

# English and Anaang Determiner Phrases: A Syntax-Based Comparative Analysis

By

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## **Abstract**

This paper attempts a comparative analysis of the English and Anaang Determiner Phrases. It uses the Contrastive Analysis as an effective tool for generalizing, predicting and identifying syntactic structural similarities and differences, which may pose difficulties in second language learning or ease second language learning. Determiners in both languages operate as a cover term for articles, numerals, possessive, quantifiers, demonstrative and qualifiers. The findings have shown that the Anaang language has a head initial structure where the determiners are positioned after the head. Some exceptions have been shown to occur where such forms as pre-determiners occur in the Anaang language. English Language maintains the structure of its head assuming the final position in a phrase. This means that all the determiners come before the head. It is on the bases of this finding that we note that knowledge of the differences in the structures of the mother tongue and those of the second language will enhance proficiency and good performance in language teaching and learning of English as Second Language.

## **Introduction**

In linguistics, the only tool suitable for use in the juxtaposition of two languages, language family or stock notwithstanding, is Contrastive Analysis (CA) as a framework to ease the task of comparison between natural languages in the areas of similarities and differences. This tool was first evolved, designed and implemented in 1957 by R. Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures*. According to Uzoigwe (2011:2):

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the careful study of the structures of languages with the intention of comparing and contrasting their forms. Lado's view of similar structures is that they do not pose difficulty in second language learning. The areas of differences are such areas that pose difficulty in second language learning. Structures in language that can be compared and contrasted include: the phonetic, phonemic, morphological, syntactic and semantic structures.

It is the concern of this paper to carry out a comparative analysis of the determiner phrases that are operational in the two languages, and to determine how these phrases function in both languages- Anaang and English. It is also the concern of this paper to take a careful look at the structure with a view to determining whether or not an Anaang bilingual as a second language learner not transfer the structures of his LI into those of the target language, English.

## **Review of Relevant Literature**

In applied linguistics, various criteria are used in comparative and contrastive studies. One of such criteria is "Difference" criterion. This receives attention only when we are looking at two languages, say L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub>. That is why this criterion has variously been described by scholars as the "Comparative Criterion". The criterion is employed also when we are looking at standard languages and some dialects, with the aim of providing an answer to the fundamental question: "what is in this language that the other does not have? To arrive at a definitive conclusion in this regard, the necessary comparison has to be done between the languages concerned. In the end, it would be seen that the facts representing similarities would ease learning while dissimilarities would pose difficulty in learning. The areas that ease learning would then be made to reflect in the school syllabus. They may be those of infixes in one's mother-tongue-aspect which are markedly and conspicuously absent in one's second language or otherwise. When the two languages have been juxtaposed and an attempt at pinpointing their marked dissimilarities has been made, the disclosed dissimilarities will serve as a learning task for the learner.

There are different types of comparisons in language studies. The technical term for this comparison type is intra-lingual comparison. It focuses attention principally on distinctions made between the widely spoken forms of a language, otherwise called "the standard form", and its dialect versions otherwise called "the varieties". Taking "Anaang" as a case language, the distinction on "Itibe Anaang" (central Anaang dialect) spoken in Abak and Etim Ekpo while the surrounding Anaang sub-dialects or varieties are spoken in Ika, Ikot Ekpene, Obot Akara, Essien Udim, Oruk Anam and Ukanafun etc, (Enang, 2017b).

The second type of comparison is between languages. The technical term for this comparison is Inter-lingual comparison. It pays attention to such distinctions as are carried out between different languages which may or may not belong to one language sub-family group. The languages may be those of one's mother tongue and the person's second language. The result of this type of comparison is usually the difference between L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> and this will be reflected in the school syllabus as a learning task. This type of comparison is quite appropriate to this study since it is concerned with the Determiner Phrases of English and Anaang languages which are not from the same language sub-family or parents stock.

The third type is the error analysis. In this case, what is being compared is the learner's form of the target language and the target language itself at any given period. The emphasis of this analytical mode is on the learner's knowledge of what has not yet known about the target language. The information about what aspects of the target language he has already learnt and what aspects still remain to be learnt are revealed. It is on the whole, an analytical mode that probes into what the learner knows or does not yet know of the target language.

