CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION
1.1 The English Language in Ngeria

English language has an official status in Nigeria; it is the language of politics, education, government, business and social interactions. This status of English in Nigeria is expressed in section 5.2 of the 1999 Nigeria Constitution.

Many scholars have made tremendous contributions in their attempt to explore the position of English language in Africa and Nigeria in particular, as an official language base on historical antecedents. On their part, Akindele and Adegbite (1999, p.85) have argued that:

> Before the incursion of the Europeans into various African states, a kaleidoscopic linguistic diversity was already in existence … Many of the freed slaves had received formal education from abroad. Those among them who had Christian orientation proved useful as translators or interpreters in Christian Evangelization during the early missionary period… some indigenes were able to learn the language and later became catechists and teachers in the mission school. Later the British colonized Nigeria and used their language (English) for administration.

Because of the above situation, English became prominent in the education system and was used for official purposes. It then became an elitist symbol, used by a few privileged Nigerians who were civil servants and who served as models for no less enthusiastic indigenes who sought after formal education.

It has been established that English, German, Dutch, Norwegian and even Danish belong to the Germanic group of languages as they are derived from the same original tongue. All of these tongues "were developed from a primitive language spoken in prehistoric times by the early Germanic tribes" (Pink and Thomas, p.134). There is need to mention that

before the present day English language, there existed the old English (i.e the language spoken in England before the Norman Conquest), which differed immensely (in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) from the present English language. One can therefore understand why a passage of English written in the time of King Alfred is unintelligible to a modern reader since old English, like Latin Greek, had a complicated system of inflections, and had different forms according to their grammatical relationship. A close look at the grammar of the English language will reveal that most of the old English inflections have disappeared and the grammatical machinery has been greatly simplified. Considering its vocabulary, significant additions to vocabulary have been made through the influence of invaders (Danes and Normans) and through borrowing form literary sources –especially Latin and Greek. The following chart shows English within the Indo-European language family:
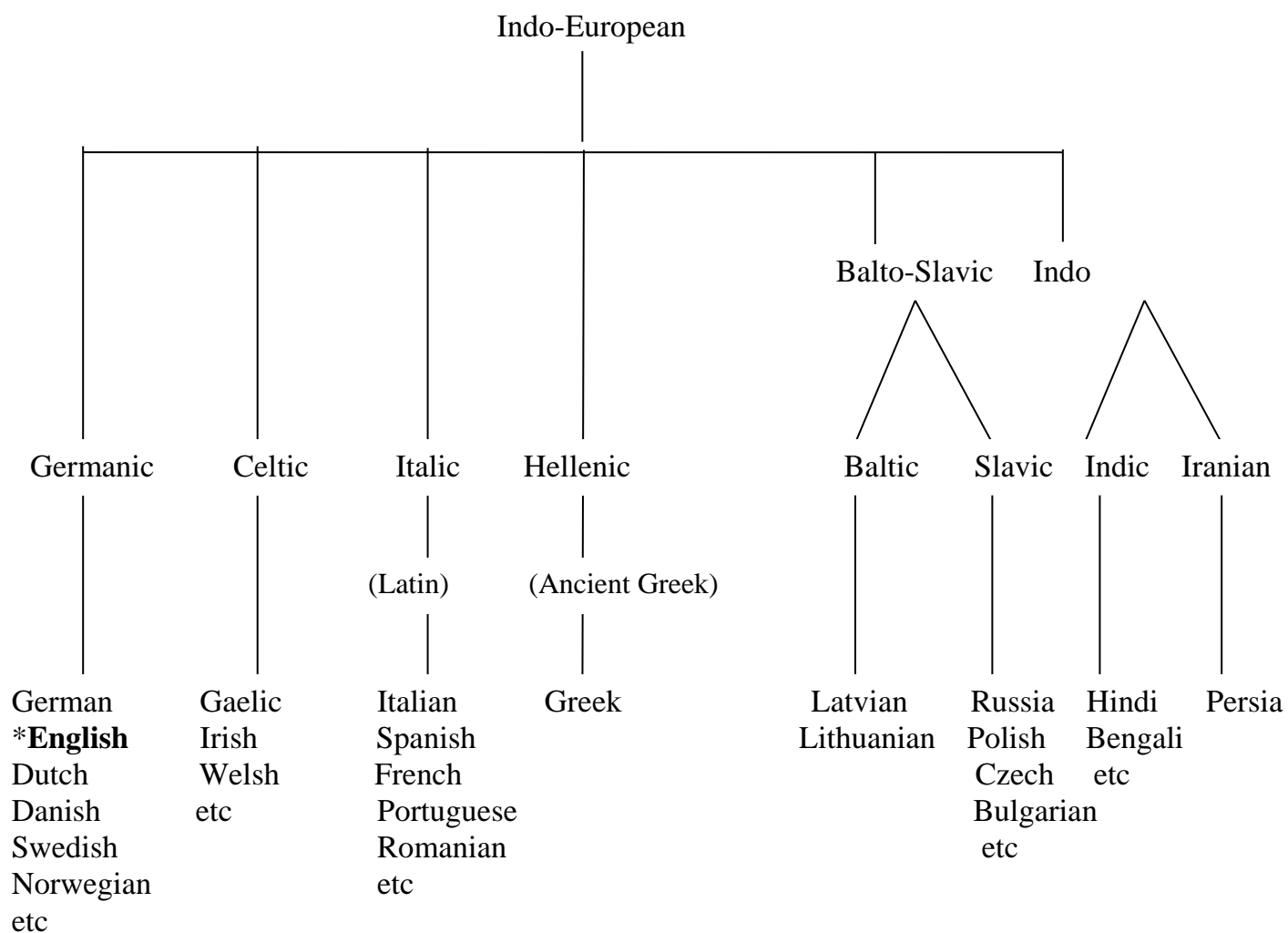
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                              Indo-European
                                    |
        ┌────────────┬─────────────┬──────────────┬──────────────────────┐
        |            |             |              |          Balto-Slavic   Indo
        |            |             |              |              /\          /\
        |            |             |              |             /  \        /  \
    Germanic      Celtic        Italic        Hellenic      Baltic  Slavic Indic Iranian
        |            |             |              |             |       |     |      |
        |            |          (Latin)     (Ancient Greek)     |       |     |      |
        |            |             |              |             |       |     |      |
    German        Gaelic        Italian        Greek        Latvian  Russia Hindi  Persia
    *English      Irish         Spanish                     Lithuanian Polish Bengali
    Dutch         Welsh         French                                 Czech   etc
    Danish         etc          Portuguese                             Bulgarian
    Swedish                     Romanian                                 etc
    Norwegian                     etc
    etc
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FIG 1: English within the Indo-European Language family
Source: Yule (1996, p.214)

1.2 **Boki and the Bokyi language**

The Boki people are said to have migrated from western Cameroun at about the 17th century. The migration took place at different times and at different routes, which may be responsible for the dialectal groupings in the community. They live in the forest area of the northern part of Cross River State of Nigeria. It shares boundaries, in the north and north-west, with Obudu and Ogoja respectively, in the south with Ikom, and in the east with the United Republic of Cameroun. Boki forms the largest contiguous language unit in the north-central district of Cross River state and occupies the largest geographical area of approximately three thousand square miles. The population from the 2006 census figures is estimated at 1.6 million (Gregor, 2006, p.212).

The Major languages spoken in Boki are Bokyi (as mother tongue) and English (as L2 or foreign language). It may be helpful at this point to draw a distinction between the words Boki and Bokyi respectively. Whereas Boki refers to the people and the community as a whole, Bokyi refers to the language spoken by the Boki people. A Boki man, therefore, could be said to speak Bokyi language. According to Bendo-Samuel (1989,p.228), "Bokyi is classified as one of the languages under the Bendi language family of the Benue –Congo phylum". Before now, Hoffman (1989, p.307) had categorized Bokyi under "Cross River 1". Bendo-Samuel (supra) had succeeded in identifying Bendi sub-family (formerly Cross River 1) as distinct from Upper Cross. With this, it becomes easy to identify Bokyi as a member of the Bendi group of languages which is itself a division of the Benue-Congo sub-family which has the Niger Congo family at its apex (Essien, 1972). Figure 2 (below) shows Bokyi within the Niger-Congo language family. As can be seen from figure2, the Bendi language family is a sub-family of the Benue-Congo. Bendi is seen as "…extreme eastern linguistic cluster of the Bantu sub-group of the nigritic stock" (Talbot, 1994, p.206) is "an admixture of Bendi and other languages it came in contact through trade and social interactions".

Niger Kordofanian

Benue Congo

Cross River

Delta Cross   Upper Cross   Bendi

Lower   Central   *Bokyi   Bette   Mbube   Ukpe   Bekwara   Buba
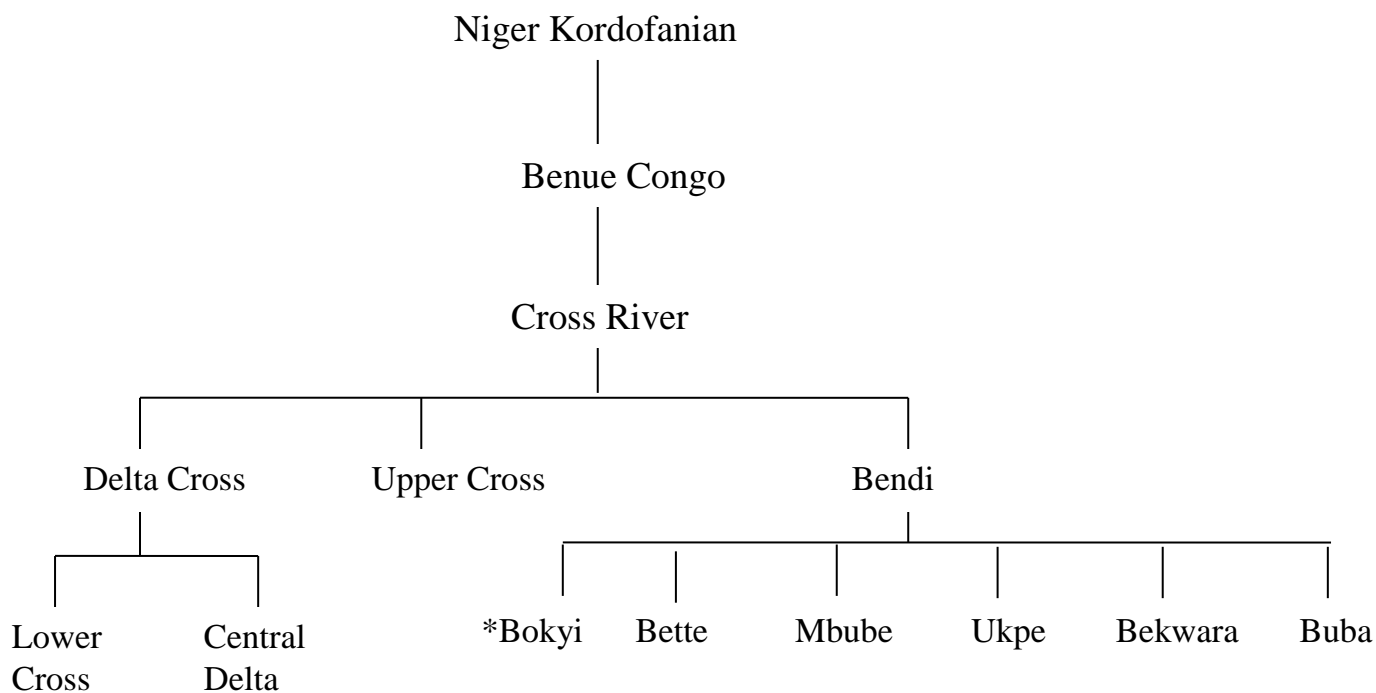Cross   Delta

FIG 2: A genetic relationship of the Niger Kordofanian language family showing Bokyi.
Source: Adapted from Talbot, (1994, p.205), Bendo-Samuel (1989, p.126).

A study of Bokyi lexical items carried out in 1967 by Bruns, P.C. at the University of California, Los Angeles, shows that Bokyi is historically related to a nearby languages of Bekwara , Otugwang, East Mbube and Ukpe, which are also sub-groups of the larger Bendi language family (Bruns, 1975). But, very significantly, the present divergence in these languages in terms of mutual intelligibility makes them completely separate. This difference, according to Tawo (1977, p.54), "is the result of cultural diffusionism". The Bendi languages remain almost completely unstudied, apart from Stanfford's (1967) *Bekwara grammar; An introduction to the study of the Bokyi language, (Tawo, 1977), Bypang-byiraa mbyi Bokyi* (A dictionary of the Bokyi language) (Bruns, 1975), long essays on Bete (Bendo-Samuel, 1989). This study, which aims at doing a contrastive analysis of the morphological processes of English and Bokyi, is therefore a valuable asset not only to scholarship on English/Bokyi but also to scholars interested in the Bendi language family and the Benue –Congo larger family.

The Bokyi language has remained almost incompletely unexplored. Apart from Tawo's (1977) *Introduction to the study of the Bokyi language,* Bruns' (1975) *Dictionary of the Bokyi language* (Byipang –Byiraa mbyi Bokyi), Oshita's (2004) *Essays on the Boki nation and* Bendo-Samuel's (1989) *The Niger-Congo languages,* there is a dearth of literature on Bokyi.

According to Bendo-Samuel (1989, p.201) "Bokyi is classified as one of the languages under the Bendi group of languages which is itself a division of the Benue –Congo sub-family under the umbrella of the Niger-Congo family of languages". Essien (1972, p.128) also agrees with the classification of Bendo-Samuel "which places Bokyi under languages that form words through the process of agglutination, affixation, reduplication and tonality". Faraclas (1989, p.80) points out that "nouns in Bendi languages (Bokyi being one) show class marking and gender patterning more less traceable to proto-Benue-Congo" (p.80). The source goes on to stress that full or complete concord between nouns and morphemes associated with them in a given structure (adjectives, demonstratives, relativers etc.) as hypothesized for proto-Benue-Congo is retained in Bendi languages, except for noun-numeral concord, which is restricted, fossilized or completely lost in most cases.

In Oshita (2004), Tawo (1977) maintains that Bokyi is a tone language. According to him, a single word could give different meanings depending on the pitch sound applied. For example, the word 'Dibe' in Bokyi could mean 'shoe' or 'kola nut' depending on the pitch sound applied. Again the Bokyi word could 'Be' could mean 'we, marry o come', depending, also on the tone applied. Because of this, therefore, tone marks are very vital in the Bokyi language so as to avoid confusion in the use of word.

In his *Introduction to the Bokyi language,* Tawo (1977) points out that the Bokyi language expresses verbs only in the active form. This, according to him, accounts for their inability to translate the expression 'the goat was killed by Out' into Bokyi because of the

passive verb 'was killed'. He also observes that the Bokyi syntactic structure is different from that of English. For instance, the Bokyi expression 'Yi mu ochi ebong?' is syntactically acceptable in Bokyi language setting, and by translation it means 'What is he doing?'. But when transliterated it will assume the following order: "He is doing what?"Again, the Bokyi expression 'Jo me' (listen to me) if transliterated would be 'listen me', which by English standard, is unacceptable.

In a comparative study of the sound systems of English and Bokyi, Bisong (1994) asserts that the unavailability of some English consonant such as /θ/, /∂/ and /3/ in Bokyi gives room for the Bokyi speakers of English to replace these sounds with what obtains in Bokyi. Hence, the word 'thin' is usually realized as /tin/ instead of /θin/, 'then' as /den/ instead of /∂en/ and 'leisure' as /leso/ instead of /le3∂(r)/.

Also, it is observed that vowel sounds such as /i:/, /æ/, /∂/, /ɔ/, /^/, /u/ and /3:/ are lacking in Bokyi. Because of this differences a Bokyi speaker of English faces the problem of replacing the above sounds with what obtains in Bokyi. According to the data collected by Bisong (supra), the following words are often realized thus:

'peep' realized as /pip/ instead of /pi:p/
'pat' realized as /pat/ instead of /pæt/
'Lord' realized as /lɔd/ instead of /lɔ:d/
'Cut' realized as /kɔt/ instead of /k^t/
'Bird' realized as /bed/ instead of /b3:d)

The above errors according to the source may have resulted from the unavailability of some English vowel sounds such as as /i:/, /æ/, /∂/, /ɔ/, /^/, /u/ and /3:/ in the Bokyi sound system. Though Bisong's study was the sound system of English and Bokyi, thus this study on word formation will find it useful when discussing aspects of phonologically conditioned morphemes.

On the whole, the different works reviewed in this study are quite relevant and useful. The works provide relevant insights into the concept of morphology, contrastive analysis (CA), contrastive studies in English and other languages, and the morphology of English and Bokyi respectively. Despite the relevance of the insights from the works of the review, none of these works provided insights into the contrastive study of the morphological processes of English and Bokyi specifically. Literature on Bokyi language is very scanty as the language had remained almost completely unstudied. As evident from the literature review, there has been no work done on the morphological system of Bokyi. This study fills the gap.

Since Bokyi and English are naturally distinct, speakers of both languages must expect difficulties in an attempt to use either of the languages as a second language, especially as the mother tongue is generally said to have pervasive influence on the second language. The Bokyi speakers of English, as may be the case with other English as a second language, especially as the mother tongue is generally said to have pervasive influence on the second language. The Bokyi speakers of English, as may be the case with other English as a second language users/speakers, construct sentences that show mother tongue interference at all levels of grammar.

It has generally been observed by quite a number of linguists that morphological difficulties result from the distinctive word formation processes of different languages. For instance, Baur (1997, p.121) asserts that:

> There is at the moment no single 'theory of word formation' nor even agreement on the kind of data that is relevant for the conclusion of such a theory. Researchers should therefore apply any theory that will fulfill their objectives maximally.

Consequently, word formation approach is unique and peculiar to the individual language. In the English language, for instance, word formation in most cases results in a change in the phonetic /∂/ in the word 'comfort' /k∧mf∂t/ when the derivational morpheme '-able' is added to it to become 'comfortable' /k∧mft∂bl/, as well as a situation where the phoneme /∂/ in the word 'petrol' /petr∂l/ changes to /∂u/ in 'petroleum' / petr∂uliem/. Again, in English language, certain words often admit 'zero' plural formation because they are in base form and they are irreducible. For instance, the words 'sheep' and 'deer' retain their morphological shapes in both their singular and plural forms. Also, in English language, we have a process whereby a item changes its word-class in context without the addition of an affix (conversion). For example, the word 'release' (as 'They releases him') corresponds to a noun release (as in 'They ordered his release'), and this relationship may be seen as parallel to that between the verb 'acquit' and the noun 'acquittal'. These processes of word formation in English may be alien to a Bokyi learner-user of English as a second language, and so difficulties abound.

Whereas plural form (in English) is realized by adding the plural morpheme '-s' to the singular form of a word or by means of zero plural formation as enunciated above, in Bokyi the plural form is realized by adding either of the prefixes 'ba-', 'bu-', or 'bi-' to the singular word, depending on which sound begins the word, or by replacing the first syllable of the singular word with either of the above prefixes, depending on the sound(s) of the syllable that is to be replaced.

Importantly too, Bokyi is a tone language, that is, distinctions in the pitch of a single syllable may realize completely different words or different grammatical functions of a word or of a prefix or suffix. For example: the Bokyi word 'be' has three different meanings depending on the tone applied:

Bɛ̌ (we) low tone,

Bɛ́ (marry) high tone,

Bɛ̂ (come) falling tone

The peculiarities of English and Bokyi morphological processes appear to pose problems for the Bokyi/English bilinguals in the area of English word formation. This study therefore provides a contrastive analysis of the morphological processes of the two languages with a view to discovering areas of similarities and differences so as to be able to find dependable solutions to some of the problems the Boki learners of English encounter in the area of word formation.

The aim of comparing two languages is to identify the differences and similarities in their linguistic features. It is an established linguistic fact that no two languages are exactly the same even if the languages belong to the same language phylum (Berth, 2002; Udofot, 2005). This study is intended to examine, among others, the Bokyi and English morphological systems ans also how the differences/similarities influence the Bokyi learners/users of English. According to Tawo (1977) and Bruns (1975) "there are some similarities and differences between English and Bokyi" (Tawo, 1977, p.65).

This study, therefore, may be the first descriptive study of Bokyi morphological system. It may also serve as a valuable reference point to linguists, researchers, students and curriculum developers. This agrees with the recommendation of Awoniyi (2003, p.131) that "there is need to detailed contrastive studies of major languages of Nigeria and English so as to obtain relevant materials for writing books for teachers' guidance….". Awoniyi's assertion (above) is in tandem with Panther (2000, p.221) who asserts that: "the most effective materials are those that are based on scientific description of the language to be learnt, carefully juxtaposed with parallel description of the language of the learner". Therefore, this

study is of benefit not only to linguists and researchers, but also students, curriculum developers, book writers and the general population of Bokyi /English bilinguals.

1.3 Morphological concepts

(i) **Morphology**: This refers to the branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words; primarily through the use of the morpheme construct. Unlike syntax which deals with the rules governing the combination of words in sentences, morphology deals with rules which guide the formation of word. It is generally divided into two fields: the study of inflections (inflectional morphology), and of word formation (lexical or derivational morphology) (Crystal, 1994).

(ii) **Morpheme**: A morpheme is the smallest or minimal grammatical unit that carries meaning in any language. This may be word root (as the English cran-, in cranberry) or individual words (in English, bird, ask, charm); word ending (as the English –s for plural: birds, -ed for past tense: asked; -ing for present participle: charming); prefixes and suffixes (for example, English, pre-, as in preadmission, or –ness, in openness); and even internal alterations (as in the case of irregular verbs) indicating such grammatical categories as tense (English sing –sang), number (English mouse –mice), or case (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973). A word consisting of a single (free) morpheme is a monormorphemic word and its opposite is polymorphemic.

(iii) **Syllable**: A syllable is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound and smaller than a word. A word may be syllabized as in ne-ver-the-less, and a good dictionary will indicate where these syllabic divisions occur in writing, thus providing information about how a word may be hyphenated. Syllabification is the term which refers to the division of a word into syllables. A word with one syllable is termed monosyllabic while a word with more than one syllable is termed polysyllabic (Panther, 2000).

(iv) **Mother tongue**: This refers to an individual's sequentially first language of contact. It may not necessarily be the language of his parents, though in many cases it is. While the mother tongue is traditionally labeled L1 the sequencially second language of an individual is usually labeled L2 (Bamgbose, 1996).

(v) **Lingua franca**: This is a team for a n auxiliary language used to enable routine communications to take place between groups of people who speak different native languages. English is the world's most common lingua franca, followed by French; but other languages are also widely used. In East Africa, for example, Swhili is the lingua franca; in many parts of West Africa Hausa is used (Trudgill, 1994).

(vi) **Lexical and grammatical morphemes**: Lexical morphemes are those morphemes used for the construction of new words in a language, such as in compound words (e.g blackbird), and affixes such as –ing, -ion. Grammatical morphemes, on the other hand, are morphemes used to express grammatical relationships between a word and its context, such as its plurality or past tense. They may be but inflectional endings, e.g plural marker (-s), possessive marker (-'s'), verb forms that result from agreement, tense, etc. Grammatical morphemes which are separate words are called (inter alai) function words (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973).

(vii) **Derivation**: This refers to a process of adding a morpheme which changes the grammatical class of the morpheme or word to which it is added or attached (as in suffixation, e.g. –tion, iss a noun –forming derivational suffix); they also usually occur closer to the root morpheme than to inflections, e.g. Nation-al-ise +ing/-s/-d/ (Robins, 1990). Derivational morphology, according to Udofot (1999), "is a word formation process whereby affixes are added to the root or base of words to produce other words of similar or different classes" (p.47). In other words, derivational process of word formation forms new words by:

a) Changing the meaning of the base to which they are added as for instance in the examples clean/unclean (all adjectives), but one having meaning which is opposite to the other.

b) Changing the grammatical class of the base as for instance the addition of '-ly' to 'slow' forms another word 'slowly', therefore changing the word 'slow' from an adjective to adverb. It is a rule in English that adverbs be formed by adding '-ly' morpheme to the base of an adjective.

(viii)   **Inflection**: This refers to a process of adding a morpheme (an affix) that does not change the word class of the roots to which an inflectional morpheme is added. In other words, inflectional affixes signal grammatical relationship, such as plural, past tense and possession, and do not change the grammatical class of the stem to which they are attached; that is, the words constitute a single paradigms e.g. walk, walks, walked. A word is said to 'inflect' for past tense, plural, etc. In traditional (pre-linguistic) grammatical studies, the term 'accidence' was used in this sentence (Mathew, 1979; Robins, 1980; Radford, 1980).

(ix)   **Allomorphs**: These are variant forms of a particular morpheme, and which are accounted for morphologically. For example, the plural morphemes '-s' takes various forms such as /s/ in 'tables', /z/ in 'boys' and /z/ in 'buses'. All these allomorphs of the plural morpheme '-s'. Also, the morphs /t/, /d/ and /id/ constitute allomorphs of the past time morpheme (Eka, 1994).

