara on the other hand selects aux (mod) + aux (past) + aux (past) + aux (pres) + v (- base form of the verb). But because the auxiliaries are not transformed or derived from other elements, they are labelled in the same way. So far in the analysis, auxiliaries and lexical verbs in Adara operate in their root forms. The transformational rule for structure of the English verb phrase is ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯; and that of the Adara is ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

This analysis shows that the perfective auxiliary is always followed by the main verb in the '-ed'/'-en' form in English. The progressive auxiliary is always followed by the; '-ing'; inflected form of the main verb. Note also that in English, indicative or finite clauses do not make choices in aspect (https://www.thoughtco.com) (Matthews, 2007:29; Tomori, 1977:29). Thus, only non-indicative and non-finite sentences have been analysed.

4.5 Discussion on the Analysis and Findings

The analyses of the data above have been full of revelations. The analyses have revealed the relationship that exists between the structures of English and Adara languages at the sentence level, at constituent levels and at word level, especially in contrast.

Findings on the analysis of data based on our contrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspects are discussed in line wirh the research questions below.note that all referents to Adara are basically on 'Ewa dialect".

A. How differentare the syntactic elements of English and Adara Languageswith regards to SVO structure?

Although this thesis is a contrastive analysis of English and Adara tenses and aspects, the general conventions of the structure of sentences as noun phrase (NP) and verb phrase (VP) in both languages were first analysed to pave way for the understanding of the structure of the verb phrase elements, where tenses and aspects are realised. Sentence elements such as 'Subject, Verb, Object' are notions difficult to define rigorously. They represent syntactic relationships posited for all languages (Gregerson in Galadima, 2009:168). Gregerson observes that in many African languages there are occurrences of particles of some sort with clearly different functions in different languages as different devices may be used as ways of indicating syntactic relationships. English and Adara languages can generally be said to share the syntactic order of NP + VP or Subject–Verb–Object but not without some differences as evident in the following:

a. In Adara, the 3rd person pronoun 'A' (he/she) used as subject of a sentence with the same pronunciation refers to either 'he 'or 'she' in English (see 4.3.1). This occurs in the same 'subject slot' of the English language simple sentence conventionally but differs in the phono-semantic referent. The 1st person plural pronoun in English 'We' when translated into Adara has two different words 'Aywu' and 'Iyi' referring to 'we' (more than two and 'we' - only two, respectively) as in 4.3.2. Despite these, the sentence structures of English and Adara languages are similar in the syntactic order of NP + VP or the Subject–Verb–Object (SVO)

pattern in their major constituents. For example, as in 4.2.1. (1) “She (NP) / was ironing (VP) / clothes (NP)” and “A (NP) / shi ku deri (VP) / uma (NP)” in English and Adara respectively.

b. In English, when positive declarative sentences in the NP + VP syntactic order are transformed into interrogatives, the new sentence takes a new structure. The analysis in 4.3.3 No.9 shows that the verb element is moved to the beginning of the sentence and it is rendered as “Has he just left?” bringing the subject NP to the second slot in the structure as ‘aux + NP + aux + V’ instead of the first. This structure contrast with the Adara translation as “Uki sa ngha wudi” being ‘aux + V + NP + adv’. Both structures differ from the NP + VP structural pattern.

c. In English, the definite article ‘the’ functions as a determiner which sometimes precedes a qualifying adjective and decides the semantic use of a noun in quantity or number. In 4.3.2 (9) and many others, the determiner ‘the’ has no syntactic equivalent in Adara. Its function is rather marked by tone on the noun.

d. In English NPs, adjectives precede the nouns as against the Adara translation of “The big man” translated as “aghimi ghaghe” man big” for example. The direct opposite of the English structure in 4.3.5. (7).

e. In the subject slot of English, pronouns can take the place of proper nouns like the Adara. But the pronoun ‘it’ when used as a subject slot of the sentence is seen as a meaningless “prop word’ (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:173) as in “It is going to rain”. This does not have a direct translation (equivalent) in Adara because the pronoun ‘it’ has no direct equivalent for the context. This is evident as translated in 4.3.8 (9) as “Avua ki kpa” (Rain will fall) where the word ‘avua’ (rain) occur as the NP.

f. English sentences occur as NP + VP + NP. Also, elements marking noun (N), verb (V), auxiliary verb (aux), modal verb (M) and adverb (adv) also occur in Adara variously in the data analysed. The internal syntactic structure of the sentence elements however differ in most cases between Adara and English language structures in the data. For example in the verb phrases' structures analysed, there are variations in the translations of Adara.

B. What syntactic elements are common to both tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages?

The tenses and aspects in both English and Adara languages operate within the verb phrases of the grammar of each in a normal convention. English and Adara languages both refer to the past and non-past. Within the past, both languages talk about past in past (past perfect), the past in present (past simple) and the progressive past (past continuous). The two languages also talk or refer to non-past which includes the present and the future. Some of the common elements of structure in the tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages include the following:

a. In English and Adara, the tense structure (i.e. verb phrase) occurs after the subject of the sentence syntactically as in 4.3.1(2) " He (NP) lives (VP) in London" translated as "A(NP) hi(VP) Ka London" accordingly.

b. The position of the English interrogatives marker (wh-) at the beginning of a sentence moves the subject to occur within the verb phrase as it does in Adara language (4.3.1(5, 6). These sentences are (i) "Where do you live? (wh- +aux + S +

V)" translated as "Ukabiwu nu nghu hi? (wh- + aux + S + v)" respectively; and (ii) "Where does he come from? (Wh- + aux + S + V + Prep)" translated as "Ukabiwu na ngha kunu ku? (Wh- + aux + S + v + Pre) respectively.

c. The NP + VP + NP structure of the English language places the tense structure (Verb phrase) between the subject and the object/complement/adjunct. For example in 4.3.1(8) which is "I / bought / the food" translated as "Ime / ghie / imila", the structure is NP + VP + NP in both languages.

d. In English future tenses, the modal auxiliary precedes the main verb just as it is the case in some Adara sentences as in 4.3.7(2,3 and 8) which all have the structure "modal aux + V" in both languages.

e. The modal auxiliary 'will'/'shall' is used in English the same way it does in Adara translations. Some instances are evident in 4.3.7(1)

C. (1) To what extent do the grammatical rules of generating tenses and aspects in Engllish and Adara languages differ?

The contrastive analysis of tenses and aspects carried out in 4.3 and 4.4 was the crux of the study. Elements in the verb phrases were the focus of the analysis. However, transformational processes in English and Adara necessitated the inclusion of noun phrases in some of the analyses. Within the verb phrases too, elements such as adverbial particles were obligatory to express negation, 'wh' elements occur in the interrogatives as obligatory elements, and concessional noun phrases were necessary especially in Adara language to enable certain obligatory particles function within the verb phrases. All the obligatory elements were labelled first as structure of the elements in every group that has been analysed, and finally reflected in the corresponding transformational rule stated for each verb phrase structure in contrast.

Symbols that were used in the analysis are Chomsky's symbols represented in Olu-Tomori (1977) and stated as part of the theoretical framework in 2.10 (of chapter two) above

The processes were used in all the analyses and elements analysed were labelled using the symbols and letters respectively as specified by the applicable rule(s) of transformational grammar. In this section, verb phrases in different types of sentences expressing different tenses were analysed. The summary of the contrast results are as stated below to give a clear view of differences in structure and rule of English and Adara verb phrases, in line with the analytical procedure stated in 3.3 above. For the purpose of clarity, the usage of symbols in the transformational structure rules applied to the contrastive analysis results below is as stated in 3.3 (of chapter three) above, copied for emphasis below.

1. Afv = past or plural morpheme in an irregular verb or NP-pl.
2. V—Af = verbs with inflectional affixes.
3. V = auxiliary verbs, lexical verbs, particles, adverbs, any other non-affix in the group.
4. S = singular noun phrase or pronoun obligatory within the verbal group.
5. Ø = plural noun phrases or pronoun obligatory within the verbal group.
6. → = e.g. V → ♯v♯ means where 'v' is the VP, then the TAf rule is rewritten as '♯v♯'.
7. do = appears in structure as the bearer of an unaffix affix in 'Tnot' rule.

In line with above guidelines, the rules that generated the structure of tenses and aspects in the analysed data are placed side by side for English and Adara languages ignoring the actual data, having explained same in the analyses above. These are

i. The Present simple Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. v → ♯v♯.	v → ♯v♯
2. v + s → ♯v—Af♯.	v → ♯v♯.
3 adv + v → ♯v—Af♯v♯.	aux+v+N+Adv. → ♯v♯v♯S♯v—Af♯.
4. adv + v-s → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux+v+pro+N+ part .→ ♯v♯v♯S♯S♯v♯.
5. aux + pro + v → ♯v♯S/♯v♯.	aux + pro + v → ♯v♯S/♯v♯.
6. aux+ pro + v →♯v—Af♯S♯v.	aux+ pro + v → ♯v♯S♯v♯
7. v →♯v♯.	aux+do → ♯v♯v♯.
8. v →♯v♯.	v → ♯v♯.

