# A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF THE PREDICATIVE SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH AND FULFULDE

**BY**

**ALIYU BABAYO MOHAMMED**

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**Department of English,**

**Faculty of Arts, Ahmadu Bello University**

**Zaria – Nigeria**

## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled "A Contrastive Study of the Predicative Systems of English and Fulfulde" was written by me and it is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree.

All quotations are indicated and the sources of information are specifically acknowledged by way of reference.

(Sign:……)

(Date:……)

## CERTIFICATION

This thesis, entitled "A Contrastive Study of the Predicative Systems of English and Fulfulde", has been read and approved as satisfying the regulations governing the award of Degree of Master of Arts in English Language of Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria.

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| Dean, Post Graduate School | Date |

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to the memory of the following: My Father Mallam Muhammadu Ngari in whom my intellectual inspiration was anchored, my Mother Fatima (Adda) and my Maternal Uncle Kawua, the two who were my mentors in Patience, endurance and tolerance.

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## ABSTRACT

In this study we attempted to assess the differences that exist across the Predicative systems of English and Fulfulde. We also tried to establish similarities. Some of the differences we found were as a result of the structural differences that exist between English and Fulfulde. First of all, there was the difference of grammatical exponents. While in the case of English there is a clear distinction in the functions of words as opposed to morphemes, in the sense that while words act as purely semantic exponents, morphemes play word-internal functions (morphology), in Fulfulde, morphemes play a predominant role in syntax so that the line dividing morphemes from words is not so clear. One other difference between the two languages was around the VAP (voice aspect polarity) suffix that is found in Fulfulde unlike in English. This Morpheme accounts for a great deal of the difference in the behaviour of the Fulfulde verbal which in effect is responsible for most of the differences in the predicative system of Fulfulde, a category that does not exist in English.

In analyzing the data for this project a rather eclectic approach was taken, leaning heavily on Dik's (1981) framework of Functional Grammar as well as taking a leaf here and another there from other theories especially the Transformationalists as represented by Napoli (1989).

This work is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 is the introduction, containing the statement of the problem of the research which raises some of the central

questions in the study. The aims and objective of the study are also stated in this chapter. The scope of the work is also spelt out as focusing on a contrast of the predicative systems of English and Fulfulde.

Chapter 2 contains the review of literature that serves as background to the study. There is an in-depth review of literature on Fulfulde as well as on the general theory of Predication as a linguistic concept. The theoretical model for the project is also highlighted here. Chapter 3 is devoted to the methodology or procedure as to how the data for the study was gathered and processed.

In Chapter 4, there is the analysis of the corpus collected using the theoretical framework highlighted in Chapter 2. The summary, conclusions and recommendations of the project are presented in Chapter 5 bringing this project to its end.

## KEY TO TRANSLITERATION

In transliterating (transcribing) the corpus of Fulfulde for this research, the doubling method was employed. By this, vowel sounds are doubled in length, thereby using segmental means rather than prosodic means to indicate increase in length. The following are double length vowels which are usually employed to achieve the long syllables that are common in Fulfulde.

'aa' as in suud<u>aa</u>ma

'ee' as in femb<u>ee</u>ki

'ii' as in waddan<u>ii</u>

'oo' as in pemb<u>oo</u>wo

## KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| 'A' | Adjunct |
| 'Ag' | Agent |
| 'Go' | Goal |
| 'O' | Object |
| 'P' | Predicator |
| 'Po' | Positioner |
| 'Pret' | Preterite Element |
| 'RES' | Radical Extension Suffix |
| 'S' | Subject |
| 'SRP' | Subject Role Player |
| 'V' | Verb |
| 'VAP' | Voice Aspect Polarity suffix |

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# CHAPTER ONE

# BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

> The new conception involved the realization that despite appearances to the contrary, the world does not consist of independently existing objects, whose concrete features can be perceived clearly and individually, and whose nature can be classified accordingly. Hawkes (1977:17)

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The statement above by Terence Hawkes appears to summarize the structuralist view of nature, to wit-that nature in general is to be understood not as an aggregate of entities but as consisting of systems of relationships. In other words every entity, including linguistic entities, is to be studied not in terms of its individual essence but in terms of the relationships it enters with other entities within the universe. The concept of structure can indeed be likened with the conferment of dynamism with which the universe has come to be identified.

It was Ferdinand de Saussure (who is generally acclaimed as the father of modern linguistics), who actually identified the dynamism of human language through the use of his famous set of dualisms. The first in the series of dualisms is the 'Diachronic' approach to the study of language as acting in complementarity with the 'Synchronic' approach. This means that language can be studied both in its evolutionary motion (diachronically) and in its momentary

stability (synchronically). An analogy can be drawn in this respect from the use of motion pictures and still pictures to study a living object. Another duality of language has to do with the relationships within the structure of a given linguistic corpus (say a sentence or a phrase). Here a dual relationship has been identified for every element. One angle of this duality is to do with the relationship a linguistic element (say a Word or a Morpheme) enters with other elements around it within a given linguistic stretch. For example, a noun can relate to an adjective in English in a modification, and this is referred to as a "syntagmatic" relationship. On the other hand an entity enters into optionality relationship with another entity. This relationship (referred to as paradigmatic}, normally identifies the classes to which linguistic entities belong. Entities within the universe, be they physical objects or abstract phenomena, can be understood only in their relationship with other entities. This relationship may be spatial or temporal, but relationships all the same.