(x)   **Clitics**: This refers to a form which resembles a word, but which cannot stands on its own as a normal utterance, being structurally dependent upon a neighboring word in a construction. (The term originates from the Greek word for 'learning'). Examples are the contracted forms of be, such as I'm and he's. A form like *the* cannot stands on its own in normal utterance, but it would be called a word nonetheless by native speakers. Such clitic

words ('clitic') can be classified into proclitics i.e they depend upon a proceeding word, and enclitics (Crystal, 1994)

(xi)   **Tone**: This refers to the distinctive pitch level of syllable/word. In many languages (mostly the Niger-Congo languages), the tone carried by word is an essential feature of the meaning of that word (lexical tone) e.g. in Beijing Mandarin Chinese the word *ma* when pronounced in a level tone means *mother*, and in a falling –rising tone means 'horse'. In Yoruba, the word 'ogun' has at least nine different meanings depending on the pitch it is pronounced. These meanings, are 'war', 'medicine', 'he/she stabbed', 'twenty', 'inheritance', 'long', 'he/she climbed', 'sweet', and a prefix for certain deities. Such where word meanings or grammatical categories (such as tense) are dependent on pitch level are known as tone languages. Many languages of South-East Asia and Africa are tone languages, illustrating several types of tonal organization.

CHAPTER TWO

STUDIES IN WORD FORMATION

Enquiry into the problem of second language learning and teaching has provided extensive literature on word formation and related studies, especially where English operates as the target language. Since this study is on the morphology of English and Bokyi with a view to discovering areas of similarities/differences and possible difficulties/facilitation, among others, for pedagogical purposes, it is vital to critically examine some empirical studies on word formation and language learning.

2.1 Morphological characteristic of specific languages within the Benue-Congo language phylum

It recent times, much research has been done on comparative studies of certain aspects of most languages. Researchers of this nature have given the study languages a boost because, as Baur (1993, p.236) put it, "when two languages are juxtaposed and the differences and similarities identified, the researchers and learners of the languages stand to benefit from the findings.

It is a study carried out by Olear (1993, p.342) on the intonation, accent, stress and tone pattern of Cross River languages, it was discovered that "all Cross River languages have systems of contrastive tone that co-occur and interact with international systems such as downdrift, register raising, boundary –related (democrative), pitch level modification, etc. Most have two levels of contrastive tone and phonemic downstepped high tones are common throughout the sub-branch. Faraclass (1998, p.232) maintains that:

> Full or complete concord between nouns and morphemes associated
> with them in a given structure (adjectives, demonstratives, relativizers
> etc.) as hypothesized for the proto -Benue-Congo is retained in most
> upper Cross, Bendi and Central Delta languages, except for noun-

numeral concord, which is restricted, fossilized or completely lost in most cases.

In Lower Cross and Ogoni, only subjects noun-verb concord normally survives, except in Oro where limited noun-adjective concord persists. In Efik, some otherwise prefix-less nouns 'regain' their prefixes when modified by certain adjectives (eg. But 'shame' versus kámbá ó bùt `great shame'), (Corder,1990). The above suggests that concord is processed more like a prosody over noun phrases than through an noun-based prefix-coping system.

It is related study by Dermuth (1989, p.124), it is stressed that while nouns in most Upper Cross and Bendi languages show class marking and gender patterning more or less traceable to proto-Benue –Congo. "nouns referring to non-human entities are collapsed into a single genderless lexical item in the Central Delta languages". In lower Cross, Ogoni, and to a lesser extent in Central Delta, proto-Benue-Congo noun class-gender classifications is essentially lost through the assimilation of prefix vowel quality to that of root vowels, the loss of CV-prefixes, the proliferation of the N-prefix, as well as through wholesale prefix loss. It holds therefore, that a pluralizing definite suffix /-ZA/ (which contrasts with singular definite /-A/ occurs with Ogbia nouns that have lost gender-type singular –plural prefix markings. In Oro a pre-nominal pluralizer /i-ma/ exists.

On the verbal morphology, Willaimson (2004, p. 231) stresses as follows:

> Verbs in Cross River languages are inflected primarily, via a system prefixes and (perhaps more rarely) suffixes. Focus-related Lower Cross involves the lowering of reduplicated vowels, rather than the vowel raising that is the typical Niger Congo patterns. …..

As in Benue-Congo, verb root in the Cross River languages fall into two (or three?) classes, depending on the pitch patterns normally associated with them. Obolo has a high tone (or + accent) class, exemplified by gé 'write', and a low-tone (or accent) class exemplified by fùk 'read' (Marchese, 1998).

Messeum (1989, p.134) carried out an investigation on the morphological characteristics of the Bantu language family and came out with measurable findings. According to him, the Bantu verb typically consists of a root or base, which he defines as "consisting of a radical plus additionally referred to as expansions and /or suffixes". He went on to stress that the distinction between these seems to rest on the degree to which an attachment to a radical is productive: expansions appear to be either ad hoc additions or frozen suffixes that no longer play either a lexical or syntacto –semantic role. Suffixes, on the other hand, change the lexical category of the verb root.

In another study by Sterner (1989), it is revealed that Bantu verbs are interesting in the number of affixes that are prefixed to the stem to mark negation, tense/aspects, and other roles, subject and object agreement and relative prominalization.

In a similar study, Given (1990, p.98) holds that:

> Bantu nouns normally consist of a prefix followed by a noun stem. Few languages have suffixes, and even fewer have both prefixes and suffixes. Bantu languages also divide their noun universe into genders (but not following sex distinctions as found in Indo-European languages) usually referred to as classes and numbered in singular/plural pairs, beginning with $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$ and so on. These genders can normally be identified by the shape of the affixes, and if not, then by the grammatical concord they govern.

Given (above) goes on to stress that the Bantu system has three type of gender namely; inherent, derived and propositional (or locative). Inherent gender is lexical, the gender that must be part of the lexical description of nouns and which is normally spread to concordable constituents. Derived gender is acquired and a function of various nominalization processes wherein genderless lexical items, e.g. verbs or adjectives, take up a gender future, or where nouns themselves undergo movement into other genders acquiring a derivational meaning.

Still on Bantu group of languages, Creider and Denny (1998), however, provides an analysis based partly on configurational parameters. Nouns are first classed as either 'count' or 'mass'. Count nouns are then sub-divided into two basic sets: those that classify according to spatial configuration and others that do not, called 'class'. Spatial configuration nouns are either 'solid shape, classes' ($\frac{9}{10}$ and $\frac{11}{10}$). These are further distinguished by some feature, extended (i.e. long) and non-extended (i.e rounded, protruded, bunched), and finally by an additional set of cross-classifying features, 'unit' or 'collection'. Thus we have, for example: class $\frac{1}{2}$: (+count, +animate, + human); $\frac{3}{4}$: (+ configuration, + solid figure, + extended, + unit) (cl.3) + collection (cl.4); etc. (Given 1990).

A narrower view on this issue (morphological characteristics of specific languages) leads us to the findings of Udoudom (1995, p.212) on the morphological system of Ibibio. Ibibio, according to this source, "is a member of the Lower cross group of languages which is itself a division of the Delta Cross which has the Benue-Congo at its apex". Udoudom's study was to find out the relationship between English and Ibibio morphological systems and how these may affect the Ibibio *English bilinguals*. The study identifies Ibibio 'inflectional' morphology as a structure of language analyzable under phonology and approached through the vowel elision, tone marking and vowel harmony. This agrees with Spencer's (1981, p. 258) observation that "inflectional morphology is often enmeshed with phonology".

The study also elaborates on derivation in Ibibio and deals extensively with conversion, compounding and reduplication processes of word formation. Some of the findings of the study are:

(i)   English is largely more inflectional than Ibibio;

(ii)   Ibibio is largely agglutinating while English is not;

(iii)   English marks the genitive case morphologically while Ibibio indicates it syntactically.

The study concludes that the problem of Ibibio –English bilinguals may be minimized if Ibibio learners of English were adequately exposed to the morphological processes of English and Ibibio by teachers who know the differences and similarities between two languages in this regard.

2.2 The morphology of English

The investigation of word structure and process of word formation has always been the concern of descriptive linguists. Essien (1990, p.138) sees morphology as "the study of internal structure of a word and the significant relationships between the constituents parts of a word". Newmeyer (1998, p. 230) sees it as "an area of grammar concerned with the structure of words, through the use of morpheme construct". According to the source, this branch of grammar is broadly divided into fields, namely, the study of inflections (inflectional morphology) and of word formation (lexical or derivational morphology). Nida(1999, p.1) holds that while traditional grammar treats word structure as part of sentence structure under grammar, the structuralist approach sees morphology as "a distinct branch of language study preoccupied woith the study of morphemes and their arrangement in forming words". By the words of Robins (1980, p.140) morphology is seen as:

The branch of grammar concerned with the structure of words –the study of the rules governing the formation of words in a language: syntax is the study of the rules governing the formation of linguistic units larger than the word. When we say for instance, that the word achievements is made up of the two parts *achieve –and –ment,* we are making a morphological statement and when we say that a *good man* is made up of a, *good and man* and that the utterance a *good man* is fully grammatical in English, we are making a syntactic statement.

With the above therefore, it can be seen that morphology is basically concerned with two concepts: 'word' and 'morpheme'.

A word, as the most fundamental unit of grammar, may be defined as a minimum independent linguistic unit having an identifiable meaning and grammatical function with a fairly consistent phonological shape. A word can, however, exhibit a certain amount of variation to reflect the environment in the sentence in which it is found. The forms *writ, writes, writing, written, wrote* are all forms of a single word *write* (Nelda, 2000). These forms, according to Nelson (1998), constitute a paradigm –the system of morphemic variations which is correlated with a parallel system in environment. This means that a paradigm is a series of changes in the shape of linguistic forms which matches a series of changes position. For instance, the following words constitute paradigms of verbal forms:

cook	cooking	cooked	cooked
walk	walking	walked	walked
see	seeing	saw	seen
write	writing	wrote	written

And the following lexical terms constitute paradigms of noun forms:

man	man's	men
child	child's	children
house	house's	houses
car	car's	cars

There is a system of morphemic variations in each of the above paradigms which is correlated with a parallel system of variations in linguistic environments. This means that the verbal forms *cook, walk, see and write,* can be used in identical linguistic environments in many cases, and that the parallel forms *cooking, walking, looking* and *written.* These morphemic change go hand-in-hand with series of changes in grammatical positions (Tomori, 1977).

According to Ndimele(2003), morphemes can be defined as short sequences of sounds used to build words. Unlike words, morphemes cannot be further broken down into smaller meaningful units. In other words, they are absolute minimal semantic units. For instance, none of the following sequences of sounds: boy, goat, -er, -ful, -ation, -ness, en-, un-, im-, -dom etc. can be broken down into smaller meaningful units.

A linguistic unit which learners often confuse the morpheme with is the syllable. The syllable and the morpheme are not the same. According to Yule (1996, p.96) "whereas morphemes are meaningful grammatical units, syllables are mere sequences of sounds which are capable of being pronounced in isolation". There are however, cases where a syllable can be longer than a morpheme, but unfortunately length has nothing to do with the status of a linguistic unit as either a syllable or a morpheme. A syllable has no meaning (Ndimele, 2003).

Morphemes, according to Ndimele (above) can be classified depending on whether they can occur independently or not. Morphemes which can occur in isolation without necessarily having to be attached to another grammatical unit are referred to as free morphemes. All free morphemes are words. Free morphemes fall into two categories, depending on their semantic content. Free morphemes which have independent dictionary meaning of their own are referred to as lexical morpheme, while those that do not have independent dictionary meaning of their own are referred to as functional or grammatical morphemes. Functional morphemes are used to mark grammatical relationships in the larger construction in which they occur. Examples of lexical morphemes in English are all the words that belong to nouns (N), verbs, (V), adjectives (Adj.) and adverbs (Adv.), while those of the functional morphemes include words that belong to pronouns (Pro.), determiners (Det.), prepositions (P) and conjunctions (Conj.). The lexical morphemes normally 'carry the content of messages we convey" (Yule 1996, p.61). According to this same source, morphemes which cannot occur in isolation and which must be attached to other grammatical units are known as *bound morphemes.* Bound morphemes are not fully –fledged words. Examples of bound morphemes in English are un-, im-, trans-, un-, demi-, en-, -able, -ly, -dess etc.

According to him, that part of the word that remains after every other element has been removed is known as the root or the base. The root is usually the heart of a word which carries the core meaning of the word. There are two types of root, namely free root and bound root. A free root can occur alone after every other word-building element has been removed. Bound root on the other hand, are morpheme which "are incapable of occurring in isolation; they usually occur with some other word-building elements attached to them" (Katamba, 1993, p.42). Bound roots can be contracted or non-contracted. A contracted root according to Katamba (above) is a type of root where one or more of its elements have been deleted. In

some writing conventions, the deleted part of the root is indicated by an apostrophe before attaching the contracted form to another word, e.g. I'll, we've, he'd. By the words of Ndimele (2003, p.12), "a contracted root is epileptic, hence, it looks for a substantive host in its vicinity to attach itself". The directionality of the attachment depends on the orthographic convention that operates in the language concerned. The following are examples of non-contracted bound roots in English:

-ceive   as in receive, conceive, deceive

-mit   as in admit, permit, omit, remit

pred-   as in predator, predatory, predation

dent-   as in dental, dentist, dentition

matern-   as in maternity, maternal

According to Quirk et al (1973, p.421) in addition to bound roots, we can have two other types of bound morphemes. These bound morphemes are affixes and clitics. An affix according to them,

> …is a bound morpheme which is always attached to the base or root of a word. Affixes do not have independent existence. Examples of affixes in English include –ness (kindness), -dom (freedom), -er (driver), -ful (careful), -ly (gladly), -ation (formation), un- (unacceptable), en- (encourage), im- (impossible), a- (amoral), -hood (manhood), neo- (neo-capital), mal- (mal-treatment).

A clitic on the other hand, is a grammatical unit which according to Allerton (1998, p.240):

> …exhibits behavior intermediate between that of a word and that of an affix. Typically, a clitic has the phonological form to separate word, but cannot be stressed and is obliged to occupy a

particular position in the sentence in which it is phonologically

bound to an adjoining word, its host.

A clitic differs from an affix. Unlike a affix, a particular clitic can attach to any host irrespective of the part of speech of the host, provided the host is located at the appropriate position. In other words, the clitic exhibits a promiscuity of attachments unlike an affix. A particular affix must attach to a particular part of speech. There can be no time, for instance, where the –ed that marks pastness in English can have the freedom to be hosted by both the verb and noun with the same semantic implication.

There are two types of clitic depending on their position relative to the position of root of the host. A clitic which is attached before the root of its host is known as proclitic, while that which is attached at the end of its host is known as enclitic. Osisanwo (2000) provides ample examples in Degema, a language spoken in Delta part of southern Nigeria, to illustrate cases of both proclitics and enclitics.

Osisanwo (above) claims that all the proclitics in Degema occur before the verb or particle. An interesting remark which he makes about the status of the forms we have been considering as clitics is that their segmental properties (especially vowels) seem to be influenced, the quality of the vowel of the clitic in terms of whether it is expanded (i.e. produced with the wide pharynx) or non-expanded (i.e. produced with narrow pharynx) depends on the quality of the vowel of its host. He also observes that the tone of the clitic is often conditioned by context in which it occurs. Fig 3 (below) summarizes the various types of morpheme in English.

Yule (1996) agrees with Udofot (2005) that some morphemes are the core of words while some are additional and appendages. The morphemes which carries the core meaning is referred to as the root of the word. In the word 'faithfulness' for instance, the core of the

word or root morphemes id 'faith'. The root of the word is that part that is always present. The only situation when this is not so is when suppletion takes place.

The stem of the word is that part to which the last morpheme is added. It is thus the part in existence before any inflectional affixes (those additions required by the grammar of a language such as indicators of number in nouns, tense in verbs etc.). In the words *interpreters, wanting and faithfulness* the stems of the word are *interpreter, want and faithful* respectively (being the parts to which the last morphemes are added). Also, in the words 'cats' and 'learner' the {s} morpheme is added to the root 'cat' while the agentive morpheme {-er} is added to the root leaner to mean one who learns. In 'learners', the root is learn while learner is the stem to which the inflectional morpheme {s} is added to give the additional meaning of 'more-than-one'.

```
                              Morpheme
              ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
            Free                                   bound
        ┌─────┴─────┐              ┌────────────────┼────────────────┐
      Local      Functional      Afix            Clitic           bound
                                            ┌───────┴───────┐       Root
                                        Proclitic      Enclitic  ┌───┴───┐
                                                            Contracted  Non-contracted
                                                               Root        Root
```
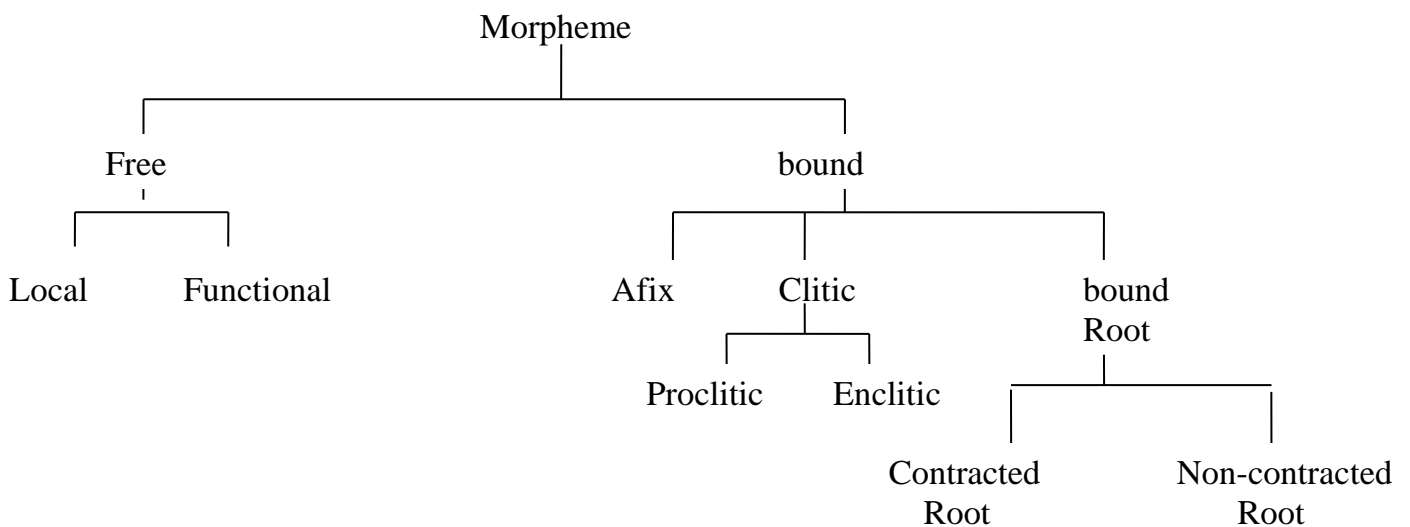
FIG 3: Differentiate types of morpheme in English

Source: Osisanwo (2000, p. 286)

A base on the other hand is a unit to which any affix can be added. The affix may be inflectional (selected for grammatical reasons) or derivational in which case it alters the meaning or grammatical category of the base. A root to which no affix is added like 'girl' can be a base since it can take an inflectional affix like {-s} to from the plural 'girls' or a

derivational like {-ish}to turn the noun into an adjective 'girlish'. In effect, all roots are bases but roots are stems when they take inflectional suffixes. Thus, although all roots are bases, not all roots are stems. In the world 'faithfulness', faith is the root of the whole word; it is also the stem of 'faiths' and the base of 'faithful' while 'faithful' becomes the base for 'faithfulness'. This explanation of root, stems and bases by Udofot (2005) is contrary to Tomori's (1977) analysis which equates stems with bases, rather than roots (Udofot, 2005).

Katamba (1993, p.54) however sees "all roots as bases but stems as bases only in the context of inflectional morphology". Eka (1994) uses roots, stems and bases in the same sense with Tomori (above), while Francis (1989) employs the terms root, stem and base "as largely synonymous" (Eka, 1994, p.56). All the usages referred to above tend to overlap in the sense in which root is used. The slight differences in the senses of base and stem appear to be idiosyncratic. Knowledge of the root of words can be used to explain the origin and core meaning of words from Latin, Greek or French. Table 1 (below) shows Latin and Greeks roots, derived words and meanings.

Several linguists have also theorized on the need to isolate morph in the analysis of words into morphemes. A morph according to Katamba (1993, p.68) "is a physical form representing some morphemes in a language. It is a distinctive recurrent sound segment or a sequence of sound segments". Each different morph may represent a separate morpheme. This is, however, not always the case. Sometimes the same morpheme id represented by different morphs. For example, the plural morphemes {s} in English as in 'books' /buks/ can be represented as {z} as in 'boys' /bɔiz/. The past tense of regular verbs in English which is spelled '-ed' is pronounced /t/, /d/, or /id/ depending on the last sound of the verb to which it is attached –its phonological environment (Udofot, 2005). This source goes on to say that if different morphs represent the same morphemes, they are grouped together and are called allomorphs of the same morpheme. Katamba (1993) presents the relationship between

morphs, morphemes and allomorph dramatically as presented in Figure 4 (below). Tomori (1977) agrees with Gleason (1965, p.45) that "/id/, /d/ and /t/ are English morphs which collectively serve as allomorph of the past tense morpheme".

TABLE 1

Derived words from Latin and Greek roots

Latin Root	Words	Meaning
ann-year	Annual	Yealy
culp-guilt	Culpable	guilty
doc-teach	Doctor	one who teaches
gress-march	Progress	a marching toward
loqu-talk	Eloquent	talking well

Greek Root	Words	Meaning
bibl- book	Bibliography	list of books
path-feel	Sympathy	feeling for or with
phil-friend	Philosopher	friend of wisdom
thermo-heat	Thermometer	measures heat

The notion of distribution according to Nida (1999) is central to the identification of morphemes in any language. By distribution we mean the context in which in a particular linguistic elements occurs. A set of morphs is classified as allomorph of the same morpheme if the morphs

(i) Serve the same grammatical function

(ii) Occur in the same contexts

When the above criteria are satisfied, the morphs are said to be in complementary distribution. Thus, the three morphs /id, d, t/ which are realizations of the regular past tense morpheme are in complementary distribution because each morph only occurs in the context described above and is therefore an allomorph of the same morpheme.

Similarly, the negative morpheme which means *not* can be realizedas /in/, and /iŋ/ as in the following examples.

inactive	/inæktiv/
indecent	/indi:snt/
impenitent	/impeniənt/
impossible	/impɔsibl/
incorrigible	/iŋkɔidʒ∂bl/

It can be noted that the nasal consonant in the allomorph of the morpheme {in} is pronounced the way it is depending on the nature of

Morpheme
(past tense)
-ed

allomorph

Morph   Morph   Morph
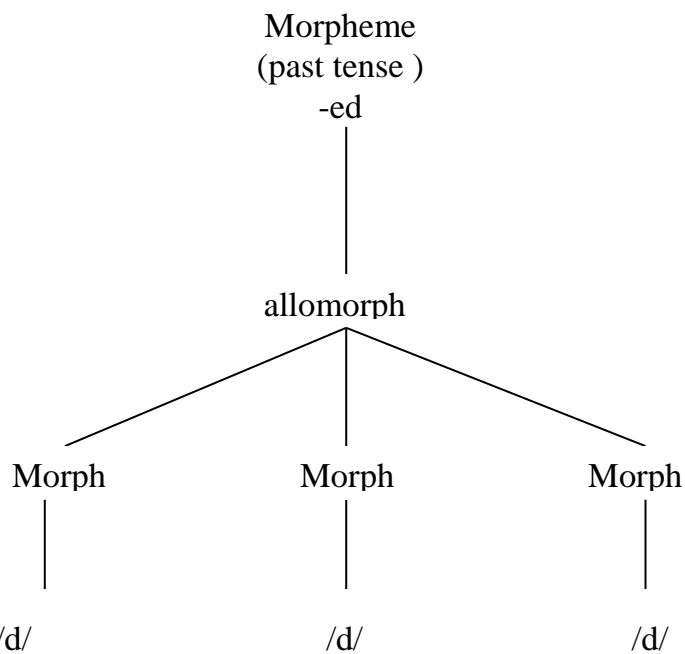
FIG 4: The r   /d/   /d/   /d/
Source: Adapted from Katamba (1993, p. 26)

the   sound that follows it: /im/ is used before labial consonants like /p, n, m/ as in 'impossible; /iŋ/ is used before velar consonants like /k/ and /g/ as in 'incorrigible'; /in/ is used elsewhere as for example before alveolar consonants like /t, d, s, z, n/ as in 'indecent'. The three morphs /im, iŋ, in/ of the morpheme {in-} are therefore in complementary distribution in that the use of one excludes the other (Udofot, 2005).

On segmentability of words, Mathews (1987) stresses that any word made up of more than one morpheme has its constituents joined in a syntagmatic relationship; that is, the morpheme are syntagmatically related. He went onto stress that a written word, syntagmatic relationship is exhibited in linear sequence while a spoken word, the relationship is exhibited in temporal sequence. These two sequences, according to him are two forms in which order can be realized. Robins (1989, p.201) agrees with Mathews (1987) when he states that "words exhibiting syntagmatic relationship between the component morphemes". These include:

(i) The linear segmentability in the case of words such as *respectable* which can be segmented in a clear way into the two morphemes, *respect and –able.* Many words in English exhibits this type of word segmentability.