The data analysis of verb phrases in the present simple tenses show that where the affix '-s' is added to the English main verb, the Adara main verb occurs in its base form as evident in (2). In context where English main verb has a preceding adverb as auxiliary in (3), the Adara verb phrase has a preceding auxiliary verb, whereas the adverb is place as a final element. The English adverb has a suffix '-s' and the Adara adverb has a prefix 'k' in the context as one of the few exceptions since Adara verbs generally are not inflected. It is a form of an irregular adverb 'kapiyeachwa' in 4.3.1(3). In negative sentences where English simply takes an adverb as auxiliary before the main verb, Adara requires an auxiliary before the main verb, obligatory NPs (noun/pronoun) after the main verb and finally the negative element which is the adverb in (4). The adverbial slots differ and the inclusion of NPs is absent in the English verb phrase. In interrogatives however (5 and 6), verb phrases of both languages incorporate obligatory NPs (or pronoun). There is the use of an auxiliary in Adara verb phrase in (7) but English has none. In general, there are more

differences in verb phrases of English and Adara in present simple tenses than there are similarities.

ii. The Present Progressive Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. aux + v-ing.→ #v#v—Af#.	aux + v → #v#v#
2. aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	v → ♯v♯.
3. aux + v-ing →.♯v♯v—Af	v → ♯v♯.
4. aux + v-ing →.♯v♯v—Af♯.	v → ♯v♯.
5. aux + v-ing →.♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
6. aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v—Af	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
7. aux+v-ing → ♯v♯v-Af♯	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
8. aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v→Af♯.	aux + v'→ ♯v♯v♯.
9. aux+ v-ing +adv →♯v♯v—Af♯v♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
10. aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v—Af♯	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯

In the analysis of Ten (10) items of data in the verbal groups of the present progressive tenses above, variations abound in the verbal groups of English and Adara translations. Items 1,5,6,8 and 10 appear similar as all the verbal groups comprise of an auxiliary preceding each lexical verb. However, as they look similar, they all differ because English has inflectional suffix on each of the lexical verbs while Adara has none. In items 2, 3, and 4, the English lexical verb is preceded by an auxiliary verb in each of the verbal goup. This is in addition to the inflextional suffixes on each of the lexical verbs. Adara neither has the auxiliary nor the inflections. Another level of difference is in item 7 where English has one auxiliary verb and Adara has two and has no inflectional suffix on the lexical verb like English. Finally, on item 9, the English verbal group does not only differ from

Adara by having an inflectional suffix, it also has adverb element after the main verb. The Adara verbal group has an auxiliary but without the inflectional suffix and the adverb. Again, there are more differences than there are similarities.

iii. The Present Perfect Tense

	ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1.	aux + v-d → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	‘aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
2.	aux + v -en → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v →♯v♯v♯.
3	aux+aux+v+–ed → ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux+v + pro + adv →♯v♯v♯S♯S♯v♯.
4	aux + v-ed → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
5.	aux + v –ed → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
6.	aux + v–ed → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	‘aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
7.	aux + aux + v -en →♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
8.	aux + v-en → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
9.	aux+pro+adv+v →♯v♯S♯v♯Af—v♯.	aux+v+pro+adv → ♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.
10.	aux+not+v-en →♯v♯—v♯v♯.	aux+v+not+pro+adv+not→♯v♯v♯v♯S♯v♯v♯

In the analyses of Ten (10) items of data in the verbal groups of present perfect tenses, verbal groups of items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 8 all comprised of one auxiliary before the main verb. As conspicuous as that resemblance may be, all the lexical verbs of English have one form of inflectional suffix or the other (-d, ed, en). There are no such inflections in Adara verb elements. In item 3, English has two auxiliary verbs before the lexical verb with an inflectional suffix. In contrast, Adara has only one auxiliary, and does not only lack the inflectional suffix on the lexical verb but incorporates two noun phrases with an adverb to effectively translate the English verbal group. Similarly in item 7, there is variation in the number of auxiliary verbs

where English has two and Adara has one. The differences extend to the inflectional suffix of the English verb which is not there in Adara verb phrase. In item 9 which is an interrogative sentence, both English and Adara have similar elements in the data including an auxiliary verb, main verb, pronoun and an adverb each. These elements however occupy different slots in the structures.

Finally, item 10 is a negative sentence with the element 'not' in English. While English requires an auxiliary verb, a negative element and the main verb in that order, Adara requires an auxiliary verb, the main verb, a negative element, a noun phrase, an adverb and another negative element in that order as translation to the English verb phrase. Note that the structures of inflectional suffixes in the main verbs of the present perfect tenses (-d, ed, en) are different from those in the present progressive tenses (-ing). The whole of these do not occur in Adara language.

iv. The Past Simple Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. v—d → ♯v—Af♯.	aux + v→ ♯v♯v♯.
2. v →♯Afv♯.	v → ♯v♯.
3. v → ♯Afv♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯
4. v-d → ♯v—Af♯.	aux+ v→ ♯v♯v♯.
5. v-ed → ♯v—Af♯.	v → ♯v♯.
6. aux + v –d → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
7. aux+part.+v-d → ♯v♯—v♯v—Af♯.	aux+aux+v+pro+part → ♯v♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.
8. aux+pro+Part.+ v →♯Af—v♯S♯—v♯v♯.	v + pro + Particle →♯v♯S♯v♯.
9. aux + part.+v → ♯Af—v♯—v♯v♯.	aux + v + NP + Part.→♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.
10. aux+v+ part.+v →♯v♯Af—v♯v♯v♯.	aux+v+ pro+ part +v →:♯v♯v♯S♯v♯v♯.

11. aux + v → ♯v♯Afv♯.	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.
12. v →♯Afv♯.	v → ♯v♯..
13. v → ♯Afv♯	aux + v→♯v♯v♯.
14. v →♯Afv♯;	aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.

The analyses of past simple tenses show that verbal groups of items 1, 4 and 5 are single lexical verbs with inflectional suffixes in English. Apart from item 5 where Adara has a single verb in its verbal group, 1 and 4 have single auxiliary each preceding it. All the verbs in Adara translation have no nflections. English verbal groups in items 2, 3, 12, 13 and 14 are single irregular verbs with the past morpheme subsumed into each of the transformed verb form. On the other hand, except in 2 and 12 where Adara has single verbs in their base forms, 3, 13 and 14 have an auxiliary verb before the main verb each, different from those of English verbal groups. Item 6 in English has an auxiliary preceding an inflected lexical verb but the Adara translation has two preceding auxiliaries and a lexical verb in its base form. In item 7 being a sentence expressing negation, English verbal group has an auxiliary, a particle and an inflected main verb. Adara verbal group, on the other hand, has two auxiliaries before the main verb and the obligatory negative particle as a final element is separated from the main verb by two obligatory noun phrase slots. Item 8 is an interrogative sentence with a do insertion as the initial element. While the do insertion preceded the only noun phrase in English, it is inserted as a second NP in Adara. The main verb in English is the fourth and final element in the group but the 2nd in Adara. The negative element is the 3rd element in English and the fourth and last in Adara. Second noun phrases are obligatory in negative past simple sentences as evident item 9. The auxiliary, the particle and the main verbs are present in both English and Adara but only the auxiliary occur in same slot within the verbal groups

of the two languages. Finally in the analysis result of item 10, both verbal groups have an auxiliary, main verb and 'to infinitive' verb except that Adara has a second noun phrase before the 'to infinitive'.

Generally speaking, the auxiliary 'ku' is used in expressing general past whereas 'ba' and 'sa' are limited yo past 'yesterday' and past 'beyond yesterday'. These vary from the simple present in 4.3.1 where the auxiliary 'ku' is sometimes optional as in 4.3.1.(2), etc.

From the foregoing, it is clear that, the contrasts in the verbal groups of English and Adara are numerous. It is a complex arrangement that can confuse an L2 user of English.

v. The Past Progressive Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. aux+-ing →♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux+ aux + v →♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
2. aux+ v-ing.→ ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux+ aux+ aux+ v→♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
3. aux + v-ing →♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + v →♯v♯v♯.
4. aux + v-ing → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux+ aux + v→ ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
5. aux+pro +v-ing →♯Afv♯S♯v—Af♯.	aux+ aux + v→♯v♯v♯v♯.
6. aux + v-ing → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux +aux +v →♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
7. aux+part+v-ing →♯Afv♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux+aux+v+Part → ♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
8. aux + v-ing → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v→ ♯v♯v♯v♯
9. aux + v-ing →♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
10.aux + v-ing → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
11. aux + v-ing →♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.

From the above analytical results of 11 verbal groups in the past progressive tenses, except items 5 and 7, all other verbal groups in English comprise of one auxiliary and one '-ing' inflected main verb. This differs from Adara in the sense that while items 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8 have three auxiliaries each before the main verb, item 3 has one auxiliary, and then 9, 10 and 11 have two auxiliaries each before the main verb. In item 5, English incorporates the subject between the auxiliary and the main verb while Adara put the subject first before the auxiliary and main verb. Noun phrase incorporation in verbal groups is common in English where a 'do' insertion takes lead in an interrogative sentence. Finally, in item 7 where English inserts a negative particle between an auxiliary and the inflected main verb, the Adara verbal group has the negative particle as the final element in the group. This variance of the particle slot from English is in addition to having three auxiliaries as against one in English, a noun phrase incorporated within the verbal group. The striking variations, especially lack of inflections in Adara and slot differentiation of elements in the verbal groups, separate the syntactic nature of English verbal groups. Where English incorporates noun phrase in interrogative sentences with 'do' insertion, Adara does not, and where both languages accepts negative particles in verbal groups of negative sentences, the particles are placed in different slots as evident in 5 and 7 above.

vi. The past Perfect Tense

	ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1.	aux + v → ♯Afv♯Afv♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
2.	aux + v-en → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v→ ♯v♯v♯v♯.
3.	aux + v-en → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
4.	aux + v-en → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.

5. aux + v-en → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
6. aux + v-en → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.

The past perfect tenses above selects auxiliary and main verb in all the entries in 1 to 6. In item 1, both the auxiliary and the main verb are irregular in the English slots. That is, not using affix in past participle forms of the verbs. In all other verbal groups in item 2 to 6, there is an irregular verb 'had' as auxiliary preceding the main verb in each item. Also, all the main verbs are inflected with the '-en' suffix. The auxiliary verb 'had' used in the above entries in the analyses has been listed as an irregular verb in Olu-Tomori (1977:90). On the other hand, all the verbal groups in items 1 to 6 in the Adara translations of the above analysis have two auxiliaries before each main verb and all are in their base forms.

vii. The Simple Future Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. M +V → ♯v♯v♯.	M + V → ♯v♯v♯.
2. M + V → ♯v♯v♯.	M + V → ♯v♯v♯
3. M + V → ♯v♯v♯.	M + V → ♯v♯v♯.
4. M + part. + V→ ♯v♯—v♯v♯.	M + V + pro + part. → ♯v♯v♯S♯—v♯.
5. M + V→ ♯Af—v♯v♯. .	M +V +pro + NP + pro + part. →♯v♯v♯S♯S♯—v♯.
6. M + NP + V → ♯v♯S♯v♯..	M + V → ♯v♯v♯.
7. Wh-+M+S+V→♯do♯v♯S♯v♯.	Wh + M+pro+M+V→ ♯do♯v♯S♯v♯v♯.
8. M + V → ♯v♯v♯.	M + V →♯v♯v♯.
9. M+pro+V → ♯v♯S♯v♯.	M+V →♯v♯v♯.