Contrastive studies thus, portray similarities and dissimilarities between different languages, and consequently equip language teachers with the facts they can use in language teaching. As a result, Eka (1997:136) concludes that "The nature of Efik sound system exercises considerable influence on the acquisition and use of the English sound system by the Efiks". Also, Udodata (1993:7) agrees with Eka and suggests that: "It would be proper to proceed from what is common to the two languages to what is different in them as far as the result of the comparison is dependable". In language learning and teaching, three tools have been

identified to be operational and effective: contrastive analysis (CA), error analysis (EA) and needs analysis (NA) James (1980) aptly identifies contrastive and error analysis as tools in applied linguistics. It is against the backdrop of the concern for this paper, that contrastive analysis becomes most appropriate for our use as a functional tool for our comparative investigation.

Udofot (1991:132) also discusses a contrastive study of English and Ibibio phonological systems. The author, in comparing the segmental and non segmental features of the two languages, affirms that: "the high calculated value of the chi-square suggests that to a large extent, the difference between the sounds of Ibibio and English are responsible for the poor phonological performance of an Ibibio learner and user of English". Ibibio's work is very relevant to mutually intelligible with Anaang language which is studied here. Ronald Sussex (1976), cited in Udoka (2006:22), views Contrastive Analysis as "the process of showing how each language interprets the universally shared features as unique surface form".

The researcher/s strongly agree/s with Palmer (1960) cited in Udoka (2006:24) that English can never be brought into a one-to-one correspondence with Anaang, an African language, but by comparative Analysis, one will appreciate the general linguistic problem, the African would face in learning or using language as a foreign language". This approach would reveal in the study both peculiar bilingual and linguistic problems inherent in English. More so, it will throw more light on the system of Determiner Phrases operational in Anaang and English. Also, Contrastive Analysis reveals pedagogical relations. This approach has concerned itself effectively with error prediction and error analysis earlier on mentioned. The syntactic problems pointed out in the study will help the teacher to modify the teaching materials to accommodate the distributional pattern of Determiner Phrases in the two languages while emphasis will have to be laid on the syntactic variations or differences in the two languages.

Scholars such as Ferguson (1972), Harmmar (1965), Pietro (1971), Nelson (1971).... all cited in Udoka (2006:26), argue that Contrastive Analysis enables a researcher to investigate firsthand what first and second language learners do in the process of acquiring a control over a language. Awareness of the differences between the target language and the native language can lead learners to realize which of their language habits can be transferred to the new language without unduly affecting comprehensibility and intelligibility and which habits cannot be transferred in order to preserve comprehensibility and intelligibility. Udoka (2006:28), comparing the Anaang and English phonotactics discovers that:

Some consonant clusters in the two languages occur in complementary distribution while some do not. This definitely accounts for the poor performance by some Anaang users of English speech sounds. Contrastive Analysis model therefore, owes to language the Framework within which two or more linguistic descriptions are carried out.

It can, therefore, be noted that the noted similarities and dissimilarities which have a linguistic origin are being analysed on contrastive study. This has provided the basis for selecting English and Anang as languages of an in-depth study in contrastive analysis.

In a more explicit manner, Contrastive Analysis is a linguistic discipline through which languages are compared to determine their relationship as the case of Anaang and English. As a result of this, there is always the problem of mother tongue interference in the learning and mastery of English and a lot of people have made contributions on the best way to teach and learn and most importantly how the pronunciation of sounds of the second language could be improved. The above has resulted in the useful contributions and suggestions of some linguists in this field.

In most cases, two languages are involved in contrastive analysis: one's mother tongue (L1) and the foreign or second language (L2). Lado in his contribution on the preparation of teaching materials quotes Fries, the American structuralist as saying the following: "The most effective materials are those that are based upon scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner", (Lado, 1957:1).

Lado asserts that a teacher who has compared L1 and L2 will know the best way to handle the problem encountered. He goes on to discuss the comparison of two sound systems thus: When learning a foreign language, we tend to transfer our entire native language system in the process. We tend to transfer to that language our phonemes and their variants, our stress and rhythm patterns, our transitions, our intonations patterns and their interaction with other phonemes. Lado (1957:11).

In stressing the need for contrastive analysis, Lado states that people tend to transfer the speech habits and the structure of their mother tongue to the target language. This results in learning with ease those aspects that are the same between languages whereas the dissimilar ones would be difficult to learn. He makes an assertion on the transfer of the structure of the mother tongue to the second language mentioned earlier on thus: "There is the tendency after many years of being exposed to his mother tongue to carry over his mother tongue... to the acquisition of a new language".