(ii) The second group of words cannot be segmented in a clear fashion as in the example given above. For instance, the word *redemption*, according to the present morphemic theory of analysis is made up of the two morphemes *redeem and –ion*, but, it is quite clear that the word cannot be neatly segmented into these two morphemes. The linguistic theory used to explain this type of phenomenon is that *redemp-* is a bound alternant of the morpheme *redeem.*This means that the form redemp does not occur alone. The above explication of the segmentation of the word *redemption* may be faulty as the derivation of *redemption*   from*redeem* is a case of phonological conditioning. In English, the nasal sound /m/ cannot follow /t/, which is a stop. While

/m/ is voiced, /t/ is voiceless and they do not share any place or manner of articulation. The natural course is for /t/ to introduce /p/, which also a voiceless stop to assimilate its features before a word like *redemption* could be derived. This same principle can explain the derivation of transcription and description from transcribe and describe respectively.

(iii)The third group of words poses a different problem of segmentability. A word such as *went*, for instance, is the past tense of the word *go; but it is not easily segmentable* into the components morphemes. Other examples are men, which may be analyzed as man + the plural suffix. Such words in English are usually classified as irregular forms.

In English, words are basically classified into three classes namely: simple, complex and compound words. Simple words include words like come, sit, eat, etc. while complex and compound words are non-simple words, which include words formed by inflection (e.g. going, worked, books); words formed by derivation (e.g. development, acceptable, gracefully); and words formed by compound (e.g. mother-hood, feedback, bloodthirsty). Figure 5 (below) adapted from Allerton (1998) shows the formation of non-simple words.

Inflectional morphology is concerned with the addition of inflectional morpheme to the ending of roots. According to Crystal (1994, p,343) "inflection morphology examines the way in which words vary (or inflect) in order to express grammatical contrasts in sentences, such as singular/plural or past/present tense…". Stump (2001, p.245) sees inflection morphology as:

> A branch of morphology concerned with the manner in which lexical iterms are combined with grammatical markers like plurality and tense. The class of the stem determines the grammatical marker to combine, for example, the

English noun class cannot be combined with tense markers – e.g. 'petered' from peter, 'yaming' from yam etc.

From the foregoing, it becomes clear that in inflectional process of word formation the word class of the root, to which an inflectional morpheme is added, is never altered. Rather, it modifies the form of the word to enable it fit into a particular grammatical category. For instance, the '-s' morpheme of nouns as in 'books' merely carries the information regarding the number of books in question. It may be for this reason that Katamba (1993, P.89) describe inflection morpheme as those which "do not change the referential or cognitive meaning".

By the rules of word formation in English, no other morpheme can be added after an inflection morpheme. It is also not possible to have two inflectional at a time. In the word 'Illumination', for instance, the root of word is 'Illuminate'. The derivation morpheme is '-ation', while the inflection morpheme '-s'. No other morpheme can be added to 'Illuminations' after the addition of the inflectional morpheme '-s'. Words that are often inflected in English include nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. As earlier mentioned in section 1.7, when a word up of only one morpheme, we can refer to it, in morphological terms, as the root. Affixes (bound morphemes) can then be added to the root which now serves as a foundation for word building.
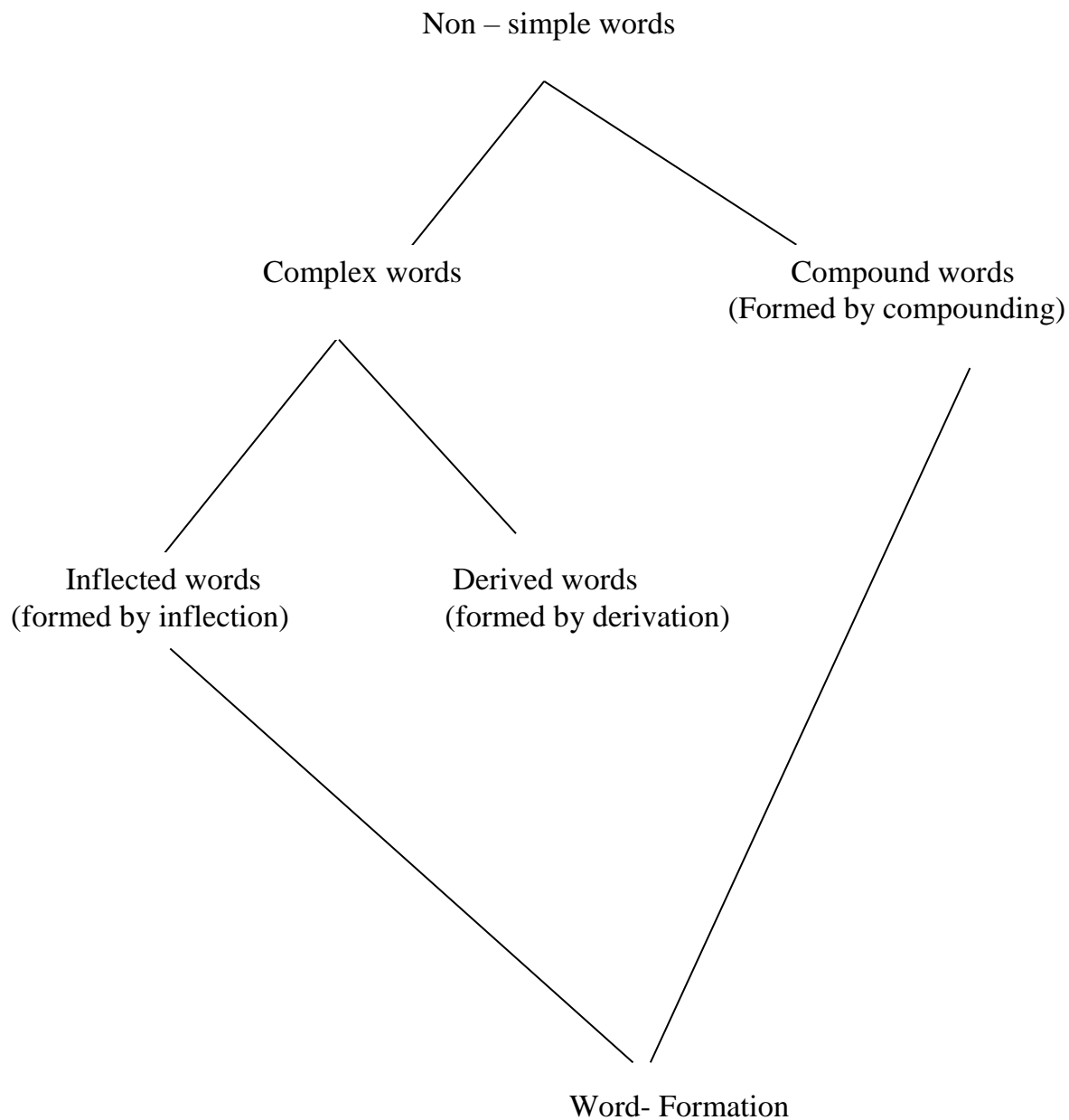
Non – simple words

Complex words

Compound words
(Formed by compounding)

Inflected words
(formed by inflection)

Derived words
(formed by derivation)

Word- Formation

FIG. 5:   The formation of non-simple words
Source: Allerton (1998, p.156)

The addition of affixes to the root would naturally result in one of the two main categories or processes of word formation (derivational or inflectional morphology). Basically, while the result of a derivation process is a new word (e.g. nation →national), the result of an inflectional process is a different form of the same word (e.g. nation, nationals).

Derivational morphology, according to Udofot (2005, p.28) is "a word formation process whereby affixes are added to the root or base of words to produce other words of similar or

different classes". In other words, derivational process of word formation forms new words by:

(i)   Changing the meaning of the base to which they are added as for instance in the examples clean/unclean (all adjectives), but one having meaning which is opposite to the other.

(ii)   Changing the grammatical class of the base as for instance the addition of '-ly' to 'slow' forms another word 'slowly', therefore changing the word 'slow' from an adjective to adverb. It is a rule in English that adverbs be formed by adding '-ly' morpheme to the base of an adjective.

(iii)   Maintaining grammatical class of the base, e.g. Boy-boyhood, king –kingship

Derivation affixes are useful in the formation of open class items. Udofot (above) lists the following as examples of such open class items.

Quick (adjectives)	-	quickly (adverb)
Beautiful (adjective)	-	beautifully (adverb)
Break (verb)	-	breakage (noun)
Joy (noun)	-	joyful (adverb)
Electric (noun)	-	electrify (verb)
Fat (adjective)	-	fatten (verb)
Slave (noun)	-	enslave (verb)
Father (noun)	-	fatherly (adverb)
Nation (noun)	-	national (adjective)

A derivative does not close word boundary, hence it can further derive or inflect as can be seen in the following examples:

Natural →naturalise →naturalization
Power → powerless → powerlessness
Beauty → beautiful → beautifully

From the above it can be seen that a derivational affix can cause a major grammatical change from one world class to another as in *slave/enslave* , *power/powerless* where a noun becomes a verb in the first case and an adjective in the second. In some cases, the additional of a derivational affix may cause just a minor change, as when the bases changes as in pig→ piglet both nouns but one is a diminutive form of the other (Udimka, 2005).

There are other cases where as derivative may result not by the addition of any orthographic morpheme (affix) but by mere phonological manipulation, say a shift of stress or voicing of some consonant endings. Generally, derivation as a word formation processes operates in various forms, namely, affixation (prefixations, suffixation/infixation), conversion, compounding, blending, clipping, syncopation, backformation, coinage, borrowing, acronym, Alphasis, Antonomesia, reduplication. While some of the above are rule governed (following the word formation rules) others are rule –bending (not following the word formation rules). They are specifically examined in the proceedings sections.

Derivational prefixation is a process of forming words by adding a prefix to the root or base with or without a change of the word class of the base or root. These affixes, according to Bauer (1994, p.207) "can be added to the root of a noun, adjectives or verb to derive other words of similar or different classes.

Young (1990, p.13) in explicating the notion of grammatical units and boundaries states as follows:.

> The notion '(grammatical) unit' implies segmentability. In other words, it is normally the clause can be segmented into a sequence of groups which is turn segmented into words, which are made up of morphemes being the smallest units in the rank-scale.

We can, with more or less precision, associate grammatical boundaries with places in the sequence of orthographical letters and space, or with places in the stretch of phonological structure. In other words, each grammatical unit is principle realizable by a separate chunk of phonological (or graphological) material. In the examples in (a) below the symbol + stands for the boundary of such a chunk, and not for syllable boundary (syllables are purely phonological units, and are established without reference to grammatical structure; for instance, while the word 'fees' is monosyllabic, it consists of two morphemes {fee+s}:

(i)	reader:	read+er	/rid+∂/
	stolen:	stol+en	/st∂ul+∂n/
	musical:	music+cal	/mjuzik+I/
	sending	send+ing	/send+iŋ/
	outspokenness	out+spoke+ness	/aut+sp∂uk/∂n+n∂s/
	translation	trans+late+ion	/træenz+leiʃ+∂n/

The above examples, according to Young (1980, p.13),

> ….are all of words segmented into two or more morphemes. The segmentability is not seriously affected by the fact that here and there is some mistiness or overlap at the borders of graphological or phonological chunks. It should be stressed that we are not saying that the grammatical unit actually is a stretch of spelling or sound, but that it is represented (or realized) by a stretch of spelling sound.

Also, Well's (1986) formation of the theory of immediate constituent analysis appears to be the best known in this area. Its main practice is the analysis of linguistic texts into two, three, four, or more parts. "Each part of a constitute is a 'constituent', that is, a constituent is a part of a constitute, and a constitute at one state of analysis may be a constituent of a larger constitute" (Joose 1986, p.232). Apart from the use of tree diagramming, the use of upright lines and bracketing are other ways of dividing a construction into its immediate constituents.

The procedures for dividing the constituents of a construction using any of the above methods are essentially the same. The cutting proceeds in a binary fashion down to the smallest unit (Ndimele, 2003).

With brackets we can separate the immediate constituents of the sentence "The boys pushed the cars' using the following steps:

(i)   identify the subject and the predicate of the sentence, and determine whether where their boundary is.

(ii)   Enclose the subject (the boys) in brackets, and do the same for the predicate (pushed the cars).

(iii)   Know that the subject has two parts: the +boys; so use brackets to enclose (the) and do the same for (boys) .

(iv)   Know also that the predicate is made up of two parts: pushed which is the verb plus the cars which the objects; so enclose both in brackets.

(v)   The objects also have two parts: the +cars; enclose each in brackets: (the), (cars).

(vi)   The head of the nominal group (boys), the verbal group (pushed) and the head of the second nominal group (cars) have two morphemes each, which must be enclosed in the braces.

2.3   Studies on word formation processes

In some respects, the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language like English seems relatively straightforward. This apparently simplicity, however, masks a number of controversial issues. Despite the disagreements among scholars in this area, there do seem to be some regular processes involved (Dennis, 2002). Some of the major ways of creating, new words in human language including the following: affixation,

borrowing, coinages, blending, clipping, back-formation, compounding, conversion and acronymy among others (Ndimele, 2003; Yule, 1996; Mathews, 1972).

Yule (1996) agrees that 'once a base has undergone a rule of word-formation, the derived word itself may become the base for another derivation'; and so, by reapplication, it is possible to derive words of considerable morphological and semantic complexity. Quirk et al (1973) gives a moderately complex example in the word 'unfriendliness', the derivational of which is set out as follows:

i.   Friend   =   noun

ii.   Friendly   =   noun →adjective

iii. Unfriendly   =   adjective → adjective

iv.   Unfriendliness   =   adjective →noun

There are possibilities for mixing processes of derivational in the same word, for instance, compounding and affixation are both found in 'colour-blindness', a word derived from the compound adjective occur-blind by the same rule which derives 'happiness' from 'happy'. Apart from the above processes English calls upon a number of 'minor morphological processes, namely reduplication, blending, clipping, acronym, borrowing and coinages, as means of forming new words on the basis of the old (Quirk et al, 1973; Ndimele, 2003).

Coinage or neologism is a morphological process of creating new words to name previously non-existent objects or phenomena that result from cultural contact. The coined word with the passage of time gain currency within a speech community. Invented trade names such as *Xerox and Kleenex* are recent additions to the English language. Again, the word *crane* is a name for a very large bird with very long neck. But now, there is a heavy – duty machine also called *Crane* which is used for lifting heavy objects. This machine has a

long neck. In a way, the machine has taken its name from the bird (Ndimele, 2003; Udofot, 2005). Ndimele (2003) sees 'blending' as a morphological process of creating a new word by combining parts of two or more already existing words in the same language. He outlines the following as examples blends in English: brunch, smog, motel, telecast, urinalysis, tantabulous, A word formed in this way is known as compound. It involves stringing together words from one or different parts of speech. Ndimele (2003, p.143) outlines the following as examples of compound words:

Noun + Noun

i.	land	lord	$\Rightarrow$	landlord
ii.	block	head	$\Rightarrow$	block head

Noun + Adjective

i.	nation	wide	$\Rightarrow$	nationwide
ii.	air	tight	$\Rightarrow$	airtight

Noun + Participle

i.	heart	broken	$\Rightarrow$	heartbroken
ii.	mind	blowing	$\Rightarrow$	mind-blowing

Noun + Verb

i.	spoon	feed	$\Rightarrow$	spoon-feed
ii.	head	hunt	$\Rightarrow$	headhunt

Verb + Verb

i.	test	market	$\Rightarrow$	test-market
ii.	freeze	dry	$\Rightarrow$	freeze-dry

Verb + Noun

i.	pick	pocket	$\Rightarrow$	pickpocket
ii.	break	fast	$\Rightarrow$	breakfast

Verb + Particle

i.	press	down	$\Rightarrow$	press-down
ii.	fall	out	$\Rightarrow$	fallout

Particle + Verb

i.	out	run	$\Rightarrow$	outrun
ii.	over	feed	$\Rightarrow$	overfeed

Adjective + Partcipial

i.	serious	minded	$\Rightarrow$	serious-minded
ii.	hard	working	$\Rightarrow$	hardworking

One interesting quality of some compounds is that their overall meanings are not always equal to the meaning of the individual words with which they are composed. This, however,, does not apply to endocentric compounds which means a sub-group within the class of

objects, persons etc that the head denotes. Therefore a black<u>board</u> is a kind of board, a bed<u>room</u> is a of room while a play<u>boy</u> is a kind of boy. The underlined sections of the compounds are the heads which form the dominant part of the compound to which inflectional morphemes can be added as blackboard<u>s</u>, bedroom<u>s</u> and playboy<u>s</u>. Other examples of endocentric compounds are: haircut, ashtray, paleface, flourmill etc.

Another very common way of creating new words in human language is borrowing. It simply means the process of taking words from one or more languages to fit into the vocabulary of another. It is important to mention that no language is free from borrowing. Borrowing presupposes some elements of cultural contact. According to Donwaifode (1995, p.132):

> Two or more languages are said to be in contact if they are used by the same individuals or group of persons alternately. The individuals using the languages are referred to as the 'locus' of contact… the language that borrows from the other is said to be the 'recipient' language, while that from which the items is borrowed is known as the 'donor' language.

Ndimele (2003) lists examples of forms of borrowing to include loan-word, loan-blend, or loan-translations. Another phenomenon relevant to word formation is 'blocking'. It is used to refer to factors which limit the application of word formation processes whose conditions of word formation processes have been met(Katamba, 1993). Some conditions which occasion blocking are outlined by Arnoff (1976). One of such conditions is the existence of another word with the same meaning as the newly created word. For example; "if there is a word like thief already in existence in English, then the word like *stealer* created by suffixation of the very productive agentive affix –

er to the base *steal* is blocked" (Udofot, 2005, p.212). Regarding the behavior of morphemes it is usually the case where two semantically similar morphemes exist (two morphemes which have the same meaning), that the less productive one is the more eligible candidate for blocking. This is exemplified in the behavior of the suffixes '-ity' and '-ness'. Aronoff (1996) has shown that the suffixation of '-ness' is more productive than '-ity' and that where there is already an existing new world derived from an adjective base ending in '-ous', it is not possible to create a new word by adding '-ity'. The following are examples:

a	**b**	**c**	**d**
Adj-base	**Existing**	**Noun**	**Noun**
With-outs	Noun	(-ity)	(-ness)
Glorious	glory	*gloriosity	gloriousness
Spacious	space	*spaciousity	spaciousness
Furious	fury	*furiosity	furiousness

However, as the examples in the d show, the existence of a known noun does not rule out the formation of a derived noun using the productive suffix-ness. A number of factors play a role in blocking. Some of these factors are phonological; some are morphological while some are semantic (Udofot, 2005).

Languages of the world can be classified based on the significant properties they share. The search for the most fundamental properties shared all languages of the world is the domain of language universals. "The study of a range of patterns within which language may vary is the domain of language typology" (Katamba, 1993, p.56). Although languages may vary greatly in terms of the sounds and words which they employ, they seem to exhibit some interesting similarities. Differences in the structural patterns of different languages appear to occur within a fairly restricted range. In fact, Greenberg (1998, p. 235) had earlier observed

that structural patterns in human language are not randomly distributed; rather there are a number of strongly preferred patterns "which recur even in distantly related or genetically unrelated languages, while other patterns may be rare or non-existent in any human language".

Katamba (1993) sees tone as a word formation process. According to the source, the application of different tones to a particular word in different contexts results in the derivation of different words, which though they have similar spelling, have also their respective meanings, pronunciations and tone markers. For example, the three letter word 'awo', in Igala, can have several meanings depending on the one used in its realization. Examples:

Word	Meaning
awó	guinea fowl
awō	an increase
awò	hole (a tree)
āwō̄	a slap
áwō̄	a comb
áwó	star

CHAPTER THREE
STUDIES IN CONTRASTIVE STUDIES

Contrastive linguistics, or contrastive analysis (CA) came as a result of the need to tackle the problem of mother tongue interference. As the name implies, the emphasis is on the contrast or difference between the learner's mother tongue (L1) and the target language. Research has proven that differences usually lead to the impediment of learning processes, while similarities usually facilitate the learning process. In doing a CA, the researcher juxtaposes a particular area of the two languages – sound system, word structure, sentence structure, lexicon, etc and then find out in what area(s) they are similar or different with a view to predicting the difficulties and facilitation which the learner of the target language is likely to encounter. With CA therefore, one can compare two languages, predict areas of difficulties and facilitation and also draw a scale of hierarchy of difficulties and facilitation for the second language learner. However, in doing a CA, Mcintosh and Halliday (1986) in Igboanusi (2000) suggest that valid method of comparison between the two languages which must depend on general linguistic theory, are needed. This chapter critically examines the concept of contrastive analysis (CA), and contrastive studies in English and other languages.

3.1 The concept of contrastive analysis (CA)

The concept of contrastive analysis (CA) originated with Fries in 1945, was later developed by Lado Clive in 1957 into a fully –fledged theory of teaching, testing, textbooks writing, evaluation and preparing supplementary materials for the teaching of English as FL or L2 (Amayo, 1996). The field of CA investigates interlingual interference. Bright (1993, p.271) views contrastive analysis as the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. According to him, apart from being

used to establish language genealogies, CA is used extensively in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. He argues that:

> The difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language (L2) depended on the difference between the learner's mother tongue (L1) and the target language. Those elements which are similar to the leaner's native language will be simple while those elements that are different will be difficult.

This view of Bright (above) is supported by Baur (1994, p.200) who holds that "once the areas of potential difficulty are mapped out through contrastive analysis, it becomes easy to design language courses more effectively", 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 of language teaching (Williamson, 1989).

Also, Banjo (1970, p.140) in explicating the responsibility of contrastive analysis states as follows:

> Contrastive analysis base their argument on the premise that possible areas of difficulties for the L2 leaner can be predicted and therefore emphasized to ensure proficiency in them. If the structures of the source language (L1) and the target language (L2) are similar then the learner is not likely to commit many errors as will be the case where the two structures are fundamentally different. The instructor is expected to study the nature and structure of the two languages and compare them

with the purpose of predicting errors the child is likely to commit.

Traditional contrastive analysis are all conducted along the horizontal dimensions necessarily involved in comparing an element or a class of elements in L1 and/or vice versa. Traditional contrastive analysis compare specific elements of L1 and L2 belonging to the same statements (Banjo, 1999). These statements must be based on semantic consideration associated with the notion of equivalence (the notion of equivalent systems, constructions and rules are comparable) and also on structural considerations associated with the notion of congruence. The systems (phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic) or subsystems or various types of constructions can be compared.

By means of contrastive analysis of whatever aspect of languages, some scholars have made it known that no two languages are exactly the same or completely different in all respects. There must be certainly be found areas of similarities as well as areas of differences. Linguists have since been able to classify languages based on the significant properties they share. The search for the fundamental properties shared by languages of the world is the domain of language universals (Katamba, 1993). Typologies/classification includes analytic or isolating, agglutinating, inflecting, synthetic or fusional languages, and incorporating or polysynthetic languages.

It has been revealed that the first language (L1) is acquired more effortlessly and easily than the second language (L2). Butler (1992) and Bright (1993) agree that negative transfer is a very fundamental factor in second language learning/usage. According to them "nothing interferes with the formation of conventional habits in the first language (L1), but the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second language" (Butler, 1992, p.103). To resolve this problem of interference or

negative transfer, aspects of languages are juxtaposed, differences and similarities brought to light for the purpose of proper usage. The systematic comparison and contrast of aspects of languages is what is technically termed contrastive analysis (CA).

Bammer (1992) argues that one of the major problems facing learners/users of a second language is the tyranny of mother tongue. That is, we think in our native languages and speak in the second language. According to him, the need to tackle the problem of mother tongue interference in second language usage gave rise to what is today known as contrastive analysis (CA) or contrastive linguistics. He sees it as the juxtaposition of certain aspects of a pair language (the native language (L1 and the target language (L2) with a view to identify areas of similarities and or differences so as to be able to predict areas of difficulties and to offer remedial teaching/ learning in such areas. While the similarities aid and facilitate the learning process, the differences usually lead to interferences/negative transfer and impediment of the learning process.

The above position of Bammer agrees with the view of Bamgbose (1996, p.103) which states that:

> Contrastive analyst base their argument on the premise that possible areas of difficulty for the second or foreign language learner can be predicted and therefore emphasized to ensure proficiency. The language instructor should study the nature and structure of the two languages, compare and contrast them for the purpose of predicting errors the language user is likely to commit.

The major assumption of contrastive analyst, according to Lado (1987), is that language users tend to transfer the language habits of their native language to the target language. According to him, the primary goal of CA is to discover areas of similarities and differences between languages, explain the implications of the difference and similarities and predict possible problems of L2 users, and design course material for language teachers/users/researchers.

On criticism of contrastive analysis, Connor (1996, p.209) argues that the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claim that all the errors made in learning the L2 could be attributed to interference by the L1 is faulty. He holds that this claim could not be sustained by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid and late 1970s. According to him:

> Many errors predicted by contrastive analysis were inexplicably not observed in learner's language. Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by second language users irrespective of their L1. It has become clear that contrastive analysis could not predict learning difficulties; and was only useful in retrospective explanation of errors.

Those developments, along with the decline of the behaviorist and structuralist paradigms considerably weakened the appeal of Contrastive Analysis.