10.M+ V → ♯v♯v♯. M + V → ♯v♯v♯.

The simple future tenses equally use auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries more than any other. Modal verbs are common in the simple future tenses just as there '-ing' inflections in progressive tenses. In items 1, 2, 3, 8 and 10, all the verbal groups have a modal auxiliary each preceding the main verb in base forms both in English and Adara. In items 4 and 5, noun phrases are incorporated within Adara verbal groups as obligatory elements but not in English. In such cases, the noun phrases are added to enable a negative particle function with the verb without which it will be impossible to transform such positive sentences into their negative versions. And in most cases, the incorporated noun phrase is a corresponding or a complementing pronoun in the objective case to the subjective noun phrase in the sentence. In items 6 and 9 where the verbal groups of English incorporate noun phrases within them, the Adara translation of the noun phrases do not. Finally in item 7 being an interrogative sentence, English and Adara verbal groups have modals in their verbal groups second to the 'Wh' slot in English and its translation in Adara. However, there is a second modal after the subject such that the subject is flanked by modals with the main verb as the final element in the verbal group. It is the only type of structure with two modals in the data analysed in this thesis. Modal verbs are distinquished from other auxiliaries for not using the forms of '-s', '-en' or '-ing' (Crystal, 2003:295).

viii. The Future Progressive Tense

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. M + aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	M + aux + aux + v →♯v♯v♯v♯v♯
2. M + aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	M + aux + aux + v→♯v♯v♯v♯v
3. M + aux + v-ing → ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	M+aux+aux + v →♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

4. M+pro+aux+v-ing →♯v♯S♯v♯v—Af♯. M+v+part → ♯v♯v♯v♯.

5. aux + v → ♯v♯v♯. aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.

6. aux + v → ♯v♯v♯. aux + v → ♯v♯v♯.

7. aux + v-ing + part + v → ♯v♯v—Af ♯v♯v♯. M +v → ♯v♯v♯.

8. aux+pro+v-ing+ aux + v →♯v♯S♯v—Af♯v♯v♯. v+pro+M+v→♯v♯S♯v♯v♯.

9. aux + v-ing + aux+ v → ♯v♯v—Af♯v♯v♯. M + v → ♯v♯v♯.

The differences in the verbal group of the future progressive tenses lie in the different number of auxiliaries. In items 1, 2 and 3, English has a modal and one auxiliary before the main verb in each verbal groups and Adara has a modal, two auxiliaries before the main verb. The use of inflectional affixes in the main verbs of English in items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 and 9 is alien to Adara language except in the verb 'kpuru' (kpu + -ru = 'to die' used with a plural suject) and the adverb kapiyeachwa (k- +apiyeachwa = 'sometimes' in context) analysed elsewhere in this thesis. In the future progressive tense, English verbal group incorporates a noun phrase between the modal and auxiliary verb preceding the main verb. The Adara translation of the verbal group did not. In items 7 and 9 where English verbal group comprised auxiliary, inflected main verbs and 'to infinitive', Adara only have a modal preceding the main verb. There is however similarity in the verbal groups in 4 and 5 in which verbal groups of English and Adara are syntactically similar having an auxiliary before the main verb each. The existence of common linguistic elements in English and Adara such as nouns, verbs, auxiliary verbs, modals is only superficial because internal structures of their verb phrases differ in many ways as observed in the rules stated above.

ix. The Future Perfect Tense

ENGLISH	ADARA
1. M + aux + v-ed → ♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	M + aux + v→♯v♯v♯v♯.
2. M+Part.+aux+v-ed →♯Afv♯v♯v♯v—Af♯.	M+aux+v+pro+part.→
♯v♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.	
3. M+pro+aux+v-d→♯v♯S♯v♯v—Af♯.	
M+aux+v+particle→♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.	
4. M+part.+pro+aux+v—d →♯Afv♯v♯S♯v♯v—Af♯.	M+aux+v+pro+part.→ ♯v♯v♯v♯S♯v♯.
5. M+aux+v →♯Afv♯v♯Af—v♯.	M+aux+v→ ♯v♯v♯v♯.

In the future perfect tense structures above, English and Adara verbal groups are introduced with modal auxiliary in items 1 to 5 above. The data where the verbal groups were extracted and analysed include a declarative sentence, negative sentence, and interrogative sentences. In the negative tense structure in (2), the Adara translation incorporates a noun phrase withinthe verb phrase with the negative particles occupying different slots. Similarly in item 3, the English verbal group incorporates a noun phrase but Adara translation does not.This causes variations in the structure of the verbal group. In the future perfect tense, Adara uses the particle 'ku' after the main verb in interrogatives to mark the perfective. English uses inflectional suffix on the main verb to mark the perfective in agreement with the auxiliary verb. In items 2, 4 and 5, the English modal auxiliaries are irregular but in the Adara translation these are in their base forms. The structure of future perfect tenses expresses what Olu-Tomori (1977:121) referred to as 'future in past in past'.

(2) Differences in the Syntactic Rules of Tenses and Aspects in English and Adara languages.

i. The **Progressive Aspect**

The progressive aspect allows speakers to express incomplete on-going actions or states. Here are contrasts of progressive aspects in the underlined verb phrase structures in the progressive tenses:

ENGLISH	ADARA
1. S + aux + v-ing + C → ♯v♯v—Af♯.	S + aux + v + C → ♯v♯v♯.
2. S + aux + c-ing + O.→ ♯v♯v—Af♯.	S + aux + v + O → ♯v♯v♯.
3. S+aux+v-en+v-ing+A→ ♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯.	S+aux+aux+v+O → ♯v♯v♯v♯.

In the underlined verbal groups in 1, 2, amd 3 above, the verbal groups determine which aspect is chosen. In choosing the progressive aspect, the difference between the verb phrases of English and Adara is in the use of inflectional suffix in English verbs. This does not apply to Adara language.

ii. The Perfect Aspect

ENGLISH	**ADARA**
1. aux+v—ed → ♯Afv♯v—Af♯.	aux+aux+v → ♯v♯v♯v♯.
2. aux + v—d →♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux + v→♯v♯v♯v♯.
3. aux + v →♯Afv♯Afv♯.	aux + aux +v →♯v♯v♯v♯.
4. aux+part.+v-ed →♯Afv♯v♯v—Af♯.	aux + aux+v+v→♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.

All the verb phrases have auxiliaries at the very beginning. The English verb phrases have one auxiliary while the Adara translations have two auxiliaries before the main verbs. The general differences are in the use of inflections in English verbs which does not apply to Adara.

From the data analysed in this section covering the differences in the verb structures dealing with tenses and aspects of English and Adara languages, verb phrase structures of the two languages could be said to be specifically different. Of all the

data analysed, translations of the verb phrases from English to Adara show differences in structure such that an attempt to arrange one like the other will distort meaning in some cases and in some other cases render it ungrammatical. Either of the two languages however has elements that both mark tenses and aspects as present, past, future as well as marking perfective and progressive aspects. In other words, elements in the English verb phrases are present in the Adara verb phrases except the use of inflections and irregular verb. The presence of elements such as auxiliaries, modals, verbs, particles, and others is evident in both languages but they are used differently in many cases. Their usage creates the differences in structure between the two languages. Tense is a universal element in languages and this analysis has confirmed its presence in English and Adara languages. This confirmation has however disconfirmed any assumption that universality of tense elements suggests structural similarity across languages.

3. Tabular Analysis of Tenses and Aspects structures in English and Adara languages

In this section, an attempt is made to analyse structures indicating the tense and the corresponding aspects at the same time. This will make it very clear for the reader who perhaps finds it difficult to merge the above analyses for tenses and the aspects. Structures expressing aspect always include tense but tense can occur without aspect. Thus, a careful selection of data has been made to analyse structures that express both tenses and aspects below (https://en.wikipedia.org./wiki/Grammatical-aspect):.

1.

Language	sentence	Verb Phrase	Structure	Aspect	Rules
English	I eat	eat	V	Perfective	♯v♯

Adara	Ime ka la	Ka la	Aux + V(base)	Perfective	♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I do eat				

2.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I am eating	Am eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive	♯v♯v—Af♯.
Adara	Ime su la	Su la	Aux(prog) + V(base)	Progressive	♯v♯v♯.
Gloss	I am eat				

3.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I have eaten	Have eaten	Aux + V-en	Perfective	♯v♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime ku la	Ku la	Aux + V	Perfective	♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I have eat				

4.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I have been eating	Have been eating	Aux+aux+V-ing	Progressive	♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime ka li la	Ka li la	Aux+aux+ V	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I have doing eat	Have doing eat			

5.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	He eats	Eats	V-s	Perfective	♯v—Af♯
Adara	A ka la	Ka la	Aux (perf.) + V(base)	Perfective	♯v♯v♯.
Gloss	He do eat				

6.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I ate	Ate	V(irregular)	Perfective	♯Afv♯.
Adara	Ime la	la	V	Perfective	♯v♯
Gloss	I have eat				

7.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive	♯Afv♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime shi ku	Shi ku la	Aux+ aux +	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯.

	la		V		
Gloss	I was do eat				

8.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	Ihad eaten	Had eaten	Aux + V-en	Perfective	♯Afv♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime sa ku la	Sa ku la	Aux+aux+ V	Perfective	♯v♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I had do eat				

9.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I had been eating	Had been eating	Aux+aux+ V-ing	Progressive	♯Afv♯v—Af♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime sa ka li la	Sa ka li la	Aux+aux+aux+V	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
Gloss	I had do do eat				

10.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive	♯Afv♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime ba shi ku la	Ba shi ku la	Aux+aux+aux + V	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I was do do eat				

11.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I will eat	Will eat	Aux(M) + V	Imperfective	♯v♯v♯.
Adara	Ime ki la	Ki la	Aux(M) + V	Imperfective	♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I will eat				

12.

language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I will be eating	Will be eating	M + aux+ V-ing	progressive	♯v♯v♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime ki shi ku la	Ki shi ku la	M + aux + aux + V	progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯v♯
Gloss	I will be do eat				

13.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I will have eaten	Will have eaten	M+aux+V-en	perfective	♯v♯v♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime su ku la	Su ku la	M + aux + V	Perfective	♯v♯v♯v♯.
Gloss	I will have eat				

14.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verb Phrase**	**Structure**	**Aspect**	**Rules**
English	I will have been eating	Will have been eating	M+aux+aux+V-ing	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v—Af♯v—Af♯
Adara	Ime ki shi ku la	Ki ku shi ku la	Aux +aux+aux+aux+V	Progressive	♯v♯v♯v♯v♯v♯.
Gloss	I will have be				

Of all the items in nos. 1 to 13 above there are differences that can best be summarised that,no two verb phrases are exactly the same except in the future imperfective slot (10), variations in number of auxiliaries which is higher in Adara verb phrases, where the number of auxiliaries is the same, the English verbs take inflection, and that where the English verb phrase has only the lexical verb, it is sometimes irregular.