Nickel (1971) traces the origin of contrastive analysis to Lado's publication of *Linguistics Across Culture*. The author maintains that contrastive analysis continues to feature in conferences and workshops till the present period. On its contribution on the methodology and models of contrastive analysis, Nickel maintains that when the traditional grammar is the framework of comparison, it would have the disadvantage of being inexact since its base is implicit and insufficient for comparison, even though it would yield good results. The author further recommends taxonomic or the transformational model of language when using contrastive analysis.

Nickel (1971), in maintaining his assertion on contrastive analysis, declares that CA can be helpful a little in applied linguistics but that it would be more advantageous in the designing of teaching materials for adults and children. The author asserts that in doing so, "more use of the materials can help learners to develop their cognitive facilities". The author summarizes the criticisms on CA saying that the problems that teachers encounter do not originate from interference and that, therefore, CA should not be taken too seriously since it does not predict all the errors of the learner Nickel (1971:6), in reaction to the criticism on CA, suggests that the absence of the mastery of mother tongue would lead to confusion of the rules guiding the second language, and hence could cause errors. The author at the end maintains that CA helps

a lot in the designing of teaching materials and prediction of errors, Nickel (1971) is in conformity with Lado on the predictability and validity of CA as a useful tool in the teaching and learning of a second language.

Hammerly (1982) has made an extensive contribution on contrastive analysis (CA). His study stipulates that comparative analysis is concentrated on the ideas that while languages have a lot in common, they as well differ in many ways. He goes on to say that the noted differences and similarities are the causes of negative and positive transfer for the second language learner. The study also throws more light on CA by showing that there are less interesting linguistic universals than in specific phonemes, adding that there is enough in common showing that there is less interest in linguistic universal than in specific differences since it is the differences that cause difficulty for the second language learner. It further shows that if the differences are accomplished by sufficient similarity they won't cause any transfer. The author states that between any two languages, there are many similarities and a little percentage of expression may constitute the dissimilarities.

Hammerly (1982), in making a positive contribution on CA recalls Lado's (1957) assertion that "the teacher who has mastered the mother tongue of his learner will know better what the real problems are and provide for teaching them". He opines that the above emanates from the proposition that a foreign language learner will find some aspects of it really easy and others very difficult. The strong elements that are not similar to his native language will be difficult. Whatever the case, he will transfer features of his native language to the foreign language both productively and receptively. The points already indicated above are contained in what is called contrastive analysis hypotheses that come in the strong and weak form. In effect, the (Hammerly, 1982) explains that the strong version is said to state that "A" can predict all problems of interference (proactive inhibition) from the native language which is the main cause of problems for the L<sub>2</sub> learner.

However, some scholars have criticized the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Some of these linguists point out that the CAH is unresearchable and lacks real facts. They refer to their version (as Strawman designed to condemn CA) as invalid and it is an attempt to discredit and insinuate the early proponents of CA such as Lado and Fries. Consequently, the version states that CA is useful in explaining some errors after they have occurred, and that it has little or no predictive power. This version has some disadvantages. For instance, it has been dubbed useless because it removes from CA the ability to contribute to the preparation of language materials, the preparation of tests and others. However, CA has, to a reasonable extent, proved to be useful in its predictive power because of its ability to pre-identify what will cause problems.

He notes that unmarked phenomena should be acquired before marked ones. Major and Kim (1999) opine that both similarities and dissimilarities between L<sub>1</sub> and markedness are important in L<sub>2</sub> acquisition. That at times however, these two factors can confound our understanding of nature of L<sub>2</sub> phonological acquisition, because in certain instances they seem to be odd. If similar/different considerations offer adequate explanation of the order of acquisition, dissimilar phenomena should be acquired more easily than similar ones. Notwithstanding the odds, however, markedness theory predicts that marked phenomena are more difficult to acquire than un-marked ones.

Despite the criticisms leveled against CA, it is still a useful mode of investigation in the SLA field. The following CA-based researches attest to this fact. Eka (1979) carried out a research based on a contrastive comparison of the segmental and the non-segmental features in Efik and English. His findings are summed up in the following expressions: "The nature of Efik sound system exercises considerable influence on the acquisition and use of the English and sound system by the Efik speaker users of English" (Eka, 1979:136).