The general argument among critics of CA is that focusing on the interlingual interference alone is not enough because there are many other sources of errors besides those caused by mother tongue interference. Secondly, predictions may not always be proven because a learner might find it easier to learn a particular different feature in L2, but have

difficulty with features which are similar. They insist that not all 'new' features are inherently difficult to learn (Banjo, 1996).

Also, Major and Kim (1999) reveal that since the publication Lado's (1957) *Linguistics across cultures* many research works on second language (L2) learning have conformed to the 'structuralist' paradigm suggested by Lado. Lado's approach recommends the juxtaposition of L1 and L2 systems and hypothesizes that while a similar structures in the two languages compared will facilitate the learning the structures in the target language, different structures, or structures present in one of the languages but absent in the other language, will retard or interfere with the learning of the structure in the L2.

Many critics, as already stated, have agreed that contrastive analysis does not systematically address the question of whether all differences between L1 and L2 should be treated alike, and which are more critical than others. Consequently, Wode (1983) proposed the notion of 'critical similarity' between L1 and L2 to account for this and suggests criteria that must be met if transfer from L1 to L2 is to take place.

There have, however, been some modifications to the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). Eckman (1994, p.278) for instance, reckons with the degree of difficulty of L2 phenomena and suggested that "phenomena that are less marked be acquired before the ones that are marked". Udofot (1999, p.86) interprets the above to mean that "for an Ibibio L1 learner in Nigeria, for instance, voiceless fricatives would be learnt before voiced ones because the voiced fricatives are more marked".

Major and Kim's (1999, p.180) similarity differential rate hypothesis (SDRH) is another significant modification of the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). This hypothesis claims that "dissimilar phenomena are acquired faster than similar ones and, ceteris paribus, that markedness is merely a mediating factor affecting rate". Because

similarity and markedness can have opposite effects on rate of acquisition, it is important to control for one factor in order to determine the effects of the other. If a high degree of markedness slows down and dissimilarity speeds up rate, then a study comparing a marked but dissimilar phenomenon to an unmarked but similar phenomenon word isolate neither the effects of similarity nor the effects of markedness, because the two factors would act at odds (Major and Kim, 1999, p.179). The source also note that:

> The ideal for the SDRH compare two phenomena, one similar and one dissimilar to an L1 phenomenon but both having the same degree of markedness. In this way, the degree of similarity would be the only variable; markedness would be constant. Likewise, an adequate test of the effects of markedness should hold the degree of similarity constant, allowing the degree of markedness to avry.

The modifications and criticism of CA notwithstanding, there is still a general agreement that, as observed by Trubestkoy (1939), learners tend to use the linguistic 'sieve' of the mother tongue to filter what they perceive in the second language. This means that in teaching English stress and intonation to the L2 speakers, for instance, it is important to note how stress and intonation are realized in both the L1 and the L2 before finding appropriate strategies of teaching them (Udofot, 1999). This, therefore, calls for the identification of the respective features of languages for the purpose of making pedagogical predictions.

3.2 Contrastive studies in English and other languages.

Bright (1993, p. 212), on viewing the interference of the mother tongue on English language, affirms that "there is nothing to interfere with the formation of conventional habits

in the native speaker, but the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second". This implies that nothing interferes with the model to which the native language speakers are exposed, but interference is noticed when the native language speaker tries to acquire a second language. He goes further to argue that the influence is even more when English language has systems of choice not used in the mother tongue. For instance, in most African languages, there is no such sound as /θ/. The tendency is to substitute what is not available in the native language with what is available, which is /t/.

Krashen (2001, p.105) argues that when people show evidence of intrusion from the native language in their second language, it is normally because they have not yet acquired the relevant structure in the second language. According to him, "the problem is not as serious as people think or imagine and the cure is simple: Let the person acquire the correct form in the second language and interference will take care of itself".

Williams (2004) agrees that there are a number of interference problems in word formation and syntax which are common to many language groups in Nigeria, but disagrees with the assumption that any one scheme of contrastive analysis is adequate for students in a multi-ethnic and multi-lingual nations as Nigeria.

Still on the problem of second language acquisition, Tiffen (1992, p.178) asserts that language learning generally results in interference of one sort or another. This is a manner of describing the effect of transferring the habits or characteristics of one's mother tongue to the target language. From this, it is clear that "an English man speaking or learning Hausa or Ibibio is likely to transmit the characteristics of his language (phonetics, lexis, grammar, etc) into the target language in the same way that a Hausa or Ibibio man does when he speaks English". Many of the features of English grammar are entirely absent in most African

languages. As a result, the native language speaker replaces the absent features with whatever is obtainable in the mother tongue.

Shaplin and Shaplin (2004, p.142) point to the need to create a stable bilingual situation in which the source and the target language are clearly separate in their related functions. According to them, "one important factor which must be considered in relation to English language is the problem of distinguishing the roots of the mother tongue and the target language: English".

Abiri (2001) holds that mother tongue instructors need to be properly trained to acquire suitable linguistic skills and contextual information about the cultural milieu of the target language and appropriate attitudinal orientation as well as professional skills. Also, Awoniyi (2003, p.213) argues in favour of the utilization of children's mother tongue experiences "as an essential principle of second language usage". Mother tongue experts and English language specialist should consider one another as allies in effective planning of language programme for schools.

Omojuwa (1978, p.343) concurs when she writes as follows: "flexibility is desirable in the use of leaner's mother tongue during an English lesson. The relationship between the target and source languages should be cordial not antagonistic". The source, again, stresses that experience from many countries –Hong Kong, ther Philippines, Mexico, the United States of America has shown that second language users do better after they have learned or mastered their mother tongue.

Ushie (2001, p.viii) contrasting the morphological systems in English and Bekwara discovered that both languages have different derivational and inflectional processes. In the derivation of words, for instance, it was discovered that "while prefixes do not alter the word class of the derivativein English, they do in Bekwara and that negative prefixes becomes

negative suffixes in Bekwara". The source reveals also that there are disparate inflectional procedures and non-segmental manipulation in both languages. Ushie's study was, however, silent on the use of tone in Bekwara and its effect on the Bekwara leaner-users of English. The source however, concludes by stating that while the similarities affect learning positively, the differences affect learning negatively.

Eka and Udofot (1996) strongly agree that where there are similarities between the sound, lexis, grammar or any aspect of the language system of the an individual's first language and the second language there will be facilitation in the acquisition process; where there are differences between the first and second there will be interference.

The fact that all languages are subject to change or influence is given prominence by many linguists (Baugh et al, 2002). With particular reverence to the English language, they make us understand that English is subject to the constant growth, influence and decay which characterize all forms of life. They argue that where constant communications takes place between the people speaking a language, individual differences become merged in the general speech of the community and a certain level of conformity prevails. It is in this line of thought that one does not hesitate to assert that the Bokyi language has a general influence on the acquisition of English as a second language.

Quirk et al (1973, p.228) write in favour of interference of mother tongue on one language or another. According to the source, "there are usually traces left by someone's native language upon the foreign language someone has acquired". They exemplify this by referring to a French man imposing the French grammatical usage on English when he says I am here since Thursday. They conclude by opining that some of these interferences are so widespread in some communities and of such long standing that they may be thought stable

51

and adequate enough to be regarded as varieties of English in their own right rather than stages on the way to more native-like-English.

This may be the case with Nigerian, in what is usually referred to as Nigerian English. The standard version of the English language is so adulterated with the mother tongue that the speaker finds it hard to be convinced that what he or she speaks is not perfect. Hence, it is common to have people say 'I am coming' while the person is actually going, 'don't move with them' instead of 'don't associate with them', and a lot of other deviations (Yule, 1996, p.134).

Kirk –Green (2006) affirms that the mother tongue has great influence in written and spoken English. This, according to him, is in the area of direct inappropriate translation of English sentences as obtains in the mother tongue. For instance, it is common to hear people say 'prefer for' or 'prefer than' instead of 'prefer to', 'to cope up with', instead of 'cope with' and so on. These may be the result of sympathetic analogy, semantic shift instead of lexical birth.

Dada (2005, p.95) states that "for there to be effective communication in any language, the chain of sounds produced by the speaker must convey the same meaning to both the hearer and the speaker". This means that the language community establishes relationships between words and things or the realities they stand for or represent. This relationship between words and the realities they represent is different in each language for two reasons: words do not often cover the same reality in any two languages, for example, the English words 'hill' and 'mountain' cover or represent two kinds of highlands respectively, while there is only one word in many African languages standing for the two kinds of highlands, and this accounts for the usage of the words hill and mountain interchangeably by Africans using English as a second language.

A perfunctory look at the literature on contrastive analysis (CA) reveals that linguists, generally, have carried out researches on the relationship between languages as well as on the problems associated with the acquisition of a second language. Barth (1999, p.106) affirms the above in stating that "no two languages are exactly the same in all respects –there must, certainly be areas of similarities". This may be the reason for the interferences whenever an individual attempts to learn a second language (L2). According to Elemi (2001, p.151), it is the availability of the features of the mother tongue in the target language that makes the language user's output ineffective. The mother tongue, he argues, "is highly tyrannical in the acquisition of another language". From studies on interference, we are already familiar with the possibilities, namely, that where there are similarities between the sound systems of the learner –user's first language and the second language, there will be facilitation in the learning process; and where there are differences, there will be interference.

Orisawayi (1990, p.13), in an article titled *weak links in the chain of some basic composition skills of freshmen in a Nigeria university*, explores the specific area(s) of sentence patterns in the written English of freshmen, and also examines the problem(s) this/these area(s) has/have posed to the Nigerian learner-user. In his rigorous investigation and evaluation of the performance of L2 learner –users, Orisawayi presents the following findings from the West African Examination Council:…"the general low-level o performances of the candidates in English language, descending to an all-time-low in 1985, may have resulted partly from ineffective teaching techniques/strategies and inadequate English language syllabus at the primary and the secondary school levels of education". Though the central point of Orisawayi is on 'sentence patterns in the written English of freshmen'., the above excerpt reveals the 'all-time', '1985' 'low performance' of the L2 learner –users of English. The above findings of Orisawayi, though from the performances of students in the 1985 West African School Certificate Examination, is relevant to the present

study on contrastive linguistics, because the former reflects the relationship between L1 and L2, and the problem of English as a second language (ESL).

A contrastive study of the phonological systems of Bokyi and English by Bisong (1994) reveals areas of similarities and differences. Facilitation was predicted in the areas of similarities and difficulties in the areas of differences. The source also predicted difficulty in the area of English tense formation. This is so because while English uses suffixation and supletion for the realization of its tenses, Bokyi employs tone. A Bokyi learner-user of the English language certainly finds it difficult learning those areas of English that are different from Bokyi.

Breitsenstein (1988) in Nwankwo (2002, p.258) does acknowledge the problem solving effect of contrastive linguistic analysis. According to him, "where there is a difference, it calls for closer study and for recommendations as how to handle the strange new elements so as to overcome the user's natural inclination to follow the L1 pattern".

Gbadegesin (2003) agrees with Barth (supra) that no two languages are completely identical (grammatically). Three simple paradigms were cited to validate his argument on differences in languages. The paradigms are English, Toka and Chinese, all expressing the same meaning with different structures. Examples:

(i)   English: 'The man is going out.

(ii)   Toka: 'Molanuki ne wo'

(iii)   Chinese: 'Swiki loxaiki'.

From the above, it can be seen that while the English sentence bearing the same meaning consists of five (5) words, the Toka three (3) words, their Chinese equivalent has two (2) words only. The difference therefore calls for special attention of the users/learners of

the languages. Akume (1996), Chike (1990) and Ayo (1996) call for the need to identify the problem areas of the L2 users of any language (Akume, 1997).

Yule (1996) presents some sample data adapted from examples originally presented in Gleason (1965), and tries to work out which morphological features can be identified in those languages. The first is Kanuri, a language spoken in northern Nigeria.

(i)   Kanuri:

excellent	karite	-n∂mkarite	excellence
big	kura	-n∂mkura	bigness
small	gana	-n∂mgana	smallness
bad	dibi	-n∂mdibi	badness

From this set, we can propose that the prefix n∂m- is a derivational morpheme which can derive nouns from adjectives. Discovering a regular morphological feature of this type will enable us to make certain predictions when we encounter other forms in the language. For example, if the kanuri word for 'length' is *n∂mkurugu*, then we can be reasonably sure that 'long' is *kurugu.*

Different languages also employ different means to produce inflectional marking on forms. Here, are some examples from Luganda, a language spoken in Uganda:

(ii)   Luganda:

('doctor')	*omusawo*	-abasawo	('doctors')
('woman')	omukazi	-abakazi	('women')
('girl')	omuwala	-abawala	('girls')
('heir')	omusika	-abasika	('heirs')

From this small sample, we can observe that there is an inflectional prefix –omu-, used with singular nouns, and a different inflectional prefix aba-, used with the plural of those nouns. If

you are told that *abalenzi* is a Luganda plural, meaning 'boys', you should be able to determine the singular form, meaning 'boy'. It is, of course, *omulenzi*.

The following data from Ilocano, a language of the Philippines, will serve to illiterate a different method for marking plurals:

(iii)   Ilocano

('head')   ùlo   -ulùlo   ('heads')

('road')   dálan   -daidálan   ('roads')

(life')   biag   -bibiag   ('lives')

('plant')   mùla   -mulmùla   ('plants')

In these examples, there seems to be repetition of the first part of the singular form. When the first part is bi- in the singular, the plural begins with this form repeated, bibi-. The process involved here is technically known as reduplication and several languages use this repetition device as a means of inflectional marking. (Yule, 1996).

Finally, here are some intriguing data of Tagalog (another language of the Philippines) presented by Miguel (1999):

(iv)   Tagalog

basa ('read')   *tawag ('call')*   sulat ('write')

bumasa ('will read')   *tuwawag ('Call')*   sumulat ('Write')

babasa ('will read')   *tatawag('will call')* susulat ('will write')

If we assume that the first form in each set is some type of stem, then it appears that in the second member of each set an element –um- has been inserted after the first consonant. It must be an example of an infix. In the third member of each set, note that the change in form involves, in each case, a repetition of the first syllable. So, the marking of future reference in Tagalog appears to be accomplished via reduplication. If you know that *lapit* is the verb meaning 'come here' in Tagalog, how would you expect the expressions 'come here!' and

'will come here' to be realized? How about *lumapit* and *lalapit*? And if you hear *lalakad* ('will walk'), you can guess that *lakad* will translate as 'walk' (Miguel, 1999, p.232).

In conclusion, the standardization of a language is determined by the natives of that language. Also a second language learner may not be as competent as the native speaker of that language because of the tyranny of the mother tongue. The resultant imperfection prevails mostly in grammar, pronunciation and diction.

CHAPTER FOUR
INFLECTIONAL PROCESSES IN ENGLISH

Inflectional morphology is concerned with the addition of inflectional morpheme to the endings of roots. According to Crystal (1994, p. 238) "inflectional morphology examines the way in which words vary (or inflect) in order to express grammatical contrast in sentences, such as singular/plural or past /present tense…."Stump (2001, p.231) sees inflectional morphology as:

> A branch of morphology that is concerned with the manner in which lexical terms are combined with grammatical markers like plurality and tense. The class of the stem determines the grammatical marker to combine, for example, the English noun class cannot be combined with tense markers – eg, 'petered' from Peter, 'yamming' from 'yam' etc.

From the foregoing, it becomes clear that in inflectional process of word formation the word class of the root, to which an inflectional morpheme is added, is never altered. Rather, it modifies the form of the word to enable it fit into a particular grammatical category. For instance, the '-s' morphemes of nouns as in 'Books' merely carries the information regarding the number of books in question. It may be for this reason that Katamba (1993, p.109) describes inflectional morphemes as those which "do not change the referential or cognitive meaning".

By the rules of word formation in English, no other morpheme can be added after an inflectional morpheme. It is also not possible to have two inflectional morphemes at a time. In the word 'Illumination' for instance, the root of the word is 'illuminate', the derivational morpheme is '-ation', while the inflectional morpheme is '-s'. no other morpheme can be added to 'Illuminations' after the addition of the inflectional morpheme '-s'.

Words that are often inflected in English include nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives.

4.1 Inflection of English nouns.

Noun inflection un English usually takes the form of plurality and possession. For plurality, regular nouns inflect by adding the '-s' morpheme to the base. This plural morpheme (-s) changes its form depending o the phonological environment it finds itself: it can be /s/, /z/, or /iz/. These three sets of '-s' morpheme are generally covered, in realization parlance, by one term: the z morpheme (Eka, 1994). When the z morpheme relates to plural formation, it is called Z_1 morpheme; when it is concerned with the formation of possessives, it is called Z_2 morpheme; when it has to do with changes in verb forms, it is referred to as Z_3 or concord morpheme. The different kinds of morpheme therefore are:

Z_1 Plural

Z_2 Possessive

Z_3 Changes in verb forms

Since our concern in this section is specifically the inflection of English, nouns. We shall limit our discussion to the plural morpheme (Z_1) and the possessive morpheme (Z_2). In English, the plural morpheme (Z_1) has four (4) allomorphs: /s/, /z/, /iz/ and /Ø/. The morph /s/ occurs with words ending in voiceless sounds except /s/, /ʃ/ and /tʃ/ as in cats /kats, books /buks/, cups /kʌps/ etc. the Z allomorph occurs with words ending in voiced sounds including all vowels and voiced consonants as in the following examples: mangoes/mæng∂uz/, boys /bɔicz/, bags /bægz/ etc. the /IZ/ is selected by words which end in alveolar or alveo-palatal sibilants (that is, consonants with sharp hissing sound as /s, z, tʃ, dʒ/ as in the words bushes /buʃiz/, fishes /fiʃiz/, churches /tʃʌtʃiz/, judges /dʒʌdʒiz/. The zero allomorph /Ø/ occurs with words which normally do not have plurals reflected in their morphological shapes as in sheep, salmon and deer.

Also, some loan words (borrowed into English from Latin) do not take the plural morpheme (Z_1), rather, a consonant or vowel is changed, replaced or added to have its plural, e.g. larva –larvae, schema-schemata, stimulus –stimuli, datum-data, or-oxen, child-children, goose-geese, tooth-teeth, thief-thieves, man-men.

Another inflection of the English noun is the addition of the possessive morpheme (Z_2) is similar in distribution to the (Z_1) morpheme. The only difference is in the orthographic convention. Whereas plurals are not written with apostrophes, possessives have the apostrophe in a specified position. The distribution of the Z_2 morpheme is as follows:

/S/   occurs with words ending in voiceless sounds except the sibilant consonants as in Mark's /Mæks/, Margaret's /mægrets/.

/Z/   occurs after voiced sounds other than sibilants as in James /dʒeimz/, Martins /Ma:tinz/

/IZ/   occurs after sibilant sounds as in nurse's /n∧siz/, Rose's /r∂usiz/

/Ø/   occurs with word which end with sibilant which may be plurals or words that naturally end with the letter 's' as in *Jones'* /dʒ∂uns/ and students' /stju:d∂nts/, Agnes /agnis/ etc.

The English possessive morpheme, unlike the plural morpheme, does not occur frequently because it is often replaced with 'of + noun phrase constructions' as in: 'The Army Nigeria' instead of 'Nigeria's Army', 'The Vice Chancellor of the University of Calabar' instead of 'University of Calabar's Vice Chancellor', etc.

In spite of all the phonological variants, certain possessive pronouns are indicated by suffixing '-s' (without the apostrophe) to the base pronounced form: 'yours, ours' except 'mine' (mines?). Besides, pronouns in English select sentence positions in which they occur. These pronouns are modified by the sentence to serve syntactic functions. For instance, it will be syntactically unacceptable to use 'she' at the objective position of a sentence. Consider the following:

     *   I slapped *she* yesterday

     ✓   I slapped *her* yesterday

Thus, the morphological shape of the pronoun 'she' (in the subjective case) changes to her (in objective case).

4.2 Inflection of English pronouns

Pronouns are those grammatical items which may function in place of nouns or noun phrases. But, whereas nouns have plural forms of all sorts, and such plurals result in various kinds of morphological changes, the pronouns have a different pattern of plurality. We cannot for instance say:

'hes' as the plural of 'he' or

'shes' as the plural of 'she'

But we ca n say 'trees ' is the plural of 'tree', and 'men' is the plural of 'man', etc.

However, we are not suggesting that pronouns in English do not have plurals at all. Rather, we are saying that plural formation in English pronouns is different from plural formation in English nouns. For instance, the plural of 'I' is 'we'; that of 'mine' is not 'mines' but 'ours' etc, a process that is directly linked up with changes in person, and is not predictable.

Pronouns undergo changes in person and such changes affect the verbal patterning in the environment where they occur. For instance, we have the following changes in person, as shown below in Table 2 (below)

From Table 2 (below), we can see that English pronouns are broadly classified in three groups on morphological grounds, namely, personal pronouns, denoting grammatical person, the relative pronouns, and demonstrative (deitic) pronouns (Tomori, 1977). A glance at the personal pronouns reveals that 'I, you, she, he, it, me, him, him' etc are all singular, while 'we, you, they, them, us, our, your, their, theirs, ours; etc are all plurals. The pronoun

'you' features both as singular and as plural. It usually takes the plural verb anytime it occurs near a verbor verbal, even if it refers to a singular noun. For example, we can say:

'You are needed in the office', when the reference is to one person or more people.

TABLE 2

English pronoun classification and changes in person

Personal pronouns		Subject	Objective	Possessive (the genetive)	Possessive (predicative)
Number	Person	A	B	C	D
Singular	1st person	I	Me	My	Mine
	2nd person	You	You	Your	Yours
	3rd person	He	Him	His	His
		She	Her	Her	Hers
		It	It	Its	Its
Plural	1st person	We	Us	Our	Ours
	2nd Person	You	You	Your	Yours
	3rd person	They	Them	Their	Theirs
Relative pronoun		Who	Who or Whom	Whose	Whose
		Which	Which		
Demonstrative pronouns		That	That		
		This	This		
		Those	Those		
		These	These		

Column 'A' shows the pronouns which regularly function in the subject position in English utterances eg, I, she, or you like football. Colum 'B' shows the pronouns which regularly occur in the object position e.g. Ben spoke to me, him, her, you etc. column 'C' shows the pronouns which are indicative of ownership (possessions –the =genetive) e.g. my, your, his or her book. Finally, column 'D' shows those possessive pronouns that come after the verb (the predicative), e.g.the car is yours, mine, theirs, hers, his, etc.

4.3 Inflection of English verb

English verbs inflect in five forms: The base or infinitive (v), the 3rd person singular form (v+s), the progressive (v+ing), the past imperfective (v+ed$_1$) and the past perfective (v+ed$_2$). The way these forms inflect depends on whether the verb is regular or irregular. In English, a verb is said to be regular if it fits into a paradigm that yields consistent inflectional suffixes, marking the base form from the modified forms. Table 3 (below) distinguishes the inflectional pattern of regular and irregular verbs. The verbs under (i) are regular, because they are inflected in a uniform and predictable manner. But, those under (ii) are irregular, because their past and perfect tenses are realized in a variety of unpredictable forms:

TABLE 3
Inflection of English verbs

V	V+-s	V+ing	V+edi	V+edz
(i)				
Walk	Walks	Walking	Walked	Walked
Greet	Greets	Greeting	Greeted	Greeted
Laugh	Laughs	Laughing	Laughed	Laughed
(ii)				
Eat	Eats	Eating	Ate	Eaten
Hit	Hits	Hitting	Hit	Hit
Take	Takes	Taking	Took	Taken

Like the z morphemes (discussed earlier in this section) the past tense inflectional morpheme (also referred to as the D morpheme) yields three allomorphs arising from the phonological conditioning of their environments. The past tense morpheme (-ed) has the following allomorphs /t/, /d/ and /id/ e.g.

Kicked /kikt/

Ministered /minist∂d/

Wanted /wɔntid/

From the above, we noted that:

/t/   occurs after bases ending in voiceless sounds except /t/

/d/   occurs after bases ending in voiced sounds except /d/ and

/id/   occurs after bases ending in the sounds /t/ and /d/.

We also have the zero allomorph /Ø/ which occurs where in an irregular verb, there is no change in the morphological shape of a verb as it occurs in the past or non past, e.g

hit (non past), hit (past)

put (non past), put (past) etc.

4.4 Inflection of English adjectives

English adjectives inflect in three forms, namely the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. Whereas the regular adjectives inflect by adding the degree morpheme –er/more and –est/ most to the base, to from their comparative and superlative degrees respectively, the irregular adjectives, on the other hand, from their comparative and superlative degrees in a variety of unpredictable ways. Below are a few examples of how the English regular and irregular adjectives are inflected:

Regular adjectives

Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Big	bigger	biggest
Short	shorter	shortest
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
Hopeful	more hopeful	most hopeful
Grateful	more grateful	most grateful

Irregular adjectives

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Many	more	most
Well	better	best etc.

From the irregular adjectives above, it can be seen that polysyllabic adjectives take the comparative adverb 'more' and its variant 'most' for their modification, to give them their comparative and superlative degrees, while the monosyllabic adjectives take the morphemes '-er' and '-est' for their comparative and superlative degrees respectively.

However, there exists another class of adjectives (the non-gradable adjectives). This classes of adjectives names absolute or extreme qualities. Such qualities cannot therefore be compared or expressed in degrees. A few examples are fatal, superior, unique, terrible, ghastly, wrong, right, round etc. (Eka, 1994).