Data analyses in this chapter have presented the contrastive relationship that exists between the structures of tenses and aspects in English and Adara (Ewa dialect) tenses and aspects. This relationship clearly presents pedagogical implications with regards to teaching and learning of English language as a second language. An Adara learner is prone to a measure of difficulty considering the complex varions discussed above.

The fact tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara languages have contrasted and differences that exist brought to fore is an addition to the field of

linguistics, an opening towards further studies in Adara language and may pave way codification of the language. Finally, results of the analyses have provided answers to the research questions, confirming its relevancy.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY,CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1Summary

This thesis is “Acontrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspects: A case of Ewa dialect. The study was limited to the analysis of the structures of tenses and aspects of the English and Adara languages. Discussions only extend to other parts of a sentence when obligatory elements occur in the verb phrase.

Five research questions were formulated for the study. The first is to ascertain how different are the syntactic elements of English and Adara languages in Subject-Verb-Objectstructure. The second was to confirm the syntactic elements that are common in the structures of English and Adara languages’ tenses and aspects. The third was to determine the extent to which the grammatical rules of generating tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages differ. The fourth was to discover how

contrastive analysis of tenses and aspects in English and Adara languages contribute to the learning or teaching of English as L2 in adata learner context.And finally, the fifth was to determine the contributions of contrastive analysis of English and Adara tenses and aspects to the codification, translation and development of Adara language and to the field of linguistics.

The theoretical framework was a combination of Transformational Generative Grammar and Whitman's model of Contrastive Analysis (Chomsky, 1957 &1965 in Olu-Tomori, 1977; Whitman, 1970).Data from primary sources and secondary sources were collected using pen on paper. The primary data were the speech of the native speakers of Adara and relying on the fact that the researcher is a native speaker who acquired, uses, and speaks the language from childhood. The researcher was at the same time a postgraduate student of English language and so obtained the secondary data from relevant publications in English language. Chomsky's symbols of analysis restated by Tomori (1977) were adopted and used for the data analysis. The core analysis was basically the tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara languages. However, the structures of simple declarative sentences, noun phrases as subject of sentences and verb elements as well as tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara languages were contrasted being the core analyses. Generally, a total of one hundred and sixty items served as data for the study and were analysed.

In the findings, elements of similarity were found in the syntactic linear order of the major constituents in English and Adara sentences carried out in 4.2.1. The subject-verb-object sentence structure of the English language is the same in Adara

language. The similarity is however limited to the major constituent level of the declarative sentences.

The noun phrases of the two languages were found to be structurally different where there are modifiers especially prefixing the headwords in English (4.2.2). Unlike English, the Adara adjectives occur after the headwords in noun phrases. More so, determiners in Adara are marked by tones, not with articles such as 'the', 'a', 'an', and so on, as is the case with English. These English articles/determiners have no structural equivalents in Adara. Instead, they are phonologically marked.

Use of 'number' in stating pronouns as subjects or noun phrases of sentences are done differently in Adara. The 1st person plural pronoun 'We' in English is translated in two ways in Adara as 'Iyi' and 'Aywu". 'Iyi' means 'we- two persons' and 'Aywu' means 'we – more than two persons'. Also, the 2nd person pronoun 'You' in English behaves the same way as the 1st person plural pronoun. 'Ungho' means 'You' (– singular) and 'Unu' means 'you (– plural). This is only a brief syntactic view of the noun phrases of English and Adara.

The verb elements of English and Adara include auxiliaries, modals, and lexical verbs. Particles such as 'not', adverbs and other elements sometimes occur within the verb especially transforms. The verb elements are used differently in the verb phrases of English and Adara. Details of how these elements are used variously in the two languages are discussed in 4.3 and 4.4 in the analyses.

Findings in verb phrases, the crux of the thesis, show variations at different levels. There are variations in the number of auxiliaries in which those in Adara are mostly higher in number than those in the verb phrases of English. Where the number of

auxiliary verbs is the same in English and Adara verb phrases, the English lexical verb takes inflections. Inflections and affixes are absent in Adara data analysed except in the plural form of 'Ukpo' (death) rendered as 'Ukpuru' (deaths) and the adverb "apieachwa" rendered as 'K-apiyeachwa' (sometimes) in context. Also, where the English verb phrase comprises of only the lexical verb, it is mostly irregular. In Adara, verbs and auxiliary verbs are constantly in their base forms. In interrogative sentences where the subject noun phrase is mainstreamed in the verb elements due to transformations or movement of elements, the position of such nouns/pronouns differ in English and Adara. Finally, in the negative sentences of English and Adara verb phrases, negative particles occur.Theposition of such negative particles differs in each language. In some cases, Adara verb phrases incorporate two negative particles, unlike English.

The implication of the study revealed in the findings have proven the relevance of the study to existing literature of previous researches with regards to the syntactic structure of English and Adara language and any other languages reviewed in this thesis. In particular, the verb phrases of Adara have varying syntactic structures such that some of them cannot be stated in isolation of some noun elements in transforms. While there are similarities in the tenses and aspects structures of some positive declarative sentences of English and Adara, such similarities vanish in negative and interrogative verb phrases. The findings differ from the outcome of previous researches as seen in our review in chapter 2 above.For example, tenses are not marked by the use of tones as is the case in Hyam (Jaba) evident in the review. Also, the findings show variations in the structure of interrogative and negative sentences in English and Adara languages.The Adara language was wrongly perceived by some non-linguist as a language of little significance, but has surprisingly been seen

to possess similar characteristics with a world language. The differences evident in the analyses are that Adara behaves structurally different from English. The syntactic differences between a language and another should not be a yardstick for status determination. After all, the major Nigerian languages are not structurally the same.Variations have also been found in the structures of international languages such as Arabic, English and French. This is to say that Adara has the potential for development to a higher status, at least, for academic purposes.

The findings therefore imply that teachers of English to Adara learners are likely to encounter problems in the process. In like manner, learners of English who are natives of Adara are likely to encounter problems in the process of learning.

The thesis may trigger other linguist in Adara to engage in further studies of the language in order to confirm the findings, add to the findings in the area of study or study other areas related to this study. Following this study, effort can be made towards codification of the language, translation of certain lines, chapters, books, etc from other languages to the language.

Studying a language begins from an aspect until such a language is fully understood in terms of its phonology, morphology, syntax. This work has created an opening for in-depth study of Adara as a language. Studies in linguistics have shown how newly studied languages are constantly added to the list of languages that have been investigated. Where a language has been studied in a certain aspect of it, it expands in scope by virtue of continuous study until it is properly documented. Studies in language education and linguistics are endless as long as language remains dynamic.

5.2 Contributions to Knowledge

a. The striking differences realised not only between English and Adara language but between Adara with other languages reviewed in chapter two of this thesis have brought to fore the fact that gaps exist between Adara and English syntactically. Consequent upon these, it is clear that the thesis has contributed to knowledge in syntactically.

b.The compilation of titles of previous works into one piece such as the wordlist by Blench (2009), the literary text by Washiri (2010), and a survey history of the Kadara people by Hassan (1994) and others serves as materials for reference in respect of Adara. These and the data analysed in this thesis have added to knowledge.and can spur those interested in the codification and translation of Adara language to action.This attempt is a step ahead in enriching the bulk of existing studies in linguistics and it motivates other scholars into action.

c..Many languages have gone extinct due to linguistic oppression or domination as well as lack of due attention by linguistsOf all the reviewed works on tenses and aspects, none of Jaba Language, Arabic language, Jenjo language and other works refered to have exactly the same structure of the verb phrases with those of Adara language. An example is the Jaba language which uses tone to mark tenses unlike the Adara language that does not. This implies that the findings of this research work are timely and relevant as an addition to the existing literature of Adara language.

5.3 Conclusion

The thesis is a contrastive study of English and Adara tenses and aspects: a case of Ewa dialect. The study attempted to identify, contrast and describe the structural organisation of tenses and aspects ofthe two languaes.

The findings of the study have provided answers to the research questions raised in chapter one and summarised in 5.0 above. Although the data analyses have shown that the subject-verb-object structure of the English simple sentence agrees with that of Adara, it also show variations in the internal structure of the various constituents in view of the directtranslations of the data from either English to Adara or vice versa. Such findings re-affirm the universality of tense elements in language.

The study reveals the variation in the use of auxiliary verbs, modal verbs as auxiliaries, negative particles, and the obligatory mainstreaming of noun phrases or pronouns in verb phrases that occur as transforms, particularly in negative sentences and interrogative sentences. These revelations indicate that Adara is capable of being used to make meaningful utterances in tenses and aspects. The structural processes however differ with a few resemblances within the internal structures of each constituent of the sentences and tenses and aspects structures analysed. Therefore, it is clear that the rules that generate tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara are mostly different.

Surprisingly,two words ‘kpu-ru’ (plural of ‘to die’) and ‘k-apiyeachwa’ (sometimes) occurred incidentally since these are the only two that bear affixes of all the 160 items used as data, the former with a suffix and the latter with a prefix.

The implication of the finding in the second language context is thatdifficulty or complexity must occur. This calls for attention when it has to do with learning or teaching of English as a second language to an Adara learner.

Generally, the research findings show a lot of relevance in the sense that the variations that exist between Adara and English as well as between Adara and the

languages in other works reviewed in this thesis have filled certain gaps that form part of language education needs of the Adara learner of English language. And as new discoveries, they have added to the existing literature of linguistics. Such revelations trigger the desire for further investigations into imdigenous languages for possible development.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Studies

As the results of the findings reveal striking differences betwwen the syntactic structures of the tenses and aspects structures of English and Adara, there is need for the total investigation of the entire sentence types of Adara in contrasts to English. This will enable the exertion of the full impact of this research in the linguistic realm.