Finally, Udoudom (1997) embarked on a contrastive study of English and Ibibio morphological systems. The study compares the derivational and inflectional processes of the two languages and the researcher concludes that Ibibio morphology is largely agglutinating: English on the hand appears to be inflectional. English polymorphemic words appear to be composed of morphemes which fuse different meanings and functions together. This has affected the informants negatively, (Udoudom, 1997:140).

It is from the satisfactions registered from the CA-based investigations reviewed above that the CA mode still provides a veritable framework for research within the SLA field. Udegbunam (2004), Uzoigwe (2011) aver that they are called tools in Applied Linguistics because of the solutions they proffer to the problems encountered in the teaching and learning of a target language. The two authors note that contrastive and error analyses are tools developed by the structural grammarians for identifying problems encountered when learning the target language by the second language (L2) learner.

### **Determiner Phrases in English Language**

The word, determiner, according to Ndimele (1999:105): "Is a cover term for Articles (e.g. a, an, the), Demonstrators (e.g. this, that, these, those), Possessives (e.g. my, our, their, his, your), Quantifiers (e.g. some, every, any, much, few, a few, several) and Numerals (e.g. one, two, three, first, second, third)". He Qualifiers by stating that:

"these are adjectives that give more information about a particular noun or it attributes a feature or characteristic to such a noun, all of which function as modifiers to the nominal group in a sentence" (Uzoigwe, 2011).

Again, Uzoigwe citing Wikipedia (2011) says that a modifier is determiner this way: A modifier is as well known as a determiner that is an optional element in a phrase structure.... The modifier removed may not necessarily affect the grammaticality of the construction. The modifiers are semantically said to describe more accurately the meaning of another element. Uzoigwe, however notes that languages could have the pre-modifier where the modifier is placed before the head and a post modifier where the modifier is after the head. According to the author,

The English language is a good example of pre-modifier situation that is informed by X-bar syntax as "X" which notes that determiners come before the head word. The Igbo language is an example of a post modifier situation where the complements follow the head word "X", Uzoigwe (2011).

From the above explications, it is worth mentioning here, that Contrastive Analysis, in spite of queries by some scholars, still provides a good basis for identifying structural differences as well as providing a clue into what the 12 learner will need to know about the second language.

### **The Determiner Phrases in Anaang and English Languages**

In this section, we compare the structures of the two languages, and English, to see if they are similar or different in form so as to predict the possible needs of the learners.

#### **The Articles**

The word *a* or *an* in English language called the indefinite article rather functions as a marker of some kind for a count noun post modified by it in Annang. For instance, the following words in have the following equivalent translations in English respectively: *ufan keed*, "a friend or one friend", *Enan itok keed*, "an horse", *Enan ukwak keed*, "a bicycle", *ideen keed "man"*, *ufok Agwed keed* "a school". It should also be noted here that in Anaang too, the indefinite article also functions as a numerical post modifying count nouns. On the other hand, the definite article "the" meaning *ade* in Anaang, also functions as the demonstrative, "that" to mark both singular and the plural count nouns used in demonstrative expressions. For instance, *ufan ade*, "that friend", *enañ ukwak ade*, "that bicycle", or *Mme ufan ade*, "those friends", which can also be contracted to appear as one word by means of vowel /e/ deletion, as in *Mm ufan*, "those friends". The following sentences further demonstrate the distributional equivalence that are possible in the two languages.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. Ette ami ama amia <i>agwo keed</i>          | 1. My father has beaten a <i>person</i>       |
| 2. Ette ami ama amia <i>agwo ade</i>           | 2. My father has beaten that <i>person</i>    |
| 3. Okon akedep <i>enan itok keed</i> mkpon.    | 3. Okon bought <i>an horse</i> yesterday      |
| 4. Ajid imaikom <i>mm'ufan ade</i> ke itie ako | 4. We greeted <i>those friends</i> over there |

As it is shown above, there is no equivalence of English indefinite article *a*, *an* in Anaang language sentences. The only article available in Anaang is the specific or definite article, the which serves as a pre-modifier to the nominal group in the two languages under comparison. This is perhaps, what accounts for the absence of indefinite article in most sentences constructed by the Anaang bilinguals in a second language situation.