It may also be important to note that some English words of identical morphological shape may be used as adverb or as adjective. Boadi et al (1971) in Eka (1994, p.98) lists 31 of such words (adverb/preposition or adjective) among which are: in, out, up, down, beyond, round, since, across, along, past, after, before. For example, we can say:

The players left at noon, the officials followed *after* (adverb)

The players left at noon, the officials followed *after* that time (preposition)

While other students went behind, Nkoyo walked *across* (adverb)

While other students went behind, Nkoyo walked *across* the lawn. (preposition)

We want to ride in the *early* bus. (adjective)

We rode on the bus to that left *early* (adverb)

When you get to the junction, make a *right turn.*(adjective)

When you get to the junction, turn *right* (adverb).

4.5 Inflection of English adverbs

Adverbs in English have varied morphological shapes: those formed through the addition of a derivational morpheme to the base, e.g.

| anyway | - | 'any-' being prefixed to 'way' |
| intelligently | - | '-ly' being suffixed to 'intelligent' |

Those formed through the addition of an inflectional morpheme to the base, e,g.

| Sooner | - | '-er' being suffixed to 'soon' |
| Nowhere | - | 'no-' being prefixed to 'where' |

Those formed through affixation e.g. here, there, now, soon, fast, within, behind, well etc.

This situation, however, specifically deals with the inflection of English adverbs. That is, adverbs derived through the addition of inflectional affixes to the base, without altering it word class. In this circumstance, we find adverbs to inflect in the same system way adjectives do in their degrees of comparison. Examples:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
fast	faster	fastest
early	earlier	earliest
soon	sooner	soonest
far	farther/further	farthest/furthest
quickly	more quickly	most quickly

CHAPTER FIVE
INFECTIONAL PROCESSES IN BOKYI

According to Tawo (1977, pg.45) inflection of words in Bokyi is not as productive as the inflection of words in English. However, inflection in Bokyi applies to nouns, adjectives, and verbs. We shall here examine how inflection in Bokyi applies to each of the subclasses of words listed above:

5.1 **Inflection of Bokyi nouns**:

This study reveals that Bokyi nouns are inflected by taking on any one of the following plural markers at the beginning of the word: 'ba-', 'bu-', 'bi-'   'a-''e-'. However, the choice of anyone of the above as plural marker is not arbitrary, it is dictated by the initial sound(s) of the word requiring a plural marker;

> Nouns that have 'bu-', 'n-' as initial sound/syllable (as the case may be) would taken on 'ba-' as the plural marker, e.g. the plural of <u>bu</u>kwan (bee) is <u>ba</u>kwan (bees), <u>n</u>sang (writer), <u>ba</u>sang (writers), <u>m</u>bi (builder), <u>ba</u>mbi (builders) etc. Nouns that have 'di-' as initial syllable take on'a-' as plural marker, e.g the plural of <u>di</u>fi (door) is <u>a</u>fi (doors).

> Nouns that have 'ka-' as iniotial syllable take on 'bu-' as plural marker example the plural of <u>ka</u>ti (pot) is <u>bu</u>ti (pots).

> Nouns that have 'ki-` as initial sounds take on `bi-` as plural marker, e,g. the plural of <u>ki</u>chi (seat) is <u>bi</u>chi (seats).

In all of the above cases the plural marker is found to replace the initial syllable of a given word. Other examples are as follows:

> <u>bu</u>kwop (road) <u>ba</u>kwop (roads)

busa (power) basa (powers)

bukan (force) bakan (forces)

nkan (temptation) bakan (temptations)

nkere (time) bankere (times)

mpan (judgment) bampan (judgments)

mgban (servant) bambang (servants)

dikan (farm) akan (farms)

dichi (eye) achi (eyes)

dizen (name) azin (names)

dikun (grave) akun (graves)

kabi (dog) bubi (dogs)

kati (pot) buti (pots)

kashuam (knife) bushwam (knives)

karing (bed) buring (beds)

kifat (farm) bifat (farms)

kidi (cloth) bidi (clothes)

kiwong (thorn) biwong (thorns)

From the above examples, it can be seen that Bokyi nouns are inflected by alternating

the initial syllable – bu with ba, ki with bi, ka with bu and ki with bi respectively.

5.2 **Inflection of Bokyi adjectives**:

Like the English adjectives, the Bokyi adjectives are inflected in three forms, namely,

the positive, the comparative and the superlative. But, whereas the English adjectives are

inflected by adding the degree morpheme –er/more and –est/most to the base to form their

comparative and superlative degrees, thje Bokyi adjectives are inflected by placing the

enclitic 'kishuom', /'oshuom' and 'kishuom gbat'/'oshumom gbat' immediately after the

base of form their comparative and superlative degrees respectively. The following

demonstrate the formation of the comparative and superlative forms of Bokyi adjectives:

Positive + Kishuom /Oshuom $\Rightarrow$ comparative

            (more than)

Positive +v Kishuom gbat/Oshuom gbat $\Rightarrow$ superlative

              (more than)

Table 4 (below) which sows the inflection of Bokyi adjectives may be interpreted as follows:

The positive form of the Bokyi adjective has either 'ki-' or 'o-' as initial sound,

TABLE 4

The inflection of Bokyi adjectives

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
(a)		
Kiben	kiben kishuom	kiben kishuom gbat
(bad)	(worse)	(worst)
kifuo	kifuo kishuom	kifuo kishuom
(rotten)	(more rotten)	(most rotten)
kikeme	kikeme kishuom	kikeme kishuom gbat
(short)	(shorter)	(shortest)
kire	kire kishuom	kire kishuom gbat
(big)	(bigger)	(biggest)
kikrong	kikrong kishuom	kikrong kishuom
(high)	(higher)	(highest)
(b)		
okuob	okuob oshuom	okuob oshuom
(tall)	(taller)	(tallest)
osong	osong oshuom	osong oshuom gbat
(hot)	(hotter)	(hottest)
onyua	onyua oshuom	onyua oshuom gbat
(beautiful)	(more beautiful)	(most beautiful)
oka	oka oshuom	oka oshuom
(old)	(older)	(oldest)

okwang	okwang oshuom	okwang oshuom gbat
(quick)	(quicker)	(quickest)

Where 'ki-' is the initial sound of the positive form of the adjective, it comparative form would consist of <u>the positive + kishuom</u>, while its superlative form would consist of the <u>positive +kushuom gbat</u> (see the (a) part of the Table 6 above). Where 'o-' is the initial sound of the positive form of the adjective, it comparative form would consist of <u>the positive + oshuom gbat</u>, while it superlative form would consist of <u>the positive +oshuom gbat</u> (see the (b) part of the table above).

Bokyi has no irregular adjectives, and the comparative and superlative forms are inflected in a consistent and predictable manner.

CHAPTER SIX
SIMILARITIES/DIFFERENCES IN THE INFLECTIONAL PROCESSES OF ENGLISH AND BOKYI

Based on empirical study of the inflectional processes of English and Bokyi, we shall, here, juxtapose and discuss the respective areas of similarities/differences and offer predictions as it affects the Bokyi learner-users of English.

According to Bisong (2010 pg. 156), while inflection of words in English applies to nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives, inflection of words in Bokyi applies to nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs only. While noun, inflection in English occurs in plurality and possession, the Bokyi noun inflection occurs only in plurality. Also, while English forms it plurals nouns by suffixing the plural morphemes '-s' or '-es' to the base, Bokyi, forms its plural nouns by prefixing any of the following plural markers to the base: 'ba-', 'bu-', 'bi-', 'a-', 'e-'. However, the choice of any of the above as plural marker is dependent upon the initial sound(s) of the base.

The problem encountered by the Bokyi learner-users of English with regards to plural formation in English is not prompted by the fact that English forms a plural through suffixation and Bokyi through prefixation, but by the fact while the Bokyi plural nouns are basically regular, the English plurals nouns are either regular or irregular. This irregular formation in English, particularly in the case of suppletion poses a serious problem to the Bokyi learners of English as a second language. This answers the question why the Boki indigenes who responded to the questionnaire could not produce the plural form of word such as larva, memorandum, agendum and schema. It was observed that the addition of the suffixes '-let', '-nette', '-en' to the base, renders some of the sub-classes of English nouns diminutive. This feature of English word formation is equally alien to Bokyi learners of

English. This area of difference need be noted by the Bokyi/English bilinguals and language instructors.

In English, also, nouns are inflected by adding the possessive morpheme '-s' to the base through suffixation, e.g:

(i)   Peter's house,

(ii)   The nation's oil wells (more examples and illustrations have already been provided in the early part of this section)

In contrast, Bokyi lacks the possessive marker. Possession in Bokyi is exhibited in context. Consequently, Bokyi speakers of English tens to impose this language situation on their corpus of English constructions. The following was discovered from the translation exercise given to the Bokyi students.

English	**Bokyi**
Paul's father →	bonchi Paul (father Paul)
Janeth's book →	nwet Janeth (book Janeth) or
	nwet mu Janeth (book of Janeth)

From the above, it can be seen that unlike English nouns, which are proceeded by adjectives/adverbs (e.g. University Council), Bokyi reverse the order so that the head of the Bokyi nominal group takes the position of what in English is the adjective.

Example:

English	**Bokyi**
Paul 's house	→	kise Paul (house Paul)
John's house	→	onyi John (wife John)

The data gathered also revealed that there is zero plural morpheme in certain English and Bokyi words; a situation which should ordinarily facilitate the learning processes. But, a leaner difficulty is posed by the fact that there is no one to one correspondence between English and Bokyi words that have zero plural morpheme. For instance, while the word

'sheep' has zero plural morpheme in English, it does not have in Bokyi. The tendency, therefore, is for a Bokyi learner of English as a second language to misuse those English nouns that have zero plural morphemes. This answers the question why the following errors were made by Bokyi respondents who were tested with the questionnaire. Examples:

(i)   Sheeps, councils, furnitures (were given as plural)
(ii)   My father <u>have</u> ten cat, six goat, three cock.

The error in the first example (i) results from the fact that those words do not have zero plural morpheme in Bokyi while the error in example (ii) is the result of the fact that cat, goat, and cock have zero morpheme in Bokyi. The highlighted errors /problem areas of the Bokyi learner –users of English in the area of noun inflection may have resulted from the differences in the word formation patterns in the two languages. This calls for pedagogical attention.

Our analyst of the English verbs (in the early part of this section) revealed that while the regular English verbs are inflected through suffixation (a pattern that is consistent and predictable) the English irregular verbs are inflected in their unique and unpredictable manner.

In contrast, Bokyi verbs are inflected by first adding the pronominal prefixed 'o-' or 'okuo-' (as the case may be) to the base to form a verb. While the addition of the prefix 'okuo-' to the base will simply produce the progressive form of the verb, the addition of the prefix 'o- ' to the same base would produce a structure that would require the application of tone to have the other four forms of the same verb namely, the past imperfective, the past perfective, the present tense (3rd person singular) and the negative form of the verb. So, while English uses suffixes to show tense Bokyi uses pronominal prefixes and tone to indicate tense.

From the above, it can be seen that the manner of verb inflection in the two languages is different in all respects. The situation creates learning problem for any Bokyi learner of

English as second language. The result of the questionnaire and oral interview administered to Bokyi speakers of English revealed that many Bokyi learners of English as a second language have no problem with the English progressive form. This may have result from the fact the production of the progressive form of both English and Bokyi have similarity of adding something to the base –a suffix (-ing) to the English base, and a prefix (okuo-) to the Bokyi base.

The two languages realize the other forms of the verb differently; while English uses the suffixes '-s' and '-ed', Bokyi uses tone. This differences may account for the following expressions from the composition test administered to the secondary school students.

(i)   My sister <u>go</u> to school yesterday
(ii)   They are all <u>run to school</u>
(iii)   I have <u>give</u> him his book
(iv)   The <u>like</u> to eat chewing gum every time.
(v)   My father <u>see</u> gain from the chair business

Also, Bokyi lacks the exact equivalences of the English modal auxiliaries verbs – shall, should, will, would, can could, may, might. All of the above are represented by the Bokyi 'nichi'. This poses a serious learning problem to the Bokyi learners of English as a second language. The study also revealed that whereas there is regularity in the realization of the various forms of Bokyi verb, the English tense system is complex, as some past verbs (irregular verbs) are realized through the process of substitution where vowels of the roots are replaced by other sounds to form other words.

(i)   They have <u>given</u> them the money
(ii)   They have <u>took</u> it to the headmaster.

These learning difficulties, resulting from the dissimilarities in the inflectional processes of the English and Bokyi verbs, cal for the attention of both the Bokyi learners and the teachers of English as second language.

It was also revealed that pronouns such as personal pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstrative pronouns operate in the two languages –English and Bokyi. The personal pronoun in both languages operate at the level of 1st, 2nd and 3rd person singular and plural, and at the subjective, objective and possessive case. This shows a considerable level of similarity. But, examining closely the composition/operation of each type of pronouns, one discovers that there are glaring differences between the pronouns of English and those of Bokyi.

Table 5 (below) shows that while some Bokyi pronouns have one to one correspondence with some English pronouns (e.g nki-yen→itself, kira →which etc), others represent two or more English pronouns (e.g. the Bokyi equivalent of the English pronouns, he, she, him, and her, is yi while the Bokyi equivalent of the English possessive pronouns his, hers and its is emen). The tendency over this situation is for Bokyi learners of English to misuse those English pronouns that are equally represented by a particular Bokyi pronoun.

TABLE 5

English pronouns and their Bokyi equivalence

_____

Bokyi pronouns	English equivalence

Personal pronouns

mé …………………………………...	I, me
bé ……………………………………	we, us
wo ……………………………………	you (sg), you (p)
yi ………………………………….	He, she, him, her
nki ……………………………………	it (subj), it (obj)
mbe…………………………………	they, them

Possessive pronouns

ji ……………………………………	my, mine
kitten ………………………………….	Our, ours
eyen …………………………………	you, yours
emen …………………………………..	his, hers, it, its
bé ………………………………….	their

Reflexive pronouns

me-yen …………………………………	Myself
be-yen …………………………………..	ourselves
wo-yen …………………………………	yourself
ben-yen …………………………………	yourselves
yi-yen …………………………………..	himself, herself
nki-yen …………………………………	itself
mbe-yen ………………………………...	themselves

Relative pronouns

ye ………………………………………..	who, whom, whose
kira …………………………………...	which

Demonstrative pronouns

nkin …………………………………	this
nki-ene ………………………………...	that
nbin …………………………………	these
mbi-ene ……………………………..	those

This may account for the errors recorded in the translation exercise administered to the secondary school students and the primary school teachers. The following are the sentences recorded"

(i)   <u>Who</u> bag do you carry
(ii)   The goat put <u>it</u> mouth in the water

     (iii)   The teacher give Oka <u>him </u>money yesterday………..

     (iv)   <u>Me</u> I will no go to fetch the water

     (v)   The book is <u>his own </u>(his)

The English inflectional suffix '-selves' is usually added to a word to show plurality of reflexive pronouns (e.g myself $\Rightarrow$ yourselves, herself or himself $\Rightarrow$ themselves) on the other hand, Bokyi inflectional suffix '-yen' is usually added to the stem of a personal pronoun to show plurality, for example:

be-<u>yen</u> (ourselves)
ben-yen (yourselves)
mbe-yen (themselves)

The two languages therefore have a similar system of plurality of personal pronouns, which does not pose learning problems to a Bokyi learner of English as a second language.

While English has both the regular, irregular and the non-gradable adjectives, Boki has but the regular adjectives. These have already have discussed. Like the English regular adjectives, the Bokyi adjectives, which are also regular, are inflected in three forms namely, the positive, the comparative and the superlative. But, whereas, the English adjectives (regular) are inflected by adding the degree morpheme –er/more and –est/most to the base to form their comparative and superlative degrees, the Bokyi adjectives are inflected by placing the enclitic kishuom/oshuom and kishuom gbat/oshuom gbat immediately after the base to form their comparative and superlative degrees respectively. This has already been discussed in the early part of this section. So, in Bokyi the above adjectival groups consistently serve as the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives. The Bokyi adjectives are, therefore, similar to the English regular adjectives in terms of consistency/regularity and predictability. This enhances the learning process in both languages.

But, the Boki learners of English as a second language express difficulty in the learning of irregular adjectives as well as non-gradable adjectives. This may be caused by the fact that such types of adjectives are lacking in Bokyi. The following written expressions of

some SSS III students in the questionnaire shows the students' areas of difficulty in English

adjectives:

(i)	high	higher	highest
(ii)	great	greater	greatest
(iii)	short	shorter	shortest
(iv)	bad	bader	baddest
(v)	little	little	?
(vi)	many	?	?
(vii)	wells	wells	?
(viii)	round	rounder	roundest
(ix)	fatal	?	?
(x)	superior	?	?

This calls for serious pedagogical attention to irregular and non gradable adjectives.

CHAPTER SEVEN
DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES IN ENGLISH

As earlier mentioned in section 2,2 of this text, when a word is made up of only one morpheme, we can refer to it, in morphological terms, as   the root. Affixes (bound morphemes) can then be added to the root which now serves as a foundation of word building. The addition of affixes to the root would naturally result in one of the two main categories or processes of word formation (derivational or inflectional morphology). Basically while the result of a derivational process is a new word (e.g. nation→national), the result of an inflectional process is a different form of the same word (e.g nation, nations).

Derivational morphology, according to Udofot (1999, p.46) is a word formation process "whereby affixes are added to the root or base of words to produce other words of similar or different classes".

A derivative does not close word boundary, hence it can further derive or inflect as can be seen in the following examples:-

natural → naturalise → naturalization

power → powerless →powerlessness

beauty → beautiful → beautifully

From the above it can be seen that a derivational affix can cause a major grammatical change from one word class to another as in slave/enslave, power, powerless, where a noun becomes a verb in the first case and an adjective in the second. In some cases, the addition of a derivational affix may cause just a minor change, as when the base changes to a minor subclass within the same word class in pig→ piglet both nouns but one is a diminutive form of the other.

There are other cases whereby a derivative may result not by the addition of any orthographic morpheme (affix) but by mere phonological manipulation, say a shift of stress or voicing of some consonant endings. Generally, derivation as a word formation process operates in various forms, namely, affixation (prefixation /suffixation/infixation), compounding, blending, clipping, syncopation, backformation, coinage, borrowing, acronymy, Alphasis, Antonomesia, reduplication. While some of the above are rule governed (following the word formation rules) other are rule-blending (not following the word formation rules). They are specifically examined in the proceedings sections.

7.1 Derivational prefixation and suffixation in English

Derivational prefixation is a process of forming words by adding a prefix to the root or base with or without a change of the word class of the base or root. These affixes, according to Baur (1993), can be added to the root of a noun, adjective or verb to derive other words of similar or different classes as can be seen from Table 6 (below) which shows derivational prefixes English.

Derivational suffixation is a morphological process that results in the formation of new lexemes (Lyons, 1997). Beside the production of new lexemes, Baur (1994, p.213) states that "derivational can involve many variables in an open system, can characterize by low compatibility within word formed and is typically and semantically irregular".

According to Eka (2001, p.87), a "derivational suffix is a suffix which, when added at the end of a root or base, changes the grammatical class of the verb". For instance, if the derivational suffix '-ly' is added to the word 'clever', we have 'cleverly', moving from adjective to noun. It is in these sense that derivational suffixes are said to be productive –they 'produce' words of different grammatical classes. Table 7 (below) shows common derivational suffixes in English, the types bases to which they can be attached and the word

class of the derived words. Sometimes a derivational suffix is added to an already derived base, giving us another derived word of a different word class (see Table 8).

Sometimes a derivational suffix is productive in a cyclical manner, i.e the addition of a derivational suffix results in the production of a word that belongs to the same class as the earlier one, examples:

technic (noun), technician (noun)

coward (noun), cowardice (noun).

It is common knowledge that words of identical morphological shape sometimes function as different grammatical elements. In such cases, the contexts in which they feature specify their word classes. Such words can be said to be derived through the addition of a zero morpheme, (Strang, 1990) for example, we can have

Look at my house (Verb)

Take a very look at him (noun)

TABLE 6

Derivational prefixes of English

Prefix		Word class of base	Meaning	Word class of derived word	Examples
in-		adjective– accurate	Not	adjective	un-accurate
un-	-	adjective- kind	Not	adjective	un-kind
un-	-	verb- continue	Reversive	Verb	dis-continue
dis-	-	abstract noun- order	Not	abstract noun	dis-order
dis-	-	adjective-honest	Not	adjective	dis-honest
re-	-	verb- write	Again	Verb	re-write
en- -		noun- president	Former	Noun	ex-president
en-	-	noun- danger	Put in	Verb	en-danger

a-	-	adjective loud	High	adverb	a-loud
a-	-	noun-head	Above	adverb	a-head
a-	-	verb-sleep	Deep	adverb	a-sleep
any-	-	noun-body	amount of	pronoun	any-body
some--		adverb-where	amount of	adverb	some-where
every--		adverb-where	members of	adverb	every-where
no-	-	adverb-where	Not	adverb	no-where
mis-	-	verb-inform	Wrongly	Verb	mis-inform

TABLE 7

Derivational suffixes in English

Suffix	Word class of base	Meaning	Word class of derived word	Examples
-ment	verb-govern	Result	Noun	government
-ness	Adjective happy	Quality	abstract noun	happiness
-ity	adjective depraved	Condition or state	abstract noun	depravity
-ship	noun-friend	State or condition	abstract noun	friendship
-hood	noun-mother	Status	abstract	motherhood
-ly	adjective graceful	Manner	adverb	gracefully
-al	verb-refuse	Act of	abstract noun	Refusal
-er	verb-	agent who does	Noun	reader

82

	read	what the verb indicate		
-or	Sail	"		sailor
-ar	Lie	"		liar
-ful	noun-beauty	Having	adjective	beautiful
-less	noun-power	Without	adjective	powerless
-al	noun-medicine	Pertaining to	adjective	medicinal

TABLE 8

Derivational suffix added to an already derived base

1st derived word/class	Derivational suffix	2nd derived word class
Regrettable (adjective)	-ly	regrettably (adverb)
Development (noun)	-al	developmental (adjective)

Back this baby (verb)

Turn your back to the wall (noun)

He is the head of this house (noun)

I will head for Lagos tomorrow (verb)

Finally, it needs to be noted that the rules of word formation in English allow the addition of an inflectional suffix to a derived word. Once this is done, an English word cannot, however, normally allow any further suffixation. The following are examples:

Developments, lightens etc.

7.2 Conversion as a word formation process in English

Conversion is a term used to refer to the derivational process of whereby an item (a word) comes to belong to a new word-class without the addition of an affix. This is exactly the case with English where some words change their part of speech (e.g. from verb to noun and from adjective to verb) without necessarily undergoing any reduction or enlargement by way of affixation. A number of nouns in English such as drive, butter, man, father, ship, nail, palce, bottle, carpet, smell, taste, hit, walk and brake can also function as verbs. Also, adjectives such as dirty, empty, lower, total can function as verbs.

Similarly, words can be converted from closed system words to nouns, from phrases to adjectives and from one subclasses of noun to another as in the following examples;

> This book is *must* for everybody (modal to noun)
> He is a *behind-the-scene* leader (prepositional phrase to adjective)
> He is one of the *has-beens* (verb to noun)
> She is a *Jeremiah* (proper to common noun)
> Some *paints* are more lasting than others (non count to count noun).

Conversion in English is sometimes incomplete. That is, a word in the process f changing its word-class undergoes a slight change in pronunciation or spelling. The alterations manifest in a variety of ways; the most important being voicing of final consonants and stress shift.

(a)   **Voicing of final consonants**

This can be seen in the following example

advice →   advise
sheath → sheathe
belief →believe

(b)   **Stress shift**

When verbs of two syllables are converted into nouns there is sometimes a forward stress shift from the second to the syllable as in:

<u>Verb</u>	<u>noun</u>
pre'sent	'present
con'duct	'conduct
ex'tract	'extract
in'sult	'insult

84

Other terms used for this phenomenon (conversion) include zero derivational, zero affixation, functional shift, and category change (Quirk et al, 1973; Katamba, 1993; Udofot, 2005; Ndimele, 2003).

7.3 Reduplication in English

While Katamba (1993, p.98) describes reduplication as "a process of word formation where there is a repetition of all the parts of the radical elements (the base morpheme or form)", Robins (1989, p. 289) sees it as "a type of grammatical formation, whereby a part or the whole of a root form is repeated in the same word". Accordingly, reduplication may be partial or full depending on whether all the parts of the radical elements are reduplicated or doubled. The repetition of just a part or parts of the base from results in partial reduplication (Udom, 1996) Examples: Walkie talkie, ding-dong (of bell), hanky-panky, tip-top etc. examples of the full reduplication include the following: din –din (dinner), hush-hush, pretty-pretty, goody-goody, fifty-fifty.

Reduplications are informal in English and are created for several purposes (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973 in Udofot, 1999) which include:

(a)   Suggestion of alternating movements as in seesaw, zigzag and crisscross;

(b)   Imitation of sounds as in tick –tock, sing-song, and the title-tattle

(c)   Intensification as in tip-top, rattle-dazzle

(d)   Suggestion of nonsense, insincerity, vacillation and instability as in wishy-washy, higgledy-piggledy and dilly-dally.