Considering the need for successful teaching of English language to the Adara learner, the teacher and the curriculum planner may take the findings of this research serious in order to actualise a productive teaching and learning process.

The problem of lack of codification, translation and general development of Adara language has been brought to the fore in view of these research findings. Consequently, the wordlist by Blench (2009) and the findings in this thesis can serve as formidable foundation for the codification, translation and development of Adara language.

Finally, the desire for cross cultural communication which surely brings development should motivate Adara native speakers, especially linguists to take advantage of these research findings and embark on the development of the Adara language.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: DATA SHOWING THE SYNTACTIC DIFFERENCES IN THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH AND ADARA LANGUAGES

1. English: She (S)/ was ironing (V)/ her clothes (O) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:12)
   Adara: A(S)/ shi ku deri(V)/ Uma ngha(O)
   Gloss: He/She (S) was do press (V) clothes his/her (O)

2. English: We(S)/ saw (V), a good film (O)
   Adara: Aywu/Iyi (S) nu(V) ufim ududumа(O)
   Gloss: We (S) see (V) film good (O)

3. English: She (S) finished (V) her work (O)
   Adara: A(S) kpe(V) utina ngha(O)
   Gloss: he/she (S) finish (V) work her (O)

4. English: She (S)/ saw (V)/ that [it (S)/ rained (V) all day (A)]
   Adara: A (S)/ nu(V)/ mana [avua (S)/ wua (A)/ ku kpa (V)]
   Gloss: He/She (S) see (V)/ how [rain (S) all day (A) was fall (V)]

5. English: He (S) has (V) a degree (C)
   Adara: A (S) shi(V) kunu udigri (C)
   Gloss: He has a degree

6. She (S) answered (V) the question (O) correctly (A)
   Adara: A (S) le (V) ughulu (O) nabirbu (A)
   Gloss: She (S) respond (V) question (O) correct (A)

7. English: Has (V) he(S) a degree?(C)
   Adara: A (S) shi (V) kunu digri?(C)
   Gloss: He has a degree?

APPENDIX B: DATA SHOWING FEATURES OF THE SUBJECT ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH AND ADARA SENTENCES

1. English: The (Det)/ horses (N-pl) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973)
   Adara: Ihwari (N-pl). Plurality is marked by low tone on third syllable.
   Gloss: Horse (N-pl))

2. English: His (Adjective) brother (Noun) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:12)
   Adara: Anayu (Noun) ngha (Adjective)
   Gloss: Brother his

3. English: The (Determiner) tall (Adjective) man (Noun) (Quirk and Greenbaum)
   Adara: Aghimi (Noun) agbagba (Adjective)

Gloss: Man tall

4. English: It (Pronoun) is (aux) raining (Verb) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:173):
   Adara: Avua (noun) su (aux) kpa (verb)
   Gloss: Rain is fall
5. English: Usman's (modifier) house (noun) (personal communication)
   Adara: Una Usuman
   Gloss: House Usuman

6. English: The (Det) village (modifier) head (noun)
   Adara: Agumu (modifier) ifu (noun)
   Gloss: Chief town

APPENDIX C: DATA SHOWING THE FEATURES OF THE ENGLISH AND ADARA LANGUAGES VERB ELEMENTS

1. English: The Sun (S)/ sets (V) / in the west (A) (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:41).
   Adara: Unuh (S) ka kpawu (V) ku sighawura (A)'
   Gloss: Sun / do fall / in the west'

2. English:The food (S) is finished (V) (https://en.oxforddictionaries.co/grammar/verb-tense)
   Adara: Imila (S) ku kpeyu (V)
   Gloss: Food is finished

3. English: John (S) is amusing (V) Mary (Palmer, 1990:205).
   Adara: John (S) su sara (V) Mary (O) Usara (A);
   Gloss: John is causing Mary laughter.

4. English: Some birds eat worms and insects.
   Adara: Apiye anurnu ka la edei kana anarajiji.
   Gloss: Some birds do eat worms and insects.

5. English: He has fair hair.
   Adara: A shi nu ufarchwi uyuyer.
   Gloss: He has with hair fair.

6. English: He went to collage for four years.
   Adara: A la anyi anari ku pwa iwuh.
   Gloss: He spent years four at school.

7. English: I phoned him three times today.
   Adara: Ime ku yuru ngha irtai kawadi
   Gloss: I have call him thrice today.

8. English: Ladi smiled.
   Adara: Ladi mu anyu sara.
   Gloss: Ladi twist mouth laugh.

9. English: We must eat or we die.
   Adara: Shi aywu la ko na aywu kpo bu.
   Gloss: Must we eat or do we die do.

10. English: The patient is fast recovering.
    Adara: Adumu sub a achu kisisa.
    Gloss: Patient is come well quick.

APPENDIX D: DATA SHOWING FEATURES OF OTHER ELEMENTS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

1. English: His brother (S) grew (V) happier (A) when [his friend (S) arrived (V)] (QG)
   Adara: Anayu ngha (S) ku (V) ichwifu (C) ka achwa mana [(A) akikyo ngha (S) ba (V)].
   Gloss: Brother / felt happy/ when friend his came.

2. English: The Director (S) bought (V) yams (O) for me. (O) (Personal comm.).
   Adara: Aya ghaghe (S) ghie (V) mi (O) uchwu (O).
   Gloss: Man big / buy / me/ yams.

3. English: John (S) carefully (A) searched (V) the room (O) (Q and G, 1973:).
   Adara: John(S) Khira (V) ubuo (O) nabirbuwu (A).
   Gloss: John/ searched/ room/ carefully.

4. English: You (S) must tell (V) me (O) the truth (A) (Ogunsiji et al, 2013:260).
   Adara: shi ungho (S) tira (V) mi (O) apupa (A).
   Gloss: Must you tell me truth.

5. English: He (S) brought (V) three things.
   Adara: A ba kunu uma utai.
   Gloss: He come with three things.

6. English: Will you(S) follow (V) me (O) to the place (A)?
   Adara: Ungho su kiyi mi kyanghu ka ku?
   Gloss: You will follow me go place the?

7. English: He entered through the window.
   Adara: A ghila ku taga.
   Gloss: He enter through window.

APPENDIX E: DATA SHOWING ANALYSIS OF THE STRUCTURE OF TENSE AND ASPECT IN ENGLISH AND ADARA LANGUAGES

The Present Simple Tense (https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org https://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/tense-simple-present)

1. English: I am nineteen years old.
Adara: Ime shi anyi uso nuloso.
Gloss: I am years ten and nine.

2. English: He lives in London.
Adara: A hi ka London.
Gloss: He lives in London.

3. English: I sometimes goto the cinema.
Adara: Ime ka kya usilima ka piye achwa.
Gloss: I do go cinema at some time.

4. English: She never plays football.
Adara: A ka ha ngha ubolu ba.
Gloss: She do play her ball not.

5. English: Where do **you** live?
Adara: Ukabiwu nu **nghu** hi ku?
Gloss: Where do **you** live?

6. English: Where does **he** come from?
Adara: Ukabiwu na **ngha** kunu ku?
Gloss: Where does he come from?

7. Adara: Anu ngha (S) shi kini igho ibibi(V) (chief's palace .Personal Communication)
Gloss: Children him/her have type bad.
English: Her children have bad behaviour'.

8. Adara: Ime ghie Imila (Chief's palace personal communication)
Gloss: I buy food.
English: I bought the food.

9. Adara: Anu la imila (chief's palace Afogo. personal communication)
Gloss: child eat food.
The child ate food.

The Present Progressive Tense

1 Adara: Anu su chi (Ummaya – a nursing mother; pers comm.)
Gloss: Child is cry.
English: A child is crying.

2. Adara: Ime kyuo nghu (Personal Communication).
Gloss: I seeing you.
English: I am seeing you.

3. Adara: Iyi kyuo nghu - (V).
Gloss: We (two) seeing you (one) – (V-ing).
English: We(pl-two) are seeing you (sgl) – (aux + V-ing).
(Interview with Yusuf Gwamna, 58yrs):

4. Adara: Aywu kyuo nghu - (V).
Gloss: We (many) seeing you (one) (V-ing).
English: We (many) are seeing you (one) – (aux + V-ing).

5. Adara: Aywu su kyuo nu – (aux + V).
Gloss: We are looking you (aux + V).
English: We are looking at you - (aux + V-ing).

6. Adara: A su keri utina (from Intuition).
Gloss: He/she is doing work.
English: He is working.

1. English: He is moving to London (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973)
Adara: A(sgl) ki sah kya ngha ka London.
Gloss: He will leave go him to London.

2. English: They are washing the dishes.
Adara: A(pl) su huru akwanu.
Gloss: They are wash (the) dishes.

3. English: The plane is taking off at 5:20.
Adara : Ujirgi ki funu ka atu ni shipai.
Gloss: (The) Plane will fly at 5 with 20.

4. English: The President is coming to the UN this week.
Adara: Aghirbu ki ba UN ku sati ri.
Gloss: Landowner will come UN in week this.

Present Perfect Tense
(https://www.ef.com/eng-resources/english-grammar/present-perfect-tense; http://www.ef.edu/english-resources/)

1. English: I have lived in Bristol since 1948 (and I still do).
Adara: Ime ku hi ka Bristol ku kpa ka 1948 (ni Ime du shi).
Gloss: I have live in Bristol start from 1948 (and I still do).

2. English: She has been to the cinema twice this week.
Adara: A ku kya usilima irpai ku sati ri.
Gloss: She has go cinema twice in week this.

3. English: I have just finished my work.
Adara: Uki kpe utina mi wudi.
Gloss: Just-finish work my now.

4. English: We have visited Portugal several times.
   Adara: Aywu ku ki apotugal si vivulo.
   Gloss: We (more than two) have go (pl) Portugal repeatedly.

5. English: She has worked in the bank for five years.
   Adara: A ku keri utina ku banki anyi atu.
   Gloss: She has do work in bank years five.

6. English: It has rained a lot this year.
   Adara: Avua ku kpa na giga ka nyiri.
   Gloss: Rain has fall very well this year.

7. English: We have just seen her.
   Adara: Umana aywu ki nu ngha wudi.
   Gloss: How we just see her now.

8. English: Someone has eaten my soup.
   Adara: Apiyaghu ku la mi irniye ku.
   Gloss: Someone has eat my soup do (past).