#### **Demonstratives**

Demonstratives such as "this, that, these, and those" are words that describe the names of persons or things in relation to the distance of a person or thing from where speaker is. It can as well particularize things. A particularizer is a determiner that focuses and specifies an individual, thing or place. These invariably point to the fact that demonstratives perform the function of particularizing or 'definitizing their noun (Uzoigwe, 2011:73-83). In Anaang, demonstratives operate at distributional equivalence with those of its English language counterpart. For instance, "this, that, these, and those".

- |  |                                     |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 5a. Ufok ami <i>adeemi</i>               | 5b. <i>This</i> is my house         |
| 6a. Ammuto ami <i>ade ako</i> .          | 6b. <i>That</i> is my motorcar      |
| 7a. Nto ami <i>edengheemi</i> .          | 7b. <i>These</i> are my children    |
| 8a. Nto ufok ngwed edaka ko edenghe ila. | 8b. <i>Those</i> students are mine. |

From the above examples, it is shown that the English demonstrative pre-modifies the persons, things and the distances to the right while the Anaang demonstrative post-modifies their N-head to the left. But in spite of this syntactic variation, intelligibility and cation are not jeopardized.

### Numerals

In Anaang just like in any other languages in juxtaposition with English, there are ways of accounting for ordinal and cardinal numbers. From the forms below, we will observe and analyse the similarities and differences in the way numbers are counted and how they complement their heads as compared to its English counterpart.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 9. <i>Iban iba</i> ema eli                    | 9b. ( <i>women two came</i> ) <i>two women came</i>          |
| 10a. <i>Agwoden keed</i> ama li umi.          | 10b. ( <i>Man one came here</i> ) <i>One man come here..</i> |
| 11a. <i>Mbon ckon ekegwod</i> <i>agwo ita</i> | 11b. <i>Soldiers killed three person</i>                     |

The asterisks are a pointer to the non-conformity to the structure of the determiner phrase structure in the language under consideration (Uzoigwe, 2011).

### Possessives (Genitives)

These are members of the closed class system generally referred to as the pronoun. It must be mentioned here that possessives are subdivided into Possessive pronouns; e.g. mine, yours, ours, his, hers, its, theirs and Possessive adjectives; e.g. my, your, our, his, her, its, their, normally positioned before a noun which it qualifies. Genitives are possessive adjectives that serve as determiners. In Anaang and English respectively, some of these genitives include: *la* (*akemmi*) "mine", *ikwuo ikwuo*, (*akefo*), "yours" (singular), *akeanvin* "yours" (plural), *akemo* "his/hers/its", *ake ammo*, "theirs" as in the examples below:

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 12a. <i>Ufok ako ade ila</i> ( <i>akemmi</i> ).   | 12b. That house is <i>mine</i> .           |
| 13a. <i>Ngwed ade ade ikwuo</i> ( <i>akeafo</i> ) | 13b. The books are <i>yours</i> (singular) |
| 14a. <i>Ngwed ade ade akeamin</i>                 | 14b. The books are <i>yours</i> (plural)   |
| 15a. <i>Ake mo</i> abono ke ufok                  | 15b. <i>His/hers/its</i> are in the house  |
| 16a. <i>Akpohoom ade ake ammo</i>                 | 16b. This money is <i>theirs</i>           |

Examples 12-16 indicate that possessive pronoun exists in the two languages at a distributional equivalence, and that each structural element projects an arrangement where the determiners (possessive markers), *ake* surround the various heads "mmi, afo, anyin, mo, ammo": with the possessive markers in the structure coming before the heads in Anaang Determiner Phrase pattern (DP).

The English language counterpart maintains its structure in a post-posed (post-modifying) position, except where the cardinal cases such as *akpa*, "first" *udian*, "second" and *ayoko ita*, "third", respectively, are to be accounted for.

The analyses above prove that there are areas of differences and similarities in the English and Anaang languages. For instance, demonstratives take up the position after the head word. Ordinal numbers and cardinal numbers do same except for the ordinal number 'akpa'. In general, Anaang has its modifiers at the left side of the head word, while English has its



modifiers placed before I Areas of similarities are noted in such forms as cardinal number a "first", quantifier, keed Tone" and the demonstrative, anyemom, "this" structured the way the English determiner phrases are structured and are grammatically acceptable in the Menge (solgwe, 2011) A careful look at the functions of determiners in the two languages shows that the English language samples conformed to those of the Anang language, therefore, this similarity in the case of the Anang and English modifiers will make it easy for the learning of the language by the Anang bilingual in a second language situation.