7.4 Compounding in English

In English, apart from the derivation of new words by the addition of affixes to the base, words are formed by combining two or more bases or free forms. In other words, a compound word contains two or more morphemes that function independently in other

circumstances. This is the process of compounding, and the resulting words are called compounds. Orthography is not, however, a reliable guide for identifying compounds as some compound words are written with or without hyphens depending on the lexicographer (Trudgil, 1994) gives an example of a disagreement even among linguists in the spelling of the compound 'word-formation' as follows: some problem of   wordformation (Rohrer, 1974), word formation in generative grammar (Arnoff, 1976), and English word-formation (Baur, 1993). As we can see, the same compounds is spelt as one word by Rohrer, as two words by Arnoff and as hyphenated word by Baur.

It is for the above reason that linguist like Bloomfield (1973) in Blair (1995, p.132) see ascent subordination as "the guide to the identification of compounds". Since one word ascent dominate the rest in an compound, Bloomfield argues that ICE cream with the primary ascent ICE is a compound but ICE CREAM with equal stress on the two words is a phrase. Similarly, a Dining room would be a compound word referring to a room used for dinning while a DINNING ROOM (if it exists) would refer to a room that dines. It is phonologically patterned. Compounding is a derivational process not only for the reason that it may change the word class(es) of the components or derivative, and the derivative boundary may not be closed to further word formation processes. Examples:

School + teacher + s
Girl + friend +s etc.

Compounding are classified into two main groups –endocentric and exocentric. An endocentric compound is made up of two independent words, one of which is the head. Thus, endocentric compound names a sub-group within the class of objects, persons etc. that the head blackboard is a kind of board, a bedroom is a kind of room while a playboy is a kind of boy. The underlined sections of the compounds are the heads which form the dominant part

of the compound to which inflectional morphemes can be added as backboard<u>s</u>, bedroom<u>s</u> and playboy<u>s</u>. Other examples of endocentric compound include the following:

hair cut - N+N

ash tray – N+N

paleface – Adj + N

loudmouth – Adj + N

oversight – Pre + N

outskirts – Pre + N

undergraduate – Pre + N

Worth nothing, also, is the fact that there is no limit to the seize of compound words. For instance, Noun + Noun compounds like <u>seaside</u> and <u>flourmill</u> can be combined to form <u>seaside flourmill</u> (complex endocentric compound). Exocentric compounds, on the other hand, are compounds which do not have elements that functions as the semantic heads which are modified by the non-head element. It is therefore not possible to work out the of an exocentric compound from the respective meanings of the constituents. This is why the meaning of an exocentric compound is said to be opaque (Katamba, 1993 in Udofot, 1999). This also explains why exocentric compounding is not as productive as the endocentric one in the formation of new words in English.

Generally, in English, compounds can be formed by affixing verbs to nouns, preposition to nouns, adjectives to noun, nouns to nouns, verbal noun to noun, adjective to adjective. Examples:

oversize –Pre + N

flashlight – V + N

high court – Adj + N

hydrogen bomb – N+N

swimming pool – verbal noun+ N

bitter sweet – Adj + Adj

7.5 **Segmentation of words in English**

In English, linguistic units are normally joined together in a bond. Units so joined are said to be in syntagmatic relationship, which occur at the phonological, syntactic and morphological levels (Eka, 2001).

Tomori (1977, p.98) argues that "any word made up of more than one morpheme has its components joined in a syntagmatic relationship, that is, the morphemes are syntagmatically related". By implication, such as word segmentable. That is, the constituent parts (morphemes) of the word can be separated into identifiable grammatical units. For instance, the word 'nationality'/næʃ∂næl∂t/ is made up of three morphemes /næʃ∂n+æli+ti/. The three morphemes are joined together in a syntagmatic relationship. This is the relationship that subsists between morphemes when they are derived or inflected.

In English, words of more than one morpheme can be segmented into their constituent morphemes in three ways.

(i)   There is neat or linear segmentability seen in such words like <u>acceptable</u> where the word is segmented into the two morphemes {accept} and {able}. This type of segmentation is exhibited by many English words.

(ii)   There exists another group whose words cannot be segmented as neatly as the example above (acceptable). The word 'redemption' for instance is made up of two morphemes {redeem} and {tion} but the word cannot be clearly be segmented into two morphemes. This is because 'redemp' is a bound alternate of the morpheme {redeem} and can therefore not occur on its own (Tomori, 1977).

A similar argument can be made for, retention, consumption, maintenance, salvation, contemptibility.

(iii)   The third group of words presents a different problem of segmentation. The past tense of the word 'stand' which is 'stood' or that of 'eat' which is 'ate' cannot be easily segmented into the components morphemes, such words are generally classified as irregular forms English.

CHAPTER EIGHT
DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES IN BOKYI

While there exists in Bokyi a process whereby affixes are added to roots without a change in the grammatical class of the root to which such an affix is added (inflectional affixation) as shown section 4.2 of this text, there exists in Bokyi, also, a process whereby the addition of an affix to a root result in a change in the grammatical class of the root so involved (derivational affixation). Other forms of derivational processes in Bokyi include conversion, reduplication, segmentation and compounding.

8.1 Derivational prefixation in Bokyi

In Bokyi, derivational prefixation occur through the process of nominalization. This phenomenon is possible by prefixing the nominalisers 'o-' or 'n-' to the verb root (Tawo, 1977), as in the following:

'o-' (prefix) + 'ki' (give)   =   'oki' (giving) –gerund or gift (noun)

'n-' (prefix) + 'ki' (give)   =   'nki' (giver) – noun

'o-' (prefix) + 'tud' (drive)   =   'otud' (driving) –gerund

'n-' (prefix) + 'tud' (driver)   =   'ntud' (driver) – noun.

Notably the agentive morpheme 'n-' in Bokyi functions in much the same ways as the English morphemes '-er'/'-or'. So, when the Bokyi prefix 'n-'is added to the verb root, a noun is derived. Examples:

'sang' (write), 'nsang' (writer)

'pan' (speak), 'npang' (speaker)

'bi' (build), 'nbi' (builder)

Bokyi has no derivational suffixes.

8.2 Conversion in Bokyi

In Bokyi certain nouns exhibit zero plural morphemes even when used as plural noun. That is, such words do not have plural markers reflected in their morphological shapes, as can be seen in ayua →cat/cats, ebu → goat/goats, ekwa → hen/hens, enyiang → animal/animals etc. examples

Bring a goat → Ba ne ebu ebonge

Three cats died → Ayua achat akpu

I bought two hens → Nre ekwa efe

From the above, we can see that, number, with regards to ebu (goat/goats), ayua (cat/cats), ekwa (hen/hens) and other similar nouns is only exhibited in context. To express number, a word indicating number must be placed immediately after the noun with zero plural morpheme as shown in the above examples where ebonge (one), achat (three) and efe (two) are placed immediately after ebu (goat/goats), ayua (cat/cats) and ekwa (hen/hens) respectively. The point here is that many nouns exhibit zero inflection while in isolation, but their number becomes marked when used in a sentence (in context). This situation is common in English and is akin to Alkin (1999) 'zero allomorph'.

Also, in Bokyi the pronouns (personal, possessive and reflexive) are found to exhibit zero affixation. Looking at the Bokyi personal pronouns, for instance, one will observe that the 1st person singular subject and singular object are represented by one word (me). Also, first person plural subject and plural object are represented by one word (be). A similar situation is found in the 2nd and 3rd person singular and plural subject and object respectively. The difference in each case is exhibited in context. Table 9 (below) shows zero affixation in Bokyi personal pronouns. The table may be interpreted thus:

The Bokyi word <u>me</u> represents both the English 1st person singular subject (I) and singular object (me), the Bokyi word <u>be</u> represents both the English 1st person plural subject (we) and plural object (us).

The Bokyi word <u>wo</u> represents both the English 2nd person singular subject (you), and singular object (you), the Bokyi word <u>ben</u> represents both the English 2nd person plural subject (you), and plural object (you).

The Bokyi word <u>yi</u> represents both the English 3rd person singular subject (he/she) and singular object (him/her), the Bokyi word <u>mbe</u> represents both the 3rd personal plural subject (they) and plural object (them).

The Bokyi word <u>nki</u> represents the English 3rd person singular subject and singular object (it).

We may, in conclusion, say that Bokyi has no personal inflection.

There are two forms of possessive pronouns in Bokyi, namely, the adjectival and the pronominal forms. Table 10 (below) shows the composition of Bokyi possessive pronoun. From the Table, it can be argued that Bokyi has no possessive pronoun inflections. While <u>ji</u> stands for 'my' and 'mine', <u>kitten</u> stands for 'his', 'her', 'hers', 'it', its' and <u>be</u> stands for 'their' and 'theirs' respectively.

The Bokyi reflexive pronouns are formed by adding the inflectional suffix <u>yen</u> to the personal pronoun. See Table 11 for illustration.

8.3 **Reduplication in Bokyi**

In Bokyi, adverbs are derived through the process of reduplication. Adjectives, nouns and adverbs are the word classes that must likely be doubled to derive Bokyi adverbs. Table 12 shows how Bokyi nouns, adjectives and adverbs are reduplicated to form Bokyi adverbs.

TABLE 9

Forms of Bokyi personal pronouns

		Singular		Plural	
Form	⇒	Subject	Object	Subject	Object
1st person		me (I)	me (me)	be (we)	be (us)
2nd person		wo (you)	wo (you)	ben (you)	(ben) you
3rd person		yi (he)	yi (him)	mbe(they)	mbe (them)
		yi(she)	yi (her)	mbe(they)	mbe (them)
		nki (it)	nki (it)	nki (they)	nki (them)

TABLE 10

Forms of Bokyi possessive pronouns

		Singular		Plural	
Form	⇒	Adjectival	pronominal	adjectival	pronominal
1st person		ji (my)	ji(mine)	kitten(our)	kitten (ours)
2nd person		eyen (your)	eyen(yours)	eyen (your)	eyen (yours)
3rd person		emen (his)	emen (his)	-be(their)	-be(theirs)
		emen (her)	emen (hers)	-be (their)	-be(theirs)
		emen (it)	emen (its)	-be (their)	-b (theirs)

TABLE 11

The inflection of Bokyi reflexive pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1st person	me-yen (myself)	be-yen (ourselves)
2nd person	wo-yen (yourself)	be-yen (yourselves)
3rd person	yi-yen (himself)	be-yen (themselves)
	yi-yen (herself)	
	nki-yen (itself)	

TABLE 12

Reduplication of words in Bokyi

(i)   Reduplication of nouns

Nouns	Adverb
bunong (beauty)	bunong bunong (beautiful)
kijie (love)	kijie kijie (lovingly)
nwet (school/book)	nwet nwet (scholarly)
eyiam (animal)	eyiam eyiam (foolishly, stupidly)
biyirin (tricks)	biyirin biyirin (trickishly)
kaji (criminal)	kaji kaji (criminally)

(ii)   Reduplication of adjectives

Adjective	Adverb
jua (calm)	jua jua (calmly)
buse (beautiful)	buse buse (beautifully)
bukan (force)	bukan bukan (forcefully)
kakem (short)	kakem kakem (bit by bit)

(iii)   Reduplication of adverbs

Adverb	Reduplicated Adverb
kusong (yesterday)	kusong kusong (yesterday)
kuruug (today)	kuruug kuruug (today)
su (full)	susu (fully)
abi (immediately)	abi abi (immediately)
dek (slow)	dek dek (slowly)
ba (quick)	ba ba (quickly)

Part (iii) of Table 12 shows that the meaning of the word (adverb) is not changed after reduplication. Reduplication in this case is used for emphasis. Sometimes, also, words in Bokyi can be reduplicated to derive quantifiers. For example the numeral Bichat (three) can be derive Bichat Bichat (in threes). Again, the quantifier 'chuo' (many) can derive cho chuo (quite many), and most nouns are reduplicated to express enormity. Examples

buchen (movement)   buchen buchen (full of movement)
biri (food)   biri biri (gluttonic)
omu (water)   omu omu (waterly)
esu (sun)   esu esu (sunny)
echen (sand)   echen echen (sandy)

Verbs, sometimes, undergo multiple reduplications to express intensity. For example, the word dem (go) can be doubled or tripled depending on the desire of the speaker at the time. We can have:

dem (go)   -   dem dem dem dem
be (come)   -   be be be be
ko (bathe)   -   ko ko ko
juab (drink)   -   juab juab juab

While English, the morphological markers of adverbs are the suffixes '-er', '-est' and '-ly' (as fast<u>er</u>, fast<u>est</u> and quick<u>ly</u>), in Bokyi adverbs are formed by reduplicating the bases of adjectives, nouns and adveuickrbs. This situation agrees with Robin's (1980) and Mathew's (1976) 'reduplicating compound' words in English as we have in helter skelter, shilly-shally etc. the following are examples of reduplicatives in Bokyi (as inflected adverbs):

slowly   → dek dek
easily   → jua jua
quickly   → ba ba
hurriedly   → du du
fully   → su su
plentifully → chuo chuo
now   → abi abi
fast   → ba ba
lovingly   → kijie kijie
beautifully → bunong bunong
scholarly   → nwet nwet
devilishly   → barem barem (or bi bi)
yesterday   → kusong kusong

The above examples show that Bokyi adverbs are inflected by having the base reduplicated. For example, the base of 'quickly' is 'quick'-(ba) while that of 'beautifully' is 'beautiful' (bunong). So, to have the Bokyi equivalents of 'quickly' and 'beautifully' respectively, the Bokyi bases 'ba' and 'bunong' have to be reduplicated, giving us 'ba ba' ('quickly') and 'bunong bunong' (beautifully) respectfully.

In Bokyi, most words are segmentable. That is, the constituent parts (morphemes) of the word are syntagmatically related and can be separated into identifiable grammatical units. Here, like in English, there is the linear segmentability. By this, morphemes are segmented in a neat order, so that morphemes stand out in a linear order, e.g

incha (goer)   →   in +ocha
inbi (builder)   →   in+bi
ori (eating)   →   o+ri

ojuab (drinking) o+juab. Where 'in' means 'one who……' and 'o-' means 'the act of ……'

Secondly, there are words which could have been easily segmentable but for deletion or introduction of one or two sounds. In Bokyi this usually occurs in the formation of plural nouns e.g.

Kijuab (hoe)   → bijuab (hoes). Here, /k/ is deleted and /b/ introduced.

Other examples include:

onet (person) → banet (persons)
oyiyi (woman) → bayiyi (women)
oyichang (man) → bayichang (men)

wan (child) → buan (children). These words cannot be easily segmented into the component morphemes. They are generally classified as irregular forms in Bokyi. Bokyi does not have total replacement of sound (suppletion) on the derived word:

8.4 **Compounding in Bokyi**

Compounding in Bokyi has a peculiar characteristic in its word formation approach. Its word formation process involves the composition of two or more words similar or

different classes (or free morphemes) to constitute a compound or associate construction (Tawo, 1977). This composition results in extensive construction which describe the item rather than naming it.

Examples:

nsang + nwet (n+n) = nsangwet (writer of a book)
nbi + bise (n+n) = nbibise (builder of house)
ntange + birea + osowo (n+n+n) = ntangebiraosowo (teacher of God's words)
kichi + kajua (n+n) = kichikijua (the handle of a hoe)
ndang + bafo (n+n) = ndangbafo (a rubber of palm wine)
ache + ekwa (n+n) = achekwa (fowl eggs)

All the above are compound nouns derived by adjoining two or more nouns.

CHAPTER NINE
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN THE DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES OF ENGLISH AND BOKYI

While in English, the morphological marker of adverbs are the suffixes '-er', '-est', and '-ly' as in fast<u>er</u>, fast<u>est</u> and quick<u>ly</u>, in Bokyi adverbs are derived by reduplicating the base (which may be a noun, an adjective or an adverb). The following are examples of Bokyi **adverbs:**

dek (slow)   -   dek dek (slowly)

du (hurry)   -   du du (hurriedly)

chuo (plenty)   -   chuo chuo (plentifully)

                               abi abi (now)

                               ba ba (fast)

kijie (love)   -   kijie kijie (lovingly)

The study carried out by Bisong (2010) reveals that Bokyi learners of English as a second language do not have much problem with the formation of English adverbs. This may have resulted from the consistency in the formation of adverbs in English and in Bokyi; while Bokyi is basically by reduplication, English is by adding the suffixes '-er', '-est' or '-ly'.

The study also shows that whereas English words are derived by adding suffixes/prefixes to the roots/bases of words with or without a major grammatical change, Bokyi words are derived not by suffixation but by prefixation. Here, prefixation occur through the process of nominalization. This process is possible by prefixing the nominalisers 'o-' or 'n', to the root only,to derive a noun or nominal [tawo,1977].

Example:

'o-' + cha (go) $\Rightarrow$ <u>o</u>cha (going) – gerund
'n-' + cha (go) $\Rightarrow$ <u>n</u>cha (goer) – noun
'o-' + ri (eat) $\Rightarrow$ ori (eating) – gerund
'n-' + ri (eat) $\Rightarrow$ nri (eater) –noun

From the above examples, it can be seen that while the nominaliser 'n-' functions in much the same way as the English agentive morphemes '-er' or 'or', the nominaliser 'o-' corresponds with the English gerund (-ing).

Examples:

Gerunds	Agentive Morphemes
opan → speaking	npan speaker
ori →eating	nri → eater
ojuab → drinking	njuab → writer
osang → writing	nsang → writer
oko → reading	nko → reader

This is one to one correspondence makes learning of the English gerunds and the use of the English '-er' and '-or' morphemes simple to a Bokyi learner of English as a second language.

However, the English method of deriving adverbs by adding prefixes/suffixes to bases of adjectives (ie quickly, aloud) nouns (ie. fatherly, ahead) and adverb (ie. everywhere, joyfully) and that of deriving nouns, adjectives and verbs by adding suffixes/prefixes to nouns, and adjectives roots (such as expresident), inaccurate, national, electrify etc) are alien to Bokyi word formation system.

This difference is likely to pose learning difficulties to a Bokyi learner of English as a second language. For instance, it was discovered from the questionnaire and oral interview administered to the secondary school students and the primary school teachers, respectively, that they were unable to provide the missing morphemes in the following words: father-, -president, quick-, beautiful-, -accurate-, -where, -head, -loud, joyful-, mother-. These spaces were left blank by all the students. This problem, however, may not be unconnected with the lack of suffixation in Bokyi word formation system, in addition to the strict application of its prefixes to verbs only for the derivation of nouns or nominals as the case may be. This area of

English word formation (derivational prefixation and suffixation) therefore requires more attention by teachers who teach English to Bokyi learners as a second language.

Both languages employ the reduplicative process of word formation. But, while English employs both partial and full reduplication, Bokyi employs only full reduplication. While adverbs in Bokyi are formed by reduplicating the bases of adjectives, nouns and adverbs, the English adverbs are formed by adding the suffixes '-er', '-est, and '-ly' to the bases of adjectives/adverbs. Notably, also, reduplication of words in English cannot change the word class of the repeated part even if it is repeated in part or in full. In Bokyi, reduplication of words may change the word class of the base, e.g. the reduplication of nouns and adjectives produces adverbs.

According to the study carried out by Bisong (2010), the composition test administered to secondary school students shows that the students were transferring what obtains in Bokyi into English regarding reduplication. The following sentences were extracted in that study:

    (i)   The children use to move <u>fast fast</u> to school because of the distant
    (ii)   I don't like teachers who talk <u>slow slow</u>
    (iii)   We sell the mango at <u>ten ten</u> naira
    (iv)   The students sit <u>four four</u> a bench
    (v)   The man is needed <u>now now</u>

The study also provides the following recorded conversation between a head-teacher, and a pupil:

    Teacher: Have you take your tablet?
    Pupil: No, I never take sir.
    Teacher: Come come come for it.

This study has not only revealed that there is the segmentation of words in English as well as in Bokyi, but that there exist areas of similarities as well as areas of differences in their patterns of segmentation. Analyst of segmentation in English and Bokyi respectively, in the early part of this section, show that both their linear process of segmentation and the

replacement/deletion process of segmentation are operational in the two languages. This should naturally facilitate the learning of the target language, but, the reverse is the case because there is no one –to –one corresponding similarity between the English and the Bokyi segments. For instance, while the Bokyi morpheme (prefix) 'in-' has but the one meaning('one who…'), its English equivalent, the agential morpheme (suffix) '-er' has other meanings outside the corresponding meaning of 'one who….'. It may mean 'the act of ….+-ing' (ie. mer<u>ger</u>, pray<u>er</u>), or 'an instrument for ….+-ing' (ie. cooker). The tendency, therefore, is for a Bokyi learner of English as a second language to limit the meaning of the agential morpheme to 'one who….' This generalization of meaning may be responsible for the errors recorded in the questionnaire administered to the primary and students. The students were asked to fill in the gaps in the following:

One who dance is a <u>dancer</u> √

One who laugh is a <u>laugher</u> x

One who run is a <u>runner</u> √

One who pray is a <u>prayer</u> x

One who drive is a <u>driver</u> √

One who cook is a <u>cooker</u>

Although there is a difference in the segmentational processes for the realization of Bokyi and English plural nouns (regular nouns), the consistency in each case facilitates the learning process. While English suffixes the plural morpheme '-s' to the base to achieve plurality, Bokyi replaces the initial sound of the base with the prefix '-b'. Examples:

English		Bokyi	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Chair	Chair<u>s</u>	<u>K</u>ichi	<u>b</u>ichi
Hoe	hoe<u>s</u>	<u>K</u>ijuab	<u>bi</u>juab

| House | houses | Kise | bise |
| Chief | chiefs | otu | batu |

From the above, it can be observed that while there is consistency in the realization of plural nouns in each language, there is the question of segmentability of the realized/derived words in each case –while the English plural nouns (above) are segmentable. They (Bokyi words above) are generally classified as irregular forms. Also, Bokyi, unlike English does not have total replacement of sounds/structure (suppletion) on the derived words. This may account for the total for the respondents inability to derive nouns from the following verbs: consume, maintain, redeem, pronounce. They were also unable to provide the past tense of eat and go as well as the plural noun of ox, child and sheep.

These problems are as a result of the difference in the processes of segmentation in the two languages. The teacher, therefore, has to be mindful of these differences and provide remedial teaching to enhance learning.

Bisong (2010) study also reveals that Bokyi nouns are derived by adding the noun marker, bound morpheme, 'o-' to the verb as shown b below:

o+ri (eat)   → ori (eating –gerund)

o+kwa (learn)   → okwa (learning –gerund)

o+kpet (start/commence)   → okpet (commencement –noun)

o+pan (discuss/deliberate) → opan (discussion/deliberation).

The Bokyi learner of English as a second language is therefore likely to generalize that the Bokyi bound morpheme/noun marker 'o-' is an absolute equivalent of the English gerund '-ing', as well as the English morphemes '-ation', '-ence', '-ment', etc. This generalization results in the wrong application of the above morphemes. For instance, constructions such as those below were found in the written exercises of the students.

(i)   The impregnation of the girl student is bad

(ii)   …..due to the <u>sufferment</u> of our parents.

(iii)   Some students fail exams because of their <u>proudness</u>

It was also discovered that while Bokyi prefixes are noun markers and do change the word class of the base, English prefixes do not alter the word class of the base. This difference would naturally pose learning.

Also, since Bokyi lacks prefixes that show negative implication, English words that have such negative connotations would have no equivalents in Bokyi. This results in their ability to use the following English prefixes effectively:

non –(non-alcoholic, non-conformist)
dis –(disagree, disown, discredit)
il –(Illegal, illiterate)
im –(impossible, impatient)
ir –(irresponsible, irrational)

There are, also, similarities as well as differences in the compounding processes of English and Bokyi. The similarities are as follows:

(i)   Both languages combine words of different classes to form compounds. Examples

Bokyi	**English**
Kise –nchu (thatch house)	Swimming –pool
Kipule –kise (dusty-house)	Ash-tray (a tray for putting ash)
Kenpaim – kidi (black cloth)	Loud –mouth (mouth that cannot keep secret)

(ii)   It is also worth noting the fact that in both languages there is no limit to the size of compound words. For instance, noun + noun compounds can be combined to form complex endocentric compounds in English and Bokyi:

seaside – flourmill
ache –kwa –kifen –echi (eggs for the offering of sacrifice)

The above areas of similarities would naturally boost the learning of English endocentric compounds by Bokyi learners of English as a second language. Bokyi, unlike English, does not have compounds which do not have elements that function as the semantic heads which are modified by the non-head element (exocentric compounds). The meaning of such a

compound is opaque because it is not possible to work out its meaning from the meanings of the constituents. Examples of such in English are bitter sweet, flash light, high court etc. this difference accounts for the respondents' inability to give the Bokyi equivalents of the above English exocentric compounds. Teachers should therefore lay emphasis on this area of compounding.

CHAPTER TEN
OTHER WORD FORMATION PROCESSS IN ENGLISH

The vocabulary of a productive language is necessarily expanded and altered to deal with the potentially infinite world. First, new words are added and the meanings of already existing words are changed. Second, new words can enter a language through the operation of word formation rules. This section of the study presents other word formation processes in English and Bokyi.

(a). **Other word formation processes in English**

In English, speakers continually create new words using the processes listed below. Under right conditions, these are adopted by the larger linguistic community and have become part of the English language.