9. English: Has he just left?
   Adara: Uki sa ngha wudi?
   Gloss: Just left he now?

10. English: We have **not** seen her today.
    Adara: Aywu ku nu bu ngha kawadi ba.
    Gloss: We have see **not** her today **not.**

The Past Simple Tense

1. Adara: Adjua ku hi khi da pah (Chief's Palace Afogo. Pers. Comm).
   Gloss: People have live in caves.
   English: People lived in caves.

2. Adara: Aywu nu aninu adadama.
   Gloss: We see bird good.
   English: We saw a beautiful bird.

3. Adara: Ime ba kya ulije kamushiye (Intuition).
   Gloss: I did go business yesterday.
   English: I went to the market yesterday.

4. Adara: Amushiyeni, Ime ba sugh ka Abuja (Intuition).
   Gloss: Yesterday, I did come at Abuja.
   English: Yesterday, I arrived at Abuja.

5. Adara: A kpe utina ngha kunu ughe (Adara Dev. Association Meeting, Abuja).
   Gloss: He/she finish work his/her in evening.
   English: He/she finished her work in the evening.

6. Adara: A ku ba fama (Intuition).
Gloss: He/she has come reach.
English: He/she has arrived.

7. Adara: A ku ba fama ngha ba (Intuition).
Gloss: He/she has come reach he/she not.
English: He/she has not arrived.

8. Adara; Unu kpwila **nu** ba? (Intuition).
Gloss: You play you not?
English: Did **you** not play?

9. Adara: Ungho ta chi nghu ba (At a funeral. Personal Communication)
Gloss: You do cry you not.
English: You did not cry.

10. Adara: A kya **bu** ku kru kini ngha.
Gloss: They go **them** to fight with him/her.
English: They have gone to fight with him/her.

11. Adara: Ime ku ghie imila.
Gloss: I **have buy** food.
English: I have bought food.

12. Adara: Anu ku la imila (Elizabeth, 40 yrs. Personal Communication)
Gloss: The child/ a child/the children have eat food.
English: The child/a child/the children ate food.

13. English: He went to club (http://www.ef.com).
Adara : A ba kya ngha ku kulob.
Gloss: He was go him to club.

14. English: We gave her the key (www.ef.com):
Adara: Aywu ma ngha ufuo.
Gloss: We give him/her key.

Past Progressive Tense (data from http://grammar.ccc.edu) :

1. English: I was riding my bike all day yesterday.
Adara: Ime ba wua ku ti ihwari mi kamushiye.
Gloss: I was all day do ride bike my yesterday.

2. English: I was sleeping on the chair last night.
Adara: Ime ba shi ku muo kaya igu kana ati..
Gloss: I was do do sleep on chair at night.

3. Adara: Ime sa tih ku sighte aghimi mi kawhi ra (Intuition).
Gloss: I was standing in front husband my day that.
English: I was standing in front of my husband that day.

4. Adara: Ime sa shi ku la imila (Gwamma, Y. 18/11/2017. P C).
Gloss: I was doing do eat food.
English: I was eating food.

5. English: Was he being good to you?
Adara: A sa ka ju nghu ududumа?
Gloss: He was do you good?

6. Adara: Ingha sa shi ku la imila? (Intuition)
Gloss: Who was do do eat food (the)?
English Who was eating the food?

7. English: The big man was not sleeping then.
Adara: Aya ghaghe sa shi ngha ku muo kachwa ba.
Gloss: Man big was do him sleep then not.

8. English: The teacher was teaching in the class (http://www.ef.edu).
Adara: Umalime ba shi ku meh khi da aji.
Gloss: Teacher was do do teach in the class.

Data from researcher's intuition;

9. Adara: shi ku chi (aux + aux + V).
English: was crying (aux + V-ing).

10. Adara: Shi ku nyie (aux + aux + V.
English : was defecating (aux + V-ing).

11. Adara: Shi ku titih (aux + aux + V).
English: was running (aux + V-ing).

The Past Perfect Tense

1. Adara: Ime sa ku ghie imila (Intuition).
Gloss: I had do buy food.
English: I had bought food.

2. Adara: Ime ku la imila (simple past) (aux + V).
Gloss: I have eat food.
English: I have eaten food (past perfect). (aux + V-en).

3. Adara: Ime sa ku la imila (aux + aux + V) (Intuition).
Gloss: I have do eat food.
English: I had eaten food (aux + V-en).

4. Adara: Aywu sa ku la imila (aux + aux + V) (Intuition).
Gloss: We(many) have do eat food.
English: We had eaten food (aux + V-en).

5. Adara: Ungho sa ku la imila (aux + aux + V) (Intuition).
Gloss: You (singular) have do eat food.
English: You(singular/plural) had eaten food (aux + V-en).

6. Adara: Unu sa ku la imila (aux + aux + V) (personal Communication).
Gloss: You (plural) have do eat food.
English: You (plural) had eaten food (aux + V-en).

7. Adara: Iyi sa ku la imila (aux + aux + V) (Personal Communication).
Gloss: We (pl-two) have do eat food.
English: We had eaten food (aux + V-en).

8. English: He has eaten my chocolates (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:46)
Adara : A ku la mi uchokole ku.
Gloss: He has eat my chocolate (past).

9. English: He was eating my chocolates but I stopped him.
Adara: A sa shi ku la mi uchokole ku.
Gloss: He was do do eat my chocolate (perfect).

10. English: He has been eating my chocolates (Quirk and Greenbaum)
Adara: A ka li la mi uchokole.
Gloss: He has do eat my chocolates.

11. English: I ate my lunch when my wife came.
Adara: Ime la imila mi ka achwa mana ayi mi ba.
Gloss : I eat food my at time that wife my came.

12. English: John tells me that he has not seen Mary since Monday (Q & G, 1973:45).
Adara: John tir mi si ingha ku nu ngha Mary ba ku kpa ka whi Ulitini.
Gloss: John tells me that he has see her Mary not from start on day Monday.

13. English: John told me that he had not seen Mary since Monday (Q&G, ibid).
Adara: John tira mi si ingha ku nu ngha Mary ba ku kpa ka whi Litini.
Gloss: John told me that he had see she Mary not from start day Monday.

14. English: I say that when I met him John had lived in Paris for ten years (Q&G:45).
Adara: Ime tir si achwa mana mi sa tachwi kini ngha nu John sa ku hi anyi uso ka Paris.
Gloss: I say that time that I met with him John had do live years ten in Paris.

Simple Future Tense
(http://www.ef.edu/english-resources/rnglish-grammar/simple-future-tense)

1. English: It will rain tomorrow.
Adara: Avua ki kpa kinichwa.
Gloss: Rain will fall tomorrow.

2. English: I will pay for the tickets now.

Adara: Ime ki bya akati kachwachwari.
Gloss: I will pay tickets (the) now.

3. English: I will do the washing up (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).
Adara: Ime ki huru.
Gloss: I will wash.

4. English: I won't leave until I see the manager.
Adara: Ime ki sa mi ba shi mi nu Manaja.
Gloss: I will leave me not until I see Manager.

5. English: The baby won't eat his soup (http://www.ef.edu/).
Adara: Anu ki la ngha irniye ngha ba.
Gloss: Baby will eat it soup him not.

In the interrogatives, the simple future in English contrasts with Adara as follows:

6. English: Shall **I** open the window? (http://www.ef.edu).
Adara: Ime ya femi utaga?
Gloss: I go open window?

7. English: What shall I tell the boss? (http://www.ef.edu).
Adara: Ikyamu ni ime ki tira ayaghaghe?
Gloss: What shall I will tell boss(the)

8. English: You will do exactly as I say (http://www.ef.udu).
Adara: Unu/Ungho ki ju kunu mana mi tiri ni.
Gloss: You (pl/sgl) will do as how I say it.

9. English: Will you come to the dinner with me? (http://www.ef.com)
Adara: Ungho ki ba uku la imila ughe kini me?
Gloss: You will come to eat food evening with me?

10. English: She shall have music wherever she goes.
Adara: A ki peni ate kukabiwu na kyangha.
Gloss: He/she shall get songs everywhere goes she.

The Future Progressive Tense
(http://www.perfectenglishgrammar.com/future progressive tense/

1. English: I will be waiting when you arrive.
Adara:: Ime ki shi ku hisa nghu su ya ba.
Gloss: I will be do wait you till you come.

2. English: At eight o'clock, I will be eating dinner.
Adara: Ka ananari nakiki ni, ime ki shi ku la imila ati.
Gloss: at eight o'clock dot, I will be do eat food night.

3. English: The government will be making a statement.
Adara: Agomnati ki peni upwi na sugh.
Gloss: Government will talk a talk later.

4. English: When will you be living?
   Adara: Agbaachwaku nu nghu ki sah ku?
   Gloss: Which time is you will leave do?

5. English: I willl arrive tomorrow (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:47).
   Adara: Ime ki ba kini ichwa.
   Gloss: I will come by tomorrow.

6. English: He will be here in half an hour (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973,47)
   Adara: A ki fama kadi kida minti ishitai.
   Gloss: He will reach here in minutes 30.

7. English: She is going to have a baby (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:49)
   Adara: A ki peni anu.
   Gloss: She will get baby(sgl).

Interrogatives also occur in the future progressive tense:

8. English: When are **you** going to get married? (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973:48).
   Adara: Agba awhi ku nu **nghu** ki vo ayi?
   Gloss: which day is that you will fetch wife?

9. English: It is going to rain (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973:48).
   Adara: Avua ki kpa.
   Gloss: Rain will fall.

The Future Perfect Tense
(http://www.ef.edu/english-resources/english-grammar/future-perfect) .

1. English: He will have finished.
   Adara: A su ku kpe.
   Gloss: He will have finish.

2. English: I would not have finished.
   Adara: Ime su ku kpe **mi** ba.
   Gloss: I would have finish **me** not.

3. English: Will **I** have arrived?
   Adara: Ime su ku to ku?
   Gloss: I would have arrived?

4. English: Wouldn't **I** have arrived?
   Adara: Ime su ku to **mi** ba?
   Gloss: I would have arrive **me** not?

5. English: By the time you read this, I would have left.
   Adara: achwa mana unghu su pwa imari ni, ime su ku sa mi.
   Gloss: time that you do count this, I would have left.