### **Quantifiers**

This determiner phrase element called Quantifier in Anang is of fixed size, unlike those of its English counterpart which are many. But it is possible to generate infinite structures from the existing ones at equal ranks and scales with those of the English language. For instance:

- 17a .Usoho ntok iban esuk efehe ekana
- 17b. Some young girls are running around
- 18a. Akpaimo agwo ana ekpe ataksi ammo.
- 18b Everyone has to pay his tax.
- 19b. Ama aba agwo se iki tiime ammitin ade?
- 19a Was any person absent at from the meeting?
- 20a. Ugwak ngwoon ammode ke ekamba akpor ade.
- 20b Much water is in the big rubber container.
- 21a. Etok ibad agwo eke ka itie ade.
- 21b. Few people were at that place.
- 22a. Atai etok ibad-ibad agwo eke ka ucholo ade mkpong.
- 22b A few people attended the ceremony yesterday.
- 23a Erok agwo ifan ekeri-gwede ulomo ade usenide.
- 23b. Several people missed the exams that day

It is worth mentioning here, that the Standard British English (SBE) regards the word "Several" to mean "more than two but not very many", whereas, Standard Nigerian English treats this determiner pronoun as referring to "many". It is of interest also to observe that in the same way the quantifier element, "several" is treated in both Englishes (British and Nigerian); the combinatorial possibilities in Anang language also accommodate it in its inventory. Uzoigwe (2011) is in the same stance concerning the Igbo determiner phrases when he opines that:

In Igbo, the quantifiers agree with the structure of the English language where the modifiers are positioned before the nouns. This shows that there could be exceptions to rules aiding the feature of flexibility and creativity in languages.

This phenomenon is also possible in Anang language. Perhaps, this similarity experienced in the determiner phrases of the two languages (Anang and Igbo) is accounted for by the fact the two languages, Igbo and Anang come from the same language family or stock (Lower Niger-Congo languages family) while their core features in this regard are in line with Universal Grammar Principles.

### **Qualifiers**

These are adjectives that give more information about a particular noun or it attributes a feature or characteristic to such a noun (Uzoigwe, 2011). In Anang, for instance, these

adjective also function to provide quality-based information the nouns they precede. The following examples below are for further justification of this postulation

24a Okon ado atai ujai agwonwaan

24b Okon marries a very beag woman

25a Ette ami akedep adaidad ammutu

25b My father bought a red motor car

26a Illibkeedette ami abop agwa-agwa ufok anyon adaha ko

26b My paternal uncle builds that green storey building over there

### **Summary of Findings and Conclusion**

So far, this paper has thematically occupied itself with the determiner phrases which are syntactically operational in Anaang and English languages. It has been shown that linguistic element generally referred to as the determiner operates as a cover term for articles, possessives, demonstrators, numerals, quantifiers and qualifiers in both languages under comparison. The paper notes that determiners generally function to define, modify, give qualities, limits additional information to some, part or the whole through specification or particularizing the nouns they deal with either to their right in the English or to their left in the Anaang syntactically in both languages. In other words, their structural positions in the two languages differ considerably judging from the X bar syntax model which defines languages as either left branching or right branching because of the placement of the Determiners modifying and qualifying the head of the phrase (Uzoigwe, 2011).

The Anaang language is however considered as a right branching language, which has its determiners occurring to the left of the head, leaving the head at the right. This means that the determiner phrase in Anaang is post-posed. Its complements come before the noun without exceptions to an aspect of number, demonstrative and some quantifiers. English language on the other hand operates the pre-posed structure for its determiner phrase structure which has its complements coming before the head word. These differences are what inform the learning difficulties of the L2 learner and should be given due attention by the L2 teacher.

In conclusion, the L2 teacher can draw up a course plan to see to it that these differences are efficiently handled in the bid to making the L2 learner proficient in both the source and target languages (Uzoigwe). Finally, the opinion of the researcher of this work is in agreement with the positions established by (Uzoigwe, 2011) with respect to Igbo language, a sister language to the Anaang, sharing a common language stock, even though with little or no mutual intelligibility, there is need for more work to be done on contrasting the forms of Anaang and English in such areas as semantics and syntax. This will go a long way to broaden horizon on the areas of peculiarities and similarities in their structures (Uzoigwe, 2011).

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