(i). Coinage

One of the least processes of word formation in English is coinage, that is, the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which become general terms (without initial capital letters) for any version of that product. Older examples are *Aspirin, nylon and zipper,* more recent examples are *Kleenex, Teflon and Xerox.* It may be that there is an obscure technical origin (e.g. te(tra)-fl(our)-on) for such invented terms, but after their first coinage, they tend to become everyday words in the language. Other examples include *geek, dweep, information highway* (Yule, 1996).

(ii). Borrowing in English

Borrowing is a term used in comparative and historical linguistics to refer to linguistic forms being taken over by one language or dialect from another (Bolinger and Sears, 2004). The vocabulary of English is expanded by the day through borrowing from the vocabulary of other languages. This is occasioned by linguistic contact and cultural diffusionism. According

to Robins (1989, p.342), such borrowings are usually known as 'loan words'. According to the source:

> …. words which are not in the vocabulary at one point and are in it at a subsequent one, without having been made up from the existing lexical stock of the language or inverted as entirely new creation. Such words may not undergo any change in spelling and pronunciation. English has borrowed from Latin, French, German, Spanish, Afrikaans, Italy, Dutch, Irish, Sanskrit etc. The following are examples of words that have been borrowed into English from other languages.

Languages:	Words:
Irish	keen, colean
Spanish	albino, guerilla, mustang, tango, cafeteria
Dutch	veldt, spoon, commando, commander
Hindi	curry, mulligatawny
Hurdu	safe, safay
Italian	semolina, falsetto, replica, braura, vendetta, torso studio, fresco
Philippines	adobo
High German	Iceberg, schnapps, kindergarten, seminar, semester, protein, ohn, hinterland.
Scandinavian languages	- role, nag, ski, floe, ombudsman
Sanskrit	yoga, swastika
Chinese	chinchin, kow-tow
Australian	dingo, boomerang
African languages	agbada, okapi, tse-tse, guerilla, juju

Hindustani	sari, cheetah, bangle, thug, puttee
Persian	pudah
Arabic	safari, alfalfa, wadi, loofah
Czech	robot
Russia	vodka, genocide, intelligence, mammoth
Gaelic	corrie
French	guillotine, regime, epaulette, coup, mutton, laissez-faire
Latin	bishop, prayer, sermon, gem, wine, kettle

It is interesting to note that English has resisted celtic loan words despite the fact that they live close to the celtic communities and have intermarried throughout the period when English has been spoken in Britain. Yet the spread of English to other parts of the world have produced other varieties of English some of which are spoken as mother tongues. The above situation (between English, and celt) is not common in situations of languages in contact. This may call for some enquiry:-

(iii). Blending

This combining of two separates forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process called *blending*. However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word. In some part of the English speaking communities, there is a product which is used like *gasoline*, but is made from *alcohol,* so the blended term for referring to this product is *gasohol.* If one wishes to refer to the combined effort of *smoke* and *fog,* there is term *smog.* In places where there have a lot of this stuff, they can jokingly make a distinction between smog, smaze (smoke +haze) and smurk which is (smoke+ murk). Some other commonly used examples of blending are *bit*

(binary/digit), *brunch* (breakfast/lunch), *motel* (motor/hotel), *telecast* (television/broadcast) and the *chunnel* (channel/tunnel).

The recent phenomenon of fund-raising on television that feels like a marathon is typically called a *telethon* and if one is excessively crazy about video, the one may be called a videot. *Infotainment* (information/entertainment) and *simulcast* (simultaneous/broadcast) also new blends from life with television. To describe the mixing of languages, people refer to *franglais* (French/English) and *spanglish* (Spanish/English), a *modem* (modulator/demodulator). Other examples are *Unical* (University/Calabar), *Monicagate* (Monica (Lewinsky/Watergate).

(iv). Clipping

The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process described as *clipping.* This according to Robins (2003, p.212) "occur when a word of more than one syllable (*facsimile)* is reduced to a shorter form (*fax*), often in casual speech". The terms *gasoline* is still in use, but occurs much less frequently than gas, the clipped form. Common examples are *ad* (advertisement), -bra (brassiere), cab (cabriolet), condo (condominium), fan (fanatic), flu, perm, phone, plane, pram, pub and sitcom (situation comedy). English speakers also like to clip each other names as in AL, Ed, Liz, Mike, Ron, Sam, Sue, Tom and Esty.

There also seems to be something about educational environments that encourages clipping because just about every word gets reduced, as in chem., exam, gym, lab, maths, phys-ed, poly-sci, prof and typo.

(v). Backformation

A very specialized type of reaction process is known as backformation. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of different type (usually a verb). A good example of backformation is a process whereby the noun television first came

into use and then the verb televise was created from it. Other examples of words created by this processes are: donate (from 'donation'), opt (from 'option'), and emote (from emotion'), enthuse (from 'enthusiasm'), liaise (from 'liaison') and babysit (from 'babysitter') Yule (1996). Indeed, if you backform anything, you have used a backformation.

One very regular source of backformed verbs in English is based on the pattern: *worker –work.* The assumption seems to have been that if there is a noun ending in –er (or something close is sound), then we can create a verb for what that noun –er does. Hence, an editor must edict, a sculptor must sculpt and burglars, peddlers and swindlers must burgle, peddle and swindle.

A particular type of backformation, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as hypocorisms. First, a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then –y or –ie is added to the end. Perhaps the most familiar versions of this process are the word movie (moving pictures) and telly (television). It has also produced Aussie (Australian), Barbie (barbecue), bookie (bookmaker), brekky (breakfast) and hankie (handkerchief).

(vi). Acronymy

Some new words known as acronyms are formed from the initial letters of a set of other words. These can remain essentially 'alphabetisms' such as CD (compact disk), or VCR (video cassette recorder) where the pronunciation consists of the set of letters. More typically, acronyms are pronounced as single words, as in NATO, NASA, or UNESCO. These examples have kept their capital letters, but many acronyms lose their capitals to become everyday term such as laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), radar (radio detecting and ranging), scuba (self contained underwater breathing apparatus) and zip (zone improvement plan) code (Ndimele, 2003).

Names for organizations are often designed to have their acronym represent an appropriate term, as in 'mothers against drunk driving' (MADD) and 'women against rape' (WAR). Some new acronyms come into general use so quickly that many speakers do not think of their component meanings. Recent innovations in banking such as the ATM (automatic teller machine) and the required PIN (personal identification number) are regularly heard with one of their elements repeated, as in I sometimes forget my PIN number when I go to the ATM machine. The university of Calabar students have also produced several acronyms in their day-to-day use of English, some of which are; OYO (on your own), NFA (no further ambition) etc.

According to Adrian et al (2007, p.29), "a new meaning can become associated with an existing word". There are numerous ways this can come about in English, viz:

The grammatical category of the word changes (change in part of speech).

The vocabulary of one domain is extended to a new domain (metaphorical extension).

The meaning of a word broadens in scope (broadening)

The meaning of a word narrows in scope (narrowing)

The meaning of a complex word involves restricting the more general compositional meaning of the complex word (semantic drift)

The meaning of a word changes to the opposite of its original (reversal).

CHAPTER ELEVEN
OTHER WORD FORMATION PROCESSS IN BOKYI

Apart from the formation of words through inflection and derivation, Bokyi is found to form words through borrowing and tonality. This chapter examines borrowing and tonality as word formation processes in Bokyi.

(i)   Borrowing in Bokyi:

One of the results of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural contact is the borrowing of lexical items by the affected languages. Bokyi, like every other language, has borrowed extensively from languages it has come in contact with through trade, inter –marriages, and other social interactions. In other words, the arrival of new concepts, ideas, items, and developments to a new sociio-linguistic environment would either bring with it foreign names for those concepts and items, or it will result to coining new names to suit the socio-cultural milieus of the new environment. This situation, which applies to all natural languages, has provided Bokyi with numerous foreign and coined words which have become a part of the Bokyi vocabulary. The following are some of such words:

Word	Origin	Meaning
nwet	Efik	book
oturikang	Efik	hurricane lamp
arikang	Efik	matches
ekwabashi	Efik	church
okpokpruk	Efik	table
goro	Hausa	Hausa cola-nut
alabasha	Hausa	onions
cocoa	English	cocoa seed/plant
kachi-nwet	Coined	pen
kpam-kpam	Coined	motorcycle
gbru-gbru	Coined	motor car

| radio | English | radio |
| gbanja | Yoruba | cola-nut (goro) |

(ii)   Tonality as a word formation process in Bokyi:

Tone, according to Katamba (1993), is a word formation process. That is, the application of different tones to a particular word in different contexts results in the derivation of different words, which though have similar spelling, have also their respective meanings, pronunciations and tone markers. For example, the three letter word áwò, in Igala, can have many meanings depending upon the tine used in its production. See the examples below:

Word	Meanings
Awò	guinea fowl
awŌ	an increase
awò	hole (in a tree)
āwō	a slap
áwō	a comb
áwó	star.

Bokyi, in addition to other processes of word formation already discussed, uses pitch variations (tone) to determine the meaning of certain words. That is, a particular word in Bokyi can have several meanings depending on the pitch used in its realization. The pitch applies independently to each syllable of the word. This agrees with the position of Katamba (supra) that tone is a word formation process. I just as many meanings can be derived from the Igala word 'awo', as meanings as possible depending on the pitch used its realization. See Table 13 (below) for more examples:

Also, in Bokyi, apart from the progressive form of the verb, which is realized by adding the pronominal prefix (okuo-) to the base, all other forms of the same verb are formed

by applying the right tone (pitch level) to the base. For instance, the different forms of the Bokyi verb <u>oki</u> (give) can be realized by applying the right tone to the base (<u>ok</u>) as follows:

(a) Oki (a high tone on the final vowel of the base produces the Bokyi equivalent of the English 3rd person singular (v+s)

(b) Óki (a high and low tone to the initial and final vowels of the base produces the Bokyi equivalent of the English past perfective (V+ed$_2$).

(c) Oki (a low tone on the final vowel of the base will produce the Bokyi equivalent of the English past imperfective (v +ed$_1$).

(d) Oki (a level tone on the initial vowel of the base will produce the negative form of the verb (does not +v) (see table 14).

Table 14 on forms of verb in Bokyi may be interrupted as follows:

(a) The Bokyi equivalent of the English 3rd person singular (v+s) is realized by applying a high tone (/) to the final vowel of the Bokyi inflected verb (e.g okí, ofí, efé).

(b) The Bokyi equivalent of the English past imperfective (v+ed$_1$) is realized by applying a low tone (\) to the final vowel of the Bokyi inflected verb (e.g okí, ofí, efé).

(c) The Bokyi equivalent of the English past perfective (v+ed$_2$) is realized by applying a high tone to the initial vowel and a low one to the final vowel of an inflected verb (òfí, ókì, ófè).

(d) The Bokyi negative form of the verb (does not +v) is formed by replacing the initial short vowel of the inflected verb with a long vowel (e.g. ōki, ōfi, ōfe).

(e) The Bokyi equivalent of the English progressive form of the verb (v+ing) is realized by adding the pronominal prefix (okuo-) to the base form of the Bokyi verb. Example, okuo- (prefix) + ki (give) = okuoki (giving). See Table 14 (below) for other examples.

From the above presentation of other word formation processes in English and Bokyi, it can be seen that Bokyi is far less productive than English. This poses a very serious

113

challenge to the Bokyi learner-users of English who must contend with very unfamiliar processes of word formation such as reversals, metaphorical extension, broadening, narrowing, acronym, blending and clipping among others.

Like English, Bokyi has borrowed linguistic terms/forms from other languages it has come in contact with. This situation (borrowing) is normal to every natural language, and it helps in expanding the vocabulary of the borrowing language. While English, being an international language, is known to have borrowed widely from French, Spanish, Dutch, Malaysia, Latin, Italian, Sanskrit, Chinese, African languages and a host of other languages, Bokyi, being the language of a local community (Boki) in the central senatorial district of Cross River State of Nigeria, is discovered to have borrowed from a few languages within Nigeria, namely Efik, Igbo, Hausa, Yoruba and Panya (a language in Equatorial Guinea).

TABLE 13

Tone variation/meanings of words in Bokyi

Bokyi	Tone	Meanings
káyáng	high/high	small animal
káyáng	high/low	an idiot
kā̄yáng	mid/low	a mosquito
dibé	low/high	cola
dibē	low/mid	marriage
dibé	low/low	shoe
abé	high	cola-nuts
abè	low	shoes
abē	mid	marriages
kwá	high	cough
kwā	mid	grind
bè	low	come
bé	high	marry
bē	mid	we

ónáng	high/high	visitation/person's name
ònáng	low/low	intended
ōnàng	mid/low	scorpion

TABLE 14

Tonality in Bokyi verbs

A Base	B Present (v+s)	C Past Imperfective (v+ed$_1$)	D Past Perfective (v+ed$_2$)	E Progressive (v+ing)	F Negative (does not +v)
Ki (give)	Okí (gives)	Okì (gave)	ókì (given)	Okuoki (giving)	Ōki (does not give)
Fi (return)	Ofí (returns)	Ofi (retuned)	ófì (returned)	Okufi (returning)	Ōfi (does not return)
Juab (drink)	Ojuáb (drinks)	Ojuàb (drank)	ójuàb (drunk)	Okuojuab (drinking)	Ōjuab (does not drink)
Fe (put)	Ofé (puts)	Ofè (put)	ófè (put)	Okuofe (putting)	Ōfe (does not put)

Leaning of foreign forms in English by a Bokyi learner of the language does not constitute a problem since these forms are already built to the English vocabulary. The task of the teacher here is to isolate the foreign/borrowed forms in English, categorize them according to their origin, showing also their etymology, pronunciation, and meaning. Borrowing is a universal characteristic of all languages that navigate.

For the purpose of orderliness and clarity, the terms syllable, stress and intonation need be examined at this juncture before discussing the implication of tone in the learning of English as a second language. In speech, words are formed from the combination of sound units. Each word has a set of sounds produced together as a unit. For instance, in the word

'coming', the first two letters form a unit while the last four form another unit. This indicates that the word 'coming' is divided into two sound units (or syllables). From this explanation therefore, syllables can be described as divisions or units of sounds that come together within a word. We have words with one syllable as well as words with as many as six or more syllables, example, kiss, Thomas, gua-ran-tee, com-mu-ni-cate, mo-bi-li-za-tion, mis-re-pre-sen-ta-tion etc.

The various syllables within a word, and words within a sentence are not uttered with the same degree of energy or force. Some syllables or words are pronounced with stronger effort than others. The degree of force exerted on certain syllables (in word), or words (in sentence) is referred to as stress. Stress gives additional meaning to our utterances. English has basically two types o stress pattern: primary and secondary. Primary stress (which indicates the syllable that receives the strongest degree of force) is signified with upper vertical stroke while the secondary stress (which indicates the syllable that receives the weak degree of force) is represented with a lower vertical stroke, examples: dispensation, display etc.

Most monosyllabic words are stressed. But when a word has more than one syllable (polysyllabic), the stress can occur on the second or third syllable. The meaning and class of English words change with stress, e.g, 'import', 'convert' 'rebel' 'addict', 'escort', 'exploit', 'object', 'envelop', are nouns when they are stressed on the first syllable, but verbs when the stress is on the second syllable, e.g, 'im'port, con'vert, re'bel, ob'ject, en'velope, en'velope, ad'dict, es'cort and 'exploit'. Likewise 'perfect', and 'absent are adjectives when the first syllable is stressed, but verbs when the second syllable is stressed, e.g per'fect and ab'sent.

By intonation, we mean the rise and fall in the pitch of the voice when we speak. These rise and fall are as a result of the stress we place on the words. Intonation is important

116

in English because it indicates the speaker's attitude to his subject or his audience, such meanings as indifference, surprise, anger, doubt and sadness cannot be expressed in writing but are conveyed in speech through intonation. Intonation patterns can be seen as a sequence of pitch levels, or 'tones', but this use of 'tone' is different from that encountered in the tone language, where it refers to the use of pitch to make contrast of meaning of word level (Bolinger and Sears, 2004). Here, pitch of the voice is use to indicate the speakers attitude to his subjects/listeners. English has two intonation patterns –the rising tone and the falling tone, for example, the expression 'Thank you' (with a falling tone) indicates real gratitude, and with a rising tone it indicates a casual acknowledgement of something unimportant.

Having known the meaning of the term syllable, stress and intonation, we may now examine the implication of tone in the learning of English as a second language (as it affects a Boki learner). Sections 4.1 of this study revealed that while verbs in English are inflected by adding a morpheme (-s, -ing, -ed[1] or –ed[2]) to the base, in Bokyi, apart from the progressive form of the verb which is derived by adding the phenomenal prefix 'okuo-' to the base, other forms of the same verb are derived through the application of the required tone (pitch level) to the base (see Table 13). In summary, therefore, while Bokyi uses tone to derive its verb forms (applying the right tone to the base), English does so through suffixation (adding, the right suffix to the base). The outstanding dissimilarity in the area of verb information between the two languages poses much learning problems to a Bokyi learner of English. This is evidenced in their use of the infinitive (v) in positions where other forms of the verb should function. In a research on English and Bokyi morphological processes conducted by Bisong (2010) SS II students are reported to construction sentences such as the following:

(i)   Orim <u>go</u> to school yesterday only but Banku <u>go</u> every day.

(ii)   When the principal <u>drive</u> us for school fees before I <u>can</u> reach home my mother <u>was</u> <u>go</u> to farm.

(iii)   The teacher is wiked, he <u>beat</u> us everyday.

Also, it is noticed that while tone changes the meaning and word class of word as already exemplified, stress equally changes the meaning and /or word class of English word as can be found in words such as envelope, import, convert, rebel, addict, escort, etc. which can either be a noun or verb depending on the syllable that is stressed. Tone in Bokyi and stress in English may therefore be serving a similar function; that of changing the meaning and/or the word class of a particular word in either language. This situation from our experience/knowledge of the concept of language learning, should naturally facilitate the learning process. But since there is no one to one correspondence between the English and Bokyi words that are so involved, the application of the appropriate stress to syllables of English words by a Bokyi learner of English language is bound to be impeded. This may be the reason why the words such as escort, rebel, covert, import as used in questionnaire were wrongly stressed as nouns and as verb. Wrong application of stress would necessarily result in wrong intonation pattern. These areas need to be given special attention by teachers of English to Boki learner-users of English.

CHAPTER TWELVE
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SIMILARITY AND DIFFERENCE IN ENGLISH AND BOKYI INFLECTIONAL PROCESSES

The observation of Elemi (2001, p. 114) as highlighted in chapter two of this study seems to have provided part of the answer to the question of 'what facilitates/hinders the learning of a second language?' According to the source, "what an individual acquires before affects what he learns now or later; positively in the areas of similarities, and negatively in the areas of differences". Elemi's observation (above) is in tandem with Wilkins (1998) view in his analysis of tense system of English and French. Wilkins study reveals that areas of similarities and differences between the tense system in the two languages result in facilitation and difficulties, respectively, for English/French learners of either language.

Also, the result/observations of Bisong (2010) study affirm the above position regarding what facilitate or hinder the performance of second language learners. On noun inflection for instance, it was discovered that the system of plural noun formation (regular noun) in the two languages is similar. This level of similarity may account for the ease experienced by the Boki respondents (in that study) in attempting questions on English plural noun formation. Conversely, there was difficulty in dealing with the issues of English irregular noun formation (suppletion), zero plural formation and possession; resulting from the difference in the morphological approaches of the two languages in the above areas. According to Bisong (2010), the Boki learners experience difficulty in realizing all English tenses (except the progressive). This, according to the source, results from the similarities and differences existing between the two languages in those areas. In fact, Table 15 (below) shows the Bokyi learner–users of English problem and non-problem areas in word formation; which are not unconnected with the difference and similarity existing between English and Bokyi in this regard.

However, according to Oliver (1998) differences and similarities may not be the sole factors constituting difficulty or facilitation in second language learning. He (Oliver, 1998) sees a range of factors such as learning environment, pedagogical materials, psycho-social and cognitive factors. These factors, however, go beyond the realm of language learning.

The definitions of inflectional morphology by Crystal (1994) and Stump (2001) as presented in Chapter two of this study suggest that in inflectional process of word formation the word class of the root, to which an inflectional morpheme is added, is never altered. Rather, it modifies the form of the word to enable it fit into a particular grammatical category. The findings of Bisong (2010:181), regarding the inflectional processes of English and Bokyi, proves these definitions to be correct and applicable to both languages. The study also shows that though the inflectional process of word formation in Bokyi is not as productive as that of English, inflection in both languages applies to nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs respectively. We shall now discuss the pedagogical implication of inflection of each of the above word classes as it affects the two languages.

(i)   Pedagogical implication of the difference/similarity in English/Bokyi noun inflection

Bisong (2010) study reveals that while noun inflection in English occurs in plurality and possession, the Bokyi noun inflection occurs in plurality only. Also, while English forms its plural nouns by suffixing the '-s' or '-es' plural marker (z1 morpheme) to the base, Bokyi does so by prefixing any of the following plural markers to the base: 'ba-', 'bu-', 'bi-', 'a-', or 'e-' through prefixation. Findings of the study show that the problem encountered by the Bokyi learners of English as a second language with regards to plural noun formation in English is not prompted by the fact that English form plural through suffixation and Bokyi through prefixation, but by the fact that while Bokyi plural nouns are basically regular, the English plural nouns are either regular or irregular. This

irregular formation in English, particularly in the case of suppletion, poses a serious problem to the Bokyi learner of English. This answers the question why the Boki respondents were able to provide the plural of all the English regular nouns correctly, but unable to provide the plural of all the English irregular nouns presented in the questionnaire.

English nouns are also inflected by adding the possessive marker '-s' to the base through suffixation. In contrast, Bokyi lacks the possessive marker; possession in Bokyi is exhibited in context. Examine the following expressions:

English   **Bokyi**

Paul's mother   →   bone Paul

Banku's son   →   wan Banku

From the above, it can be seen that unlike English nouns, which are proceeded by adjectives/adjectival (e.g Nigerian government), Bokyi reverses the order, so that the head of the Bokyi nominal group will now take the position of what in English is the adjective. With this, constructions such as the following:

Wife of James….. instead of James' wife

Baso book ….. instead of Baso's book etc.

were discovered from the students written composition. Possession, therefore is an issue to be fully addressed by teachers of English to Boki learners of English.

Research has also shown that certain words in the two languages have zero plural morphemes (Bisong, 2010); a situation which should ordinarily facilitate the learning in that regards. But, a learning difficulty is posed by the fact that there is no one to one correspondence between English and Bokyi words having zero plural morphemes. For instance, while the English word 'furniture' has zero plural morphemes, it lacks such status in

Bokyi. The tendency in this situation is for a Bokyi learner-user of English to be unable to differentiate English words that have zero plural morphemes from others. In providing the plural forms of some nouns in the questionnaire administered to respondents in Bisong (2010), the following errors were made by the Bokyi respondents:

Example 1: **Singular** **Plural**

sheep sheeps

furniture furnitures

counsel counsels

In the written exercise, the following construction was noted:

Example 2: My father <u>have</u> ten cat, six goat and three cock.

While the error in example 1 may have resulted from the fact that those words lack zero plural morpheme in Bokyi, the error in example 2 is the result of the fact that cat, goat and cock have zero plural morpheme in Bokyi. The respondents have merely transferred into English what obtains in Bokyi. This also calls for pedagogical attention.

(ii). Pedagogical implication of the difference/similarity in English/Bokyi verb inflection:

On English/Bokyi verb inflection the study revealed that while Bokyi verbs are basically regular, English verbs are both regular and irregular. It was also discovered that both the English and Bokyi verbs (regular) are inflected in their uniform and predictable manner respectively but while English uses suffixes to show tense, Bokyi uses pronominal prefixes and tone to indicate tense (see sections 4.1 for the examples and illustrations).

The above sections shows that the manner of verb inflection in the two languages is different. This situation naturally creates learning problems to Bokyi learners of English. The result of the questionnaire and the oral interview administered to Bokyi speakers/learners of

English in Bisong (2010) study reveals that many respondents have no problem with the English progressive form. This may be resulting from the fact that the production of the progressive forms of both English and Bokyi verbs have the similarity of adding something to the base – a suffix (-ing) to the English base, and a prefix (Okuo-) to the Bokyi base. The two languages realize the other forms of the verb differently; while English uses the suffixes '-s', and '-ed' in the realization of the other forms of the verb, Bokyi applies tone to have each of the other forms of the verb. This disparity may account for the following wrong expressions of the student in the composition exercise given them in Bisong (2010) study:

My sister <u>go</u> to school all the time

….. they <u>are</u> all <u>run</u> to school

I have <u>give</u> him is book

He <u>like</u> to eat chewing gum in the class

My father <u>sees</u> gain from the chair business

Also, Bokyi lacks the exact equivalents of the English modal auxiliaries –shall, should, can, could, will, would, may, might. All of the above are represented by the Bokyi word 'nchi' which by exact translation means 'will'. This situation poses a serious learning problem to Boki learners of English as they are prone to using 'will' where other modal auxiliaries should fit in. This was noticed from the scripts of the composition by the students in Bisong (2010) study:

They have <u>give</u> them the money

They have <u>took</u> it to the principal

The above illustrations/discussion on the inflection of English/Bokyi verbs suggest that teachers of English to Bokyi learner–users of English should pay particular attention/emphasis to the following:

Forms of the English verbs

Modal auxiliaries verbs

Irregular verbs.