APPENDIX F: DATA SHOWING THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE VERBAL GROUPS IN THE TENSE STRUCTURE EXPRESSING ASPECT IN ENGLISH AND ADARA LANGUAGES (Tomori, 1977:128).

The Simple Aspect (http://www.linguisticgirl.com/grammatical-aspect-in-English)

1. English: The little girl reads a book every morning.
Adara: Ananayi ka pwa awo koigba ichwati.
Gloss: Little girl do read book every morning.

2. English: The train leaves in the evening.
Adara: Ugbolu ka sa kunu ughe.
Gloss: Train do leave in the evening.

3. English: Books are returned to the Library.
Adara: Irwo na aka vua kyabu ku churu ku.
Gloss: Books are returned to where keep it.

Past Simple Aspect

1. English: He painted me a picture.
Adara: A fili mi iwirwu.
Gloss: He paint me picture.

2. English: The dishes were washed last night.
Adara: A ba huru akwanu kana ati uworuku.
Gloss: They were wash dishes in night past.

The Progressive Aspect

1. English: I am listening to the song.
Adara: Ime su huri ute.
Gloss: I am hearing (the) song.

2. English: He is watching the movie trailer (Hopper, 1999)
Adara: A su kyuo ufim.
Gloss: He is watching film.

3. English: His grandfather has been smoking again.
Adara: Akpwi ngha du vwa sa asigha.
Gloss: Grandfather her has again smoke cigarette.

The Perfect Aspect

(https://learnenglish-britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/verbs/perfective -aspect)

4. English: I had studied for the test.
Adara: Ime sa ku khira Iwu umara si kpe.
Gloss: I had do read note test and finish.

5. English: The woman has changed her outfit.
Adara: Ayi sa ku seri umuku ngha.
Gloss: Woman has do change outfit her.

6. English: The students had met the lecturer before.
Adara: Anumakaranta sa ku peni umalibe awuwu.
Gloss: Childre (of) school had met (the) teacher since.

7. English: I had just jumped into the shower when the phone rang.
Adara: Ime sa ki funu ghila mi duku sumu nu waya shi ku khi.
Gloss: I had just jump enter me place bath then phone was do ring.

APPENDIX G: DATA SHOWING TABULAR ANALYSIS OF TENSE AND ASPECT STRUCTURES IN ENGLISH AND ADARA LANGUAGES (https://en.wikipedia.org./wiki/Grammatical-aspect).

1.

Language	**sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I eat	Eat	V	Perfective
Adara	Ime ka la	Ka la	Aux + V(base)	Perfective
Gloss	I do eat			

2.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I am eating	Am eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime su la	Su la	Aux(prog) + V(base)	Progressive
Gloss	I am eat			

3.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I have eaten	Have eaten	Aux + V-en	Perfective
Adara	Ime ku la	Ku la	Aux(past) + V(base)	Perfective
Gloss	I have eat			

4.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Syntactic Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I have been eating	Have been eating	Aux + aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime shi ku la	Shi ku la	Aux + aux+ V(base)	Progressive
Gloss	I have been eat			

5.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	He eats	Eats	V-s	Perfective

Adara	A ka la	Ka la	Aux(perf.) + V(base)	Perfective
Gloss	He do eat			

6.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I ate	Ate	V(irregular)	Perfective
Adara	Ime ku la	Ku la	Aux + V	Perfective
Gloss	I have eat			

7.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime shi ku la	Shi ku la	Aux + aux + V	Progressive
Gloss	I was do eat			

8.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I had eaten	Had eaten	Aux + V-en	Perfective
Adara	Ime sa ku la	Sa ku la	Aux + aux + V	Perfective
Gloss	I had do eat			

9.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I had been eating	Had been eating	Aux + aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime sa shi ku la	Sa shi ku la	Aux +aux + aux + V	Progressive
Gloss	I had do do eat			

10.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I was eating	Was eating	Aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime ba shi ku la	Ba shi ku la	Aux+aux+aux + V(base)	Progressive
Gloss	I was do do eat			

11.

Language	**Sentence**	**Verbal group**	**Rules**	**Aspect**
English	I will eat	Will eat	Aux(mod) + V	Imperfective
Adara	Ime ki la	Ki la	Aux(mod) + V	Imperfective
Gloss				

I will eat

12.

Language	Sentence	Verbal group	Rules	Aspect
English	I will be eating	Will be eating	Aux (prog) + aux(prog) V-ing	Imperfective
Adara	Ime ki shi ku la	Ki shi ku la	Aux(prog)+aux(prog)+ aux(prog) + V	Imperfective
Gloss	I will be do eat			

13.

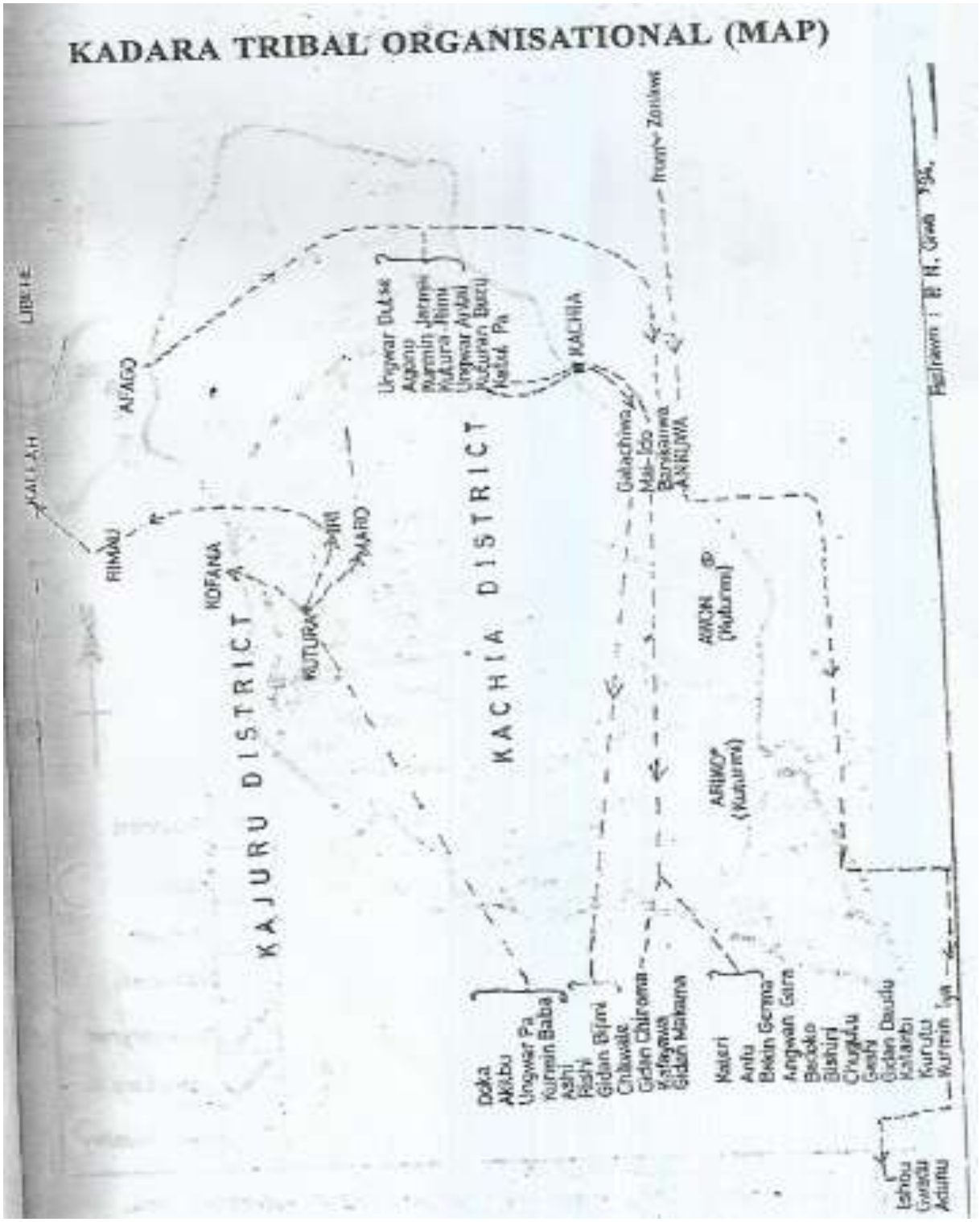
Language	Sentence	Verbal group	Rules	Aspect
English	I will have eaten	Will have eaten	Aux (mod) + aux + V-en	perfective
Adara	Ime su ku la	Su ku la	Aux + aux + V(base)	Perfective
Gloss	I will have eat			

14.

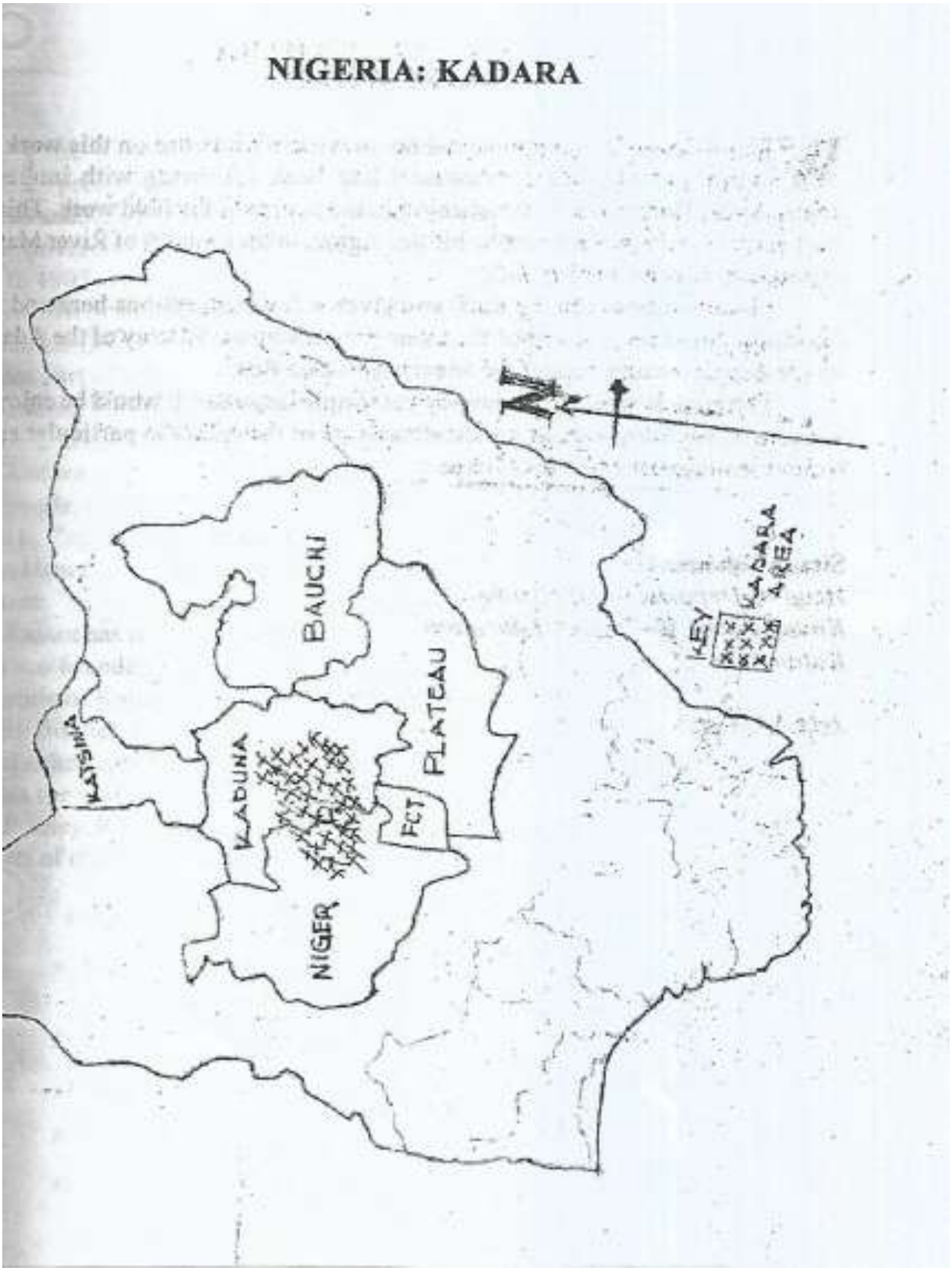
Language	Sentence	Verbal group	Rules	Aspect
English	I will have been eating	Will have been eating	Aux + aux (mod) + aux + V-ing	Progressive
Adara	Ime ki shi ku la	Ki shi ku la	Aux (mod) + aux + aux + V(base	Progressive
Gloss	I will have be			

(https://www.thoughtco.com)

APPENDIX H: MAPS (ADOPTED FROM HASSAN , 1994)



ADOPTED FROM HASSAN (1994)



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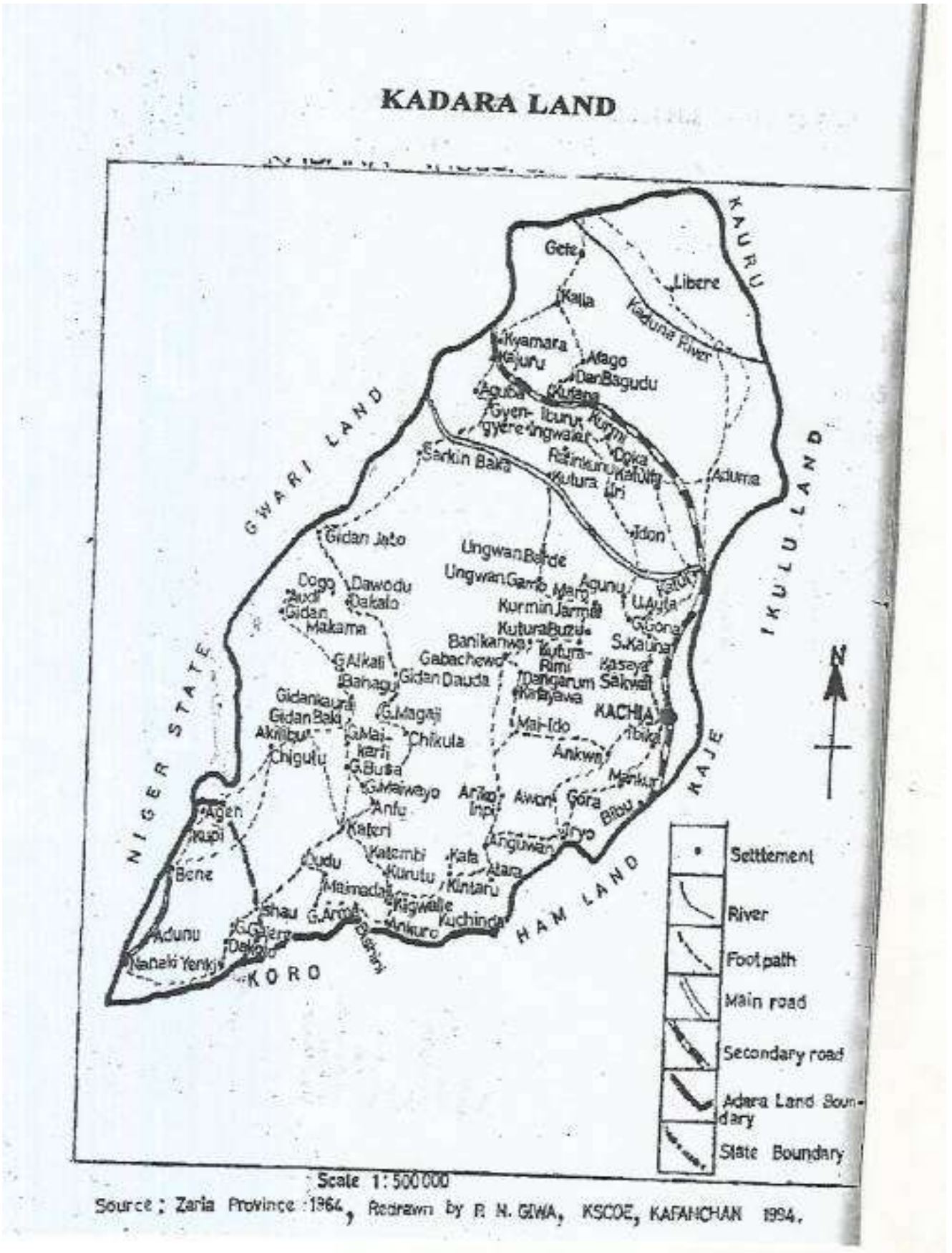

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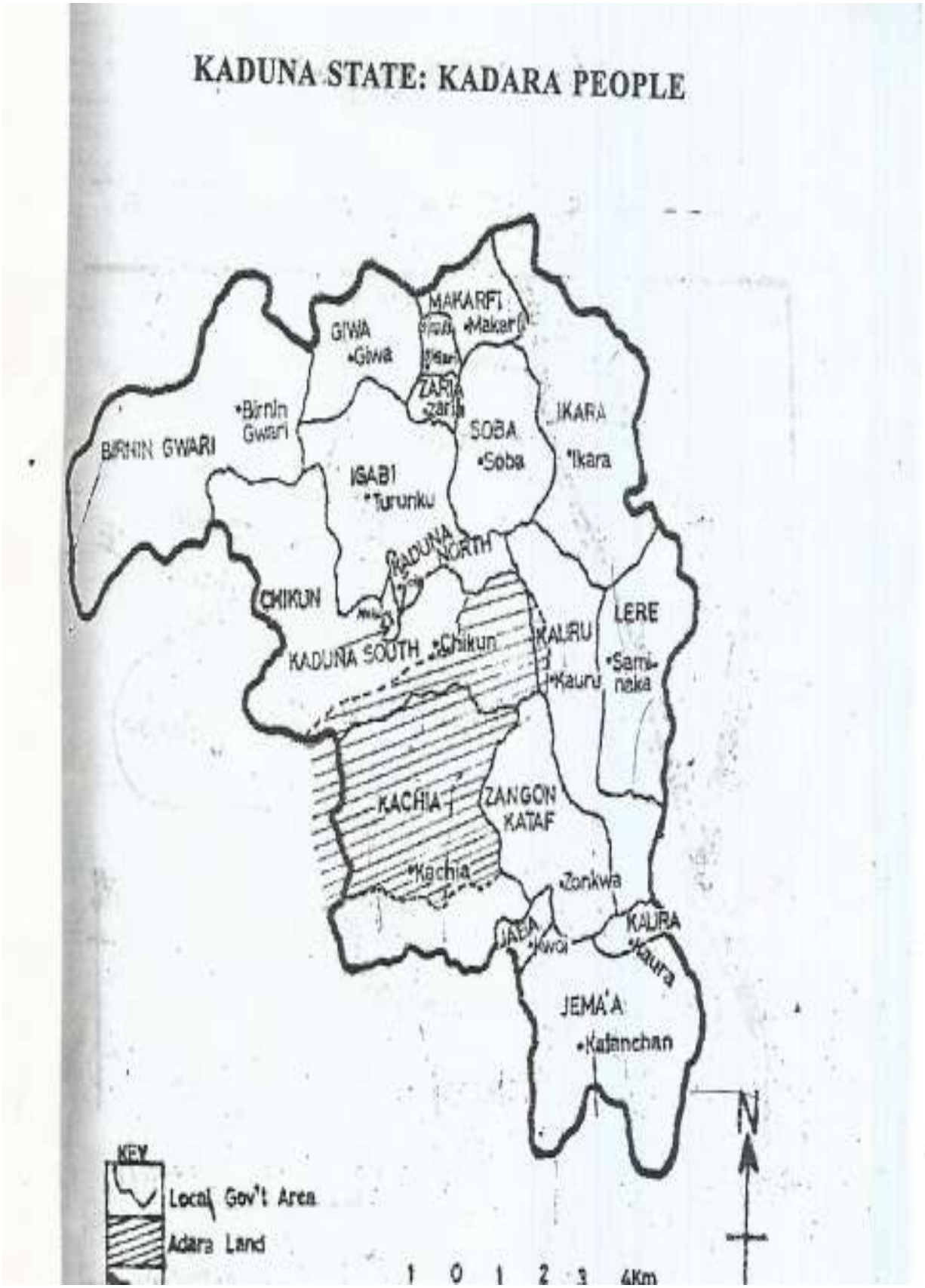

ADOPTED FROM HASSAN (1994)