(iii). Pedagogical implication of the difference/similarity in English/Bokyi pronoun inflection.

Pronouns such as personal pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstrative pronouns operate in both English and Bokyi languages. In both languages also, the personal pronouns operate at the level of 1st, 2nd and 3rd personal singular and plural, and at the subjective, objective and possessive cases. This shows a considerable level of structural similarity.

But, a closer look at the composition/operation of each type of pronoun, one discovers glaring difference between the pronouns of English and those of Bokyi. This has been exemplified on Table 5 (above). The table reveals that while some Bokyi pronouns (e.g nkin → this, nbin →these, kira → which etc) represent each of the English demonstrative pronouns, others represent two or more English pronouns (e.g. the Bokyi personal pronoun 'yi' stands for four English personal pronoun – he, she, him, and her, while the Bokyi possessive pronoun 'emen' represents three English possessive pronouns – his, hers and its). The tendency in this situation is for the Bokyi learners to misuse those English pronouns that are equally represented by a particular Bokyi pronoun. In other words, a Bokyi learner of English language may follow the generalization that the following sets of the English possessive pronouns; himself/herself, they/them, their/theirs, whom/whose, can be used interchangeably. This may account for the errors observed in the written composition administered to the students. The following are some of the written expressions recorded:

…. and I asked him <u>who</u> bag do you cary

….. the goat put <u>it</u> mouth in the drinking water

the teacher give oka <u>him</u> money yesterday…

124

… but <u>me</u> I will not go to fetch the water

The book is <u>his own</u>

The English inflectional suffix '-selves' is usually added to a word to show plurality of reflexive pronouns (e.g myself →our<u>selves</u>, yoursledf → your<u>selves</u>, himself /herself → them<u>selves</u>). In the same way, the Bokyi inflectional prefix '-be' is sually prefixed to the singular form to show plurality of Bokyi reflexive pronoun. Examine the following examples:-

Singular	**Plural**
me-yen (myself)	be-yen (ourselves)
wo-yen (yourself)	ben-yen (yourselves)
yi-yen (himself/herself)	be-yen (themselves)

The two languages therefore have a similar system of plurality of reflexive pronouns, and this has made the learning of the English reflexive pronoun very easy to the Bokyi learners of English.

This anlyses/discussion of the English/Bokyi pronoun reflection suggests that the attention of the teacher of English to Bokyi learners of the language should be directed to those English pronouns that lack one to one correspondence with Bokyi pronouns; rather, two or more English pronouns are represented by one Bokyi pronoun (see table 5) .

(iv)   Pedagogical implication of the difference/similarity in English/Bokyi adjective inflection

The analysis of the English/Bokyi adjectives section 4.1 of this text points to the fact that while Bokyi adjectives are basically regular, English has both the regular and the irregular adjectives. It was also observed that the process/manner of inflecting the regular adjectives in both languages was not only consistent but also predictable. This makes the

processes similar, thereby facilitating the learning of the inflection of English regular adjectives.

But the Bokyi learners of the English language express difficulty in the learning of irregular adjectives and the non-gradable adjectives. This may be caused by the fact that such types of adjectives do not exist in Bokyi. The findings made from the oral interview and the questionnaire in the study conducted by Bisong (2010) show that while the respondents could provide the comparative and superlative forms of the English regular adjectives, they could not provide the comparative and superlative forms of the English irregular and non-gradable adjectives. The following are a few examples of the outcome of the test:

high, higher, highest √

great greater greatest √

short shorter shortest √

bad badder baddest   x

little little ?   x

many ?   ?   x

well wells ?   x

round rounder roundest x

fatal ?   ?   x

superior ?   ?   x

This situation, therefore, calls for the attention of both teachers and learners to the inflection of the English irregular and non-gradable adjectives.

(v). Pedagogical implication of the difference/similarities in English/Bokyi adverb inflection

It is evident in Bisong (2010) that English adverbs are inflected by adding the suffix '-er', '-est', or '-ly' to the base of an adjective or an adverb, Bokyi adverbs are derived by

reduplicating the base (which is either a noun or an adverb). There is consistency in the process of adverb inflection in English as well as in Bokyi. Consistency in each case should necessarily facilitate the learning of English adverb inflection by a Bokyi learner. The results of the questionnaire and the translation exercise in Bisong (2010) study reveals that Bokyi learners of English do not have problem with the formation of English adverbs. This may have resulted from the consistency in the formation of adverbs in English and Bokyi –while Bokyi applies reduplication, English adds the suffixes '-er', '-est', or '-ly' to the base (which may have be an adjective or an adverb). Table 15 (below) shows the problem/non-problem areas of English word inflection to the Bokyi learner-users of English. While the problem areas are the results of the difference in the inflectional processes of English and Bokyi, the non-problem areas signify areas of similarities between English and Bokyi regarding word inflection:

CHAPTER THIRTEEN
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SIMILARITY AND DIFFERENCE IN ENGLISH AND BOKYI DERIVATIONAL PROCESSES

Whereas English derives words through prefixation and suffixation, Bokyi words are derived not by suffixation but by prefixation. Bokyi lacks derivational suffixation. Basically, prefixation in Bokyi occurs through the process of nominalization. By this process, nominalisers such as 'o-', or 'n- 'are prefixed to a verb root to derive a noun or a nominal (Tawo, 1977), see section 4.1 of this text for examples and illustrations.

While the Bokyi nominaliser 'n-' functions in much the same way as English agentive morpheme '-er' or '-or', the Bokyi nominaliser 'o-' corresponds with the English gerund (-ing). This one to one corresponding similarity between the Bokyi nominaliser 'o-'and the English gerund (-ing) on one hand, and between the Bokyi nominaliser 'n-'and the English agentive morpheme '-er', and '-or' on the other hand, makes the learning of the English gerund and the use of the English agentive morpheme simple to a Bokyi learner of English. This, for certain is the form of derivational affixation that exist in Bokyi languages.

The English method of deriving adverbs by adding affixes to the bases of adjectives (i.e quick<u>ly</u>, <u>a</u>loud) nouns (i.e father<u>ly</u>, <u>a</u>head) and adverbs (i.e <u>every</u>where, joyful<u>ly</u>) , and that of deriving nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs by adding affixes to nominal and adjectives roots (such as <u>ex</u>president, <u>in</u>accurate =, natio<u>nal</u>, electri<u>fy</u> etc) are alien to Bokyi word formation system and by prediction will pose learning problems to Bokyi learner-users of English. We shall now discuss other forms of derivation in English and Bokyi and their pedagogical implication to the Boki learner-users of English as a second language.

(i). Pedagogical implication of reduplication of words in English and Bokyi

Reduplication as a form of derivational process of word formation is found to exist in both English and Bokyi. But while Bokyi uses full reduplication only, English employs both full and partial reduplication. In Bokyi, as observed, reduplication occurs in the following situations:

(a) For the derivation of adverbs

(b) For emphasis

TABLE 15:
Problem and non-problem of English word inflection to the Bokyi/English bilinguals

Word class	Problem areas	Non-problem areas
Noun	- irregular formation (suppletion)	- regular plural formation '-s', '-es'.
	- zero plural formation	
	- uses of possessive markers	
Verb	- the 3rd person singular formation (-s)	- The progressive (-ing)
	- the past perfective (ed[1])	
	- the past imperfective (ed[2])	
	- modal auxiliaries	
Pronoun	- the possessive pronoun	- the demonstrative pronouns
	- the personal pronoun	
	- the relative pronoun	- the reflexive pronouns
Adjective	- irregular formation	- regular formation (-er, -est)
	- non-gradable adjectives	
Adverb	-	- general inflection of English adverbs

(c) for the derivation of quantifiers as in Bichat (three) deriving Bichat Bichat (in threes or three three). Again, the quantifier 'chuo' (many) can derive chuo chuo (quite many or plenty plenty)

(d) for the expression of enormity as in buchen buchen (full of movement or always on the move), biri biri (glutonic), omu omu (watery), esu esu (suny) etc.

(e) for the expression of intensity, as in dem-dem –dem(to leave feast), jua-jua-jua (to drink fast), be-be-be (to come fast). See section 4.3 for examples and illustrations.

In English, also, reduplication is created for several purposes which include:

(a) suggestion of alternating movements as in seesaw, zigzag, crisscross, topsyturvy, helter-skelter etc,

(b) imitation of sounds, as in tick-tock, sing-song, tittle-tattle etc,

(c) intensification, as in tip-top, rattle-dazzle etc.

(d) suggestion of nonsense, insincerity, vacillation and instability as in whishy–washy, higgledy-piggledy, dilly-dally etc.

Because of a lack of one to one correspondence between situations/purposes requiring reduplication in English and those requiring same in Bokyi, learners of English are tempted to transfer the pattern of reduplication in Bokyi into English. In Bisong (2010) study, expressions such as the following were found in the students' scripts.

(a) Our teacher use to do good good things to us.
(b) I have to move fast fast to that I wil not be late
(c) I will be back now now
(d) Pure water is twenty twenty naira for a bag

So, while correcting these errors of reduplication resulting from transfer, the teacher need to direct learners attention to the various purposes and situations requiring reduplication in English if the learners must have good mastery of reduplication of words in English .

(ii). **Pedagogical implication of segmentation of words in English and Bokyi**

In both English and Bokyi languages, linguistic units at the word level (morphemes) are normally joined together in a structural bond. They are said to be in a syntagmatic relationship, a relationship that subsist between morphemes when they are derived or inflected (Bisong 2010: 123). By implication, the constituent parts of some of the words in both languages can be separated into identifiable grammatical units.

In both languages, there is the neat and linear order of segmentation where the constituent parts (morphemes) of a word are separable into distinct grammatical units. The following are some example of English words that follow the neat and linear order of segmentation: nation/al/ity, accept/able boy/s, church/es, un/grate/ful/ness. The only similar situations in Bokyi are as follows:

(a) The combination of the morpheme (prefix) 'in-' to a lexical verb to from a noun. 'in-' means 'one who…' For example 'in-' (one who…) + 'ri' (eat) will give us in/ri (eat/er). It applies to several other cases ie in/pan (speak/er), in/kwan (sing/er), in/ko (read/er) in/sang (writer) etc.

(b) The combination of the morpheme prefix 'o-' to a verb to give us the Bokyi equivalent of the English gerund. 'o-' means the 'the act of……' For example o + juab (drink) will give us o/juab (meaning, 'drink/ing', a gerund) other examples include o/ri (eat/ing), o/kwam (singing), o.kpe (commence/ment), o/pan (discussion, deliberation) etc.

So, whereas English has various cases/situations of linear segmentation of words, Bokyi has but the above two cases. Moreso, while the Bokyi morpheme 'in-' has but one meaning ('one who……'), its English equivalent, the agential morpheme '-er' has other meanings outside the corresponding meaning of 'one who…', it may mean 'the act of … +-ing' (ie. merg/er/pray/er), or 'an instrument for … +-ing' (the cook/er). The tendency in this situation is for a Bokyi learner of English to limit the meaning of the English agential morpheme to 'one who….' This limitation of meaning may result in several errors and learning problems. Also, a Bokyi learner of English is likely to have the generalization that the Bokyi bound morpheme/noun marker 'o-' is an absolute equivalent of the English gerund, as well as the English morphemes '-ation', -tion, '-ment' etc. This generalization may have cursed the errors of wrong application of segments by the students. The following constructions were noted in the written exercise administered to students in Bisong (2010) study.

the pregnation of the girl student is bad.

…due to the sufferment of our parent

some students fail exams because of their proudness

Both languages also have words that are not segmentable. The English word 'redemption', for instances, is made up of two morphemes 'redeem', and '-tion', but the word cannot clearly be segmented into two morphemes. This is because 'redemp', is a bound alternate of 'redeem', and can therefore not occur independently (Tomori, 1977). Other examples of unsegmentable words include retention, consumption, maintenance, salvation, contemptibility. Similarly, Bokyi has words which could have been easily segmentable but for deletion or introduction of one or two sounds. This usually occurs in the formation of plural nouns. Examples:

Kijuab (hoe) → bijuab (hoes). Here, /k/ is deleted and /b/ introduced to form plural. Other examples include:

Onet (person) → banet (persons)

Oyiyi (woman) → bayiyi (women)

Kaku (hill)   → buku (hills) etc.

The similarity between two languages regarding unsegmentable words would have aided learning in this regard if there was one to one correspondence between the unsegmentable English and Bokyi words. This area needs to be fully attended to by the teachers of the languages.

It needs to be mentioned here also that Bokyi, unlike English, lacks total replacement of sound/structure (suppletion) on the derived words. This may account for the respondents' inability to derive nouns from the following verbs: consume, mention, redeem, peronounce. Providing the past tense of eat, go and the plural of ox, child and sheep was also a problem to the students.

(iii). **Pedagogical implication of compounding in English and Bokyi**

Research has also shown that there are areas of differences in the manner of compounding in both languages. One of the similarities is that both languages combine words of different classes to form compound words, examples;

Kise–nchu (thatch house)

Swimming–pool (a pool where one can swim)

Also, in both languages, there is no limit to the size of compound words, the following are examples of such compounds (complex endocentric compounds);

Seaside –flourmill

achekwa –kifenechi (eggs for the offering of sacrifice)

The above areas of similarity have made the learning of English endocentric compounds very easy to the Bokyi learners of English.

Compounds which do not have elements that function as the semantic heads (exocentric compounds) are non-existent in Bokyi. The meaning of an exocentric compound is opaque because it is not possible to work its meaning from the seperate meanings of its constituents. Example of such in English are flash light, hateful laughter, bitter sweet, high court etc. The respondents in Bisong (2010) study could not provide the Bokyi equivalent of the above English endocentric compounds because this form of compounding does not exist in Bokyi. This area of compounding needs be given extra attention by teachers of English to Boki learners of English as a second language.

(iv). **Pedagogical implication of Borrowing in English and Bokyi**

Both English and Bokyi have borrowed (and are still borrowing) linguistic terms/forms from other languages they have come in contact with. While English, being an international language, is discovered to have borrowed widely from international languages such as Malaysia, Latin, Italian, Sanskrit, Chinese, African languages and a host of other languages it has come in contact with, Bokyi, being the language of a local community (Boki) in the forested area of north of Cross River State of Nigeria is discovered to have borrowed from a few languages with Nigeria, namely, Efik, Igbo, Yoruba, Hausa and Panya (a language in Equatorial Guinea).

Learning of foreign forms in English does not seem to pose problems to the Boki learners of English. Since these forms are already built into the English vocabulary, the teacher's task in this regard is to isolate the foreign/borrowed forms in English, categorise them according to their origins, showing also their etymology, pronunciation and meaning. Borrowing of foreign forms is normal and a natural way of building the vocabulary of any language.

(v). **Tone in Bokyi and the learning of English as a second language**

It is important to note the following facts about tone in Bokyi:

(a) Some Bokyi words have several meanings depending on the tone applied in realization (see section 4.2 and Table 13 for examples and illustrations).

(b) Bokyi uses tone to derive its verb forms. That is, applying the right tone to the base to have the needed verb form (see secion 4.2. and Table 14).

The learning implication of using tone to derive forms in Bokyi (b above) is that Boki learners of English as a second language will have the temptation of using the English infinitive (V) in positions where other forms of the verb should grammatically function. This, as shown in Bisong (2010) study, may account for errors recorded in the written exercise given the SS II students where the following constructions were found:

Orim go to school yesterday only but Banku go everyday.

When the principal drive us for school fees, before I can reach

Home my mother was go to farm.

… because the ticher is wiked, he beat us everyday.

So, while tone (in Bokyi) changes the meaning and (sometimes) word class of words as exemplified in section 4.2 (above), stress (in English) equally changes the meaning and (sometimes) word class of some words. This can be found in words such as envelope, import, convert, rebel, addict, escort, etc. which can be a verb or a noun depending on the syllable that is stressed. Tone and stress seem therefore to be serving similar function but in different linguistic environments. This level of similarity, from our experience/knowledge of the concept of language learning/teaching should naturally facilitate the learning of such area of language study. But, since there is no one to one correspondence between the English and Bokyi words so involved, appropriate stressing of English words would constitute a problem to the Bokyi/English bilinguals. Wrong application of stress would necessarily impair intonation which in turn affects meaning, the teacher(s) should be mindful of these

differences and pay particular attention to the teaching of English verb forms as well as stress pattern.

From the analysis of data on other word formation processes in English and Bokyi, it was revealed that there exists, in English, several word formation processes that are lacking in the Bokyi word formation system. This is a very serious challenge to the Bokyi learner– users of English. It was therefore not surprising to have some of them make constructions such as:

My brother is a student of Unilag of lagos

I sometimes forget my PIN <u>number</u> when I go to ATM machine

The first example show that the users do not know that 'Unilag' is a blend of University/Lagos, which means there could be Unical of Uyo ….. of Port Harcourt etc. The second example shows that the users do not know that PIN is the acronym for Personal Identification Number. This may be the reason 'number' is repeated in the construction in example two above. These call for extra pedagogical attention to English word formation such as acronymy, blending, backformation, clipping, metaphorical extension, broadening, narrowing and reversals among others.

This study has so far examined the relationship between English and Bokyi regarding word formation processes namely, inflection/derivation of words, reduplication, segmentation, compounding, borrowing and tone among others. Areas of similarities and differences in each case (above) have been analysed and discussed accordingly, making it easy for teachers of English to Bokyi learners of English to know which area of the English language the Bokyi learners are likely to have more problems with and how best to approach these problems. Table 16 (below) shows the problem and non problem areas of English morphological system to Bokyi/English bilinguals:

TABLE 16

Problem and non –problem areas of English morphological system to the Bokyi/English bilinguals

Word class	Problem Areas	Non problem areas
(a)		
Noun	- irregular formation (suppletion)	- regular plural formation '-s',
	- zero plural formation	'-es'
	- use of possessive markers	
Verb	- the 3rd person singular formation (-s)	- the progressive (-ing)
	- the past perfective (ed^1)	
	- the past imperfective (ed^2)	
	- modal auxiliaries	
Pronoun	- the possessive pronoun	- the demonstrative pronouns
	- the personal pronoun	- the reflexive pronouns
	- the relative pronoun	
Adjective	- irregular formation	- regular formation (-er, -est)
	- non-gradable adjectives	
Adverb		
(b) Derivation of words in English		- English gerund
		- The use of English agentive morphemes '-er', '-or'.
(c) Reduplication of words in English		
- Partial/full reduplication		
(d) Segmentation of words in English		- The linear order method of segmentation
- Prefixes that show negative implication		
- Suppletion		

- Non –segmentable words

(e) Compounding in English   -   Endocentric compounds

 -   Exocentric compounds

(f) English loan words

This does not constitute a problem to Boki

learners of English

(g) Tone

 -   Tone operates in Bokyi and not in English

 -   It makes the learning of English tense
     difficult

 -   It makes appropriate stressing of English
     word difficult.

CHAPTER FOURTEEN
CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study on the morphology of English and Bokyi has revealed that there are areas of similarities as well as areas of differences between English and Bokyi morphological systems. Whereas areas of similarity are found to enhance and facilitate the learning process, areas of differences are found to pose learning difficulties to the Bokyi learner-users of English. Base on the findings Bisong (2010) on the morphological processes of English and Bokyi, and the content of this text, it is expedient to make some concluding remarks on the morphology of English and Bokyi as follows:

i. The study revealed also that while English words are inflected and derived suffixally and prefixally; Bokyi words are inflected or derived by means of prefixation only. Though the inflectional process of word formation in Bokyi is not as productive as that of English, inflection in both languages applies to nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs respectively. Notably, the learning of English inflectional processes is usually problematic to a Bokyi learner of English. This results from the fact that there is no one to one correspondence between the inflectional processes of English and Bokyi in most cases. This major area of English word formation (derivational/inflectional suffixation and prefixation) therefore requires extra attention by teachers who teach English to Boki learners.

ii. In spite of the differences existing between the two languages, English and Bokyi share some features in the area of reduplication, compounding and segmentation. For instance, both languages are found to use reduplication as a process of word formation; while Bokyi uses full reduplication only, English employs both full and partial reduplication. However, the various situations

that require reduplication in Bokyi appear to be different from the situations that call for reduplication in English. This difference, a lack of one to one correspondence between situations requiring reduplication in English and those requiring same in Bokyi, poses learning difficulty to the Bokyi users of English as they are tempted to transfer the pattern of reduplication in Bokyi into English. On compounding as a word formation process, it was discovered that both languages combine words of different classes to form compound words, and there is no limit to size of compound are non-existent in Bokyi. This poses learning difficulty in this direction.

iii.   Both segmentable and nonsegmentable words are found in both languages, but the number of segmentable words in Bokyi appears to be far less than what we have in English. The major difference between English and Bokyi in this regards is the fact that Bokyi, unlike English, does not have total replacement of sound(s)/structure(s) (suppletion); a situation which make learning in this direction difficult for the Boki learners. Also, both languages are discovered to have borrowed and are still borrowing lexical items of other languages. While English, being an international language, is discovered to have borrowed widely and extensively from international languages, Bokyi, being the language of a local community, north of Cross River State of Nigeria is discovered to have borrowed from a few languages within its neighborhood. Learning of foreign forms in English language because these forms are already built into the English vocabulary. The task of the teacher in this regard is to isolate the foreign/borrowed forms in the target language (English), categorize them according to their origins, showing their respective etymology –history, pronunciation and meaning.

iv. Some Bokyi words are discovered to have several meanings depending on the tone applied in realization. Also, Bokyi uses tone to derive it verb forms; by applying the right tone to the base to have the needed verb form. This process of verb formation is different from what obtains in English, making the learning of English tenses difficult for the Bokyi learner-users. The learners therefore need to be adequately exposed to the operation of English tenses, and be encouraged to embrace wider learning and reading opportunities so that they can familiarize themselves with English tenses and internalize them consciously and unconsciously.

v. A teacher's good knowledge of the target language cannot proffer solutions to all learning difficulties. It has to combine with ability to perfectly analyze the two languages (L1 and the target language) showing areas of similarities and differences and their pedagogical implications. This applies also to the teaching/learning of the English language by English language teachers and the Boki learners. The English language text writer can avail himself/herself of his wealth of knowledge to guide him/her as these linguistic phenomena recur in many African languages.

vi. From the above remarks and explication, it is therefore required of the designers of the English language syllabus as well as authors of the English language textbooks to avail themselves of his wealth of knowledge to guide them respectively in their pursuit of imparting knowledge to language learners; as these linguistic phenomena recur in many other African languages. Designers of the syllabus need to lay emphasis on the areas of difference, which impede the learning process, while the authors of the English language textbooks, being aware of the needs of the learner also, should produce

English texts that are meant to tackle the identified areas of difficulty (as emphasized in the syllabus). While no time should be wasted on aspects that pose no problem, sufficient practice materials should be provided in areas where problems are identified.

vii.   Both the teachers and the learners should be made to be aware of the basic problem areas resulting from the difference in the morphological processes of two languages. This awareness will enable them to isolate areas where emphasis should be laid for effective remediation. The learners (students) should be encouraged to keep and maintain an Error Gravity Exercise Book (EGEB) where all errors that interfere with English word formation or impede intelligibility during class activities, assignments or discussions are entered into. The teacher should guide the students so that they can identify the existence of a particular error, its nature, the linguistic rule that had been violated/breached and how such an error could be corrected. This practice will discourage the teachers' monopoly of error correction and encourage self-correction and peer interaction. Teachers should undertake routine checks of students EGEB. This could even be used as a form of assignment which will enable the teacher to identify those errors that are persistent and the nature of their occurrence. This approach will make the classroom interaction more meaningful and rewarding as learners centered remediation could be offered by way of tailoring their pedagogical clues to meet the identified needs of the learners. The traditional method of language teaching should be discouraged and the direct or natural method be encouraged. The later method operates on the idea that the learning of a second language must be an imitation of the first

language learning, as this is the natural way of learning language by humans (Williams, 2004). Here, drills and relevant class activities are encouraged.

viii. The government/employers of labour should ensure that those employed to teach English to the students are professional English language teachers, versed in the language and equipped with the skills and method of language teaching. Also, good learning environments and facilities are to be provided so as to enhance the learning of English morphology. In addition, seminars and workshops should be organized for teachers to enable them master English and Bokyi languages, particularly the morphological systems. These would enable them to be aware of intricacies of language learning and expose them to word structures of languages. Finally, the introduction of Bokyi in schools would enable learners/users to be acquainted with its rich vocabulary and grammar. This will help the development of the languages as certain Bokyi words can be borrowed into English and vice versa at least at the regional level.

ix. Also, research on the problem of translating English linguistic items into Bokyi and vice versa should be carried out with a view to improving translation skills to make the translation of English texts into Bokyi (and vice versa) a success. This can be made effective by doing a contrastive study of English and Bokyi lexicalization, and perhaps between English and other languages within Bendi languages family. Research should be carried out on those derivational processes of words formation not examined by this study, namely, blocking, alphasis, antonomasia, and syncopation.

x. A contrastive study of the morpho-syntactic patterns in English and Bokyi should be carried out. This would enable scholars, teachers and learners have a

clearer view of the similarities and differences between the two languages, as

well as provide teachers with pedagogical clues.

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