The relationship this research is out to study is not that between entities within a language, but between entities across two languages, or to put it more succinctly between two languages English and Fulfulde.

## 1.2 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English as far as this researcher is concerned, does not require any belabouring as regards a profile account. It should simply be borne in mind that the world over at present, there is no other language as widely spoken and as much researched into. Suffice it also to say that in the context of Nigeria, English has penetrated every fabric of life. One can say for example that a school hardly exists today in Nigeria that does not have English on its curriculum.

## 1.3 AN OVERVIEW OF FULFULDE

According to Arnott (1970) the origins of the "Fulbe" (The native speakers of Fulfulde, or the Fulani" as the Hausa call them) remain shrouded, and theories have linked them variously with the Ancient Egyptians, the Biblical "Phut", the Basques and the Dravidians of India.

The early habitat of "Fulbe" has been traced to the eastern part of what is now Senegal or the Western part of the present day Mali. History has shown how the "Fulbe" have migrated over the centuries taking a generally easterly direction. They are now to be found throughout a broad Delt of West Africa, roughly between the 11th and 15th parallels. This belt extends from Senegal, Gambia and Guinea on the Atlantic Coast, throughout Mali Burkina Fasso,

Niger, Northern part of Nigeria, to Chad and the Camarouns. Some fringes of the spread can be found in southern Mauritania, northern Sierra Leone, Ghana, the Republic of Benin and even as far as the Sudan.

The term "Fulfulde" which is the name given to the language by its speakers is a derivative of the ethnic group, "Fulbe" (singular "Pullo"). Perhaps because of the wide geographical spread of the "Fulbe", which entails contact with a variety of other peoples, the "Fulbe" have come to be called with a variety of names. All these names however have a single stem in common. This varies from "Pul" "Ful" to "Pheul—", "Peul—" or even "PeuIh". A number of these variations are as a result of the linguistic or geaphological background of researchers that worked on the language. Many of these researchers were French; German and English. English researchers have often tended to use the Hausa term Fulani" (a term actually referring to the speakers of the language) to refer to the language itself Arnott (I970) has adopted the Susu name, "Fula" used in the Gambia as he claimed because it is "more euphonious in English". The present researcher however feels more inclined towards the native name "Fulfulde". This name, as stated earlier, is given to the language by the native speakers, and the present researcher being their extraction (a "Pullo"), can hardly disguise his native bias.

On a more serious note however, going by the Nigerian context, the term "Fulfulde" is easily the most recognizable. Local radio and television broadcasts and international broadcasts by the voice of Nigeria all use the term in their programmes. And also for the same reason of native bias and for intellectual consistency the term "Fulbe" (singular "Pullo) would be adopted in reference to the native speakers of Fulfulde.

"Fulfulde" is a dispersed language due to the nomadic life of the "Fulbe". However, following some ecological changes and socio-political movements such as the l9th century Sokoto Jihad large "Fulbe" communities have evolved. Arnott (1970) has highlighted areas where the populations are predominantly "Fulbe". These include Futa Jalo in Northern Guinea and northern Senegal, some parts of Mali and Burkina Faso, Gwandu and Gombe emirates in Nigeria and part of Adamawa. In these areas, fully organized Fulbe communities have evolved varying in size from small villages to towns as large as Labe, Dabala, Kaedi, Matam and Podor in the West, Djenne, Mopti, Bandiagara, Dori and Djibo in the bend of the Niger, and Birnin Kebbi, Gombe, Yola, Jalingo, Marua and Garua in the East.

Based on this analysis, Arnott (I970) has presented six major dialectal areas for the entire Fulfulde West-east continuum. These are as follows;

A. Futa Toro (Senegal)

B. Futa Jalo (Guinea)

C. Masina (Mali)

D. Sokoto and Western Niger

E. Central Northern Nigeria and Eastern Niger

F. Adamawa.

There are other areas that have not been stated in this list and whose dialects, it is felt approximate the features of one or the other of the dialects listed. The Fulfude spoken is Burkina Faso, for example, combines the features of the Masina (No.3) and the Sokoto and Western Niger (No. 4) dialects. On the other hand the varieties spoken in Portuguese Guinea, Mauritania and Benin Republic resemble the dialects spoken in Guinea, Senegal and Sokoto respectively.

## 1.4 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

This research seeks to find answers to the following fundamental questions:

1.4.1 What are the structural differences between English and Fulfulde?

1.4.2 To what extent do these differences reflect on the respective Predicative systems of the two languages? How weighty, if the question is put differently, are the structural differences between the two languages on their respective Semantic structures.?

1.4.3 How applicable, considering the Malinowskeyan theory of 'Context of Situation', are theories of language developed using mostly European languages if these theories are to be used on African languages?

## 1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

This research work is aimed primarily at a comparative assessment of the predicative systems of English and Fulfulde. In making this comparative study, it is hoped that some of' the existing Predication theories can be applied to diverse languages of the world especially languages that are far apart from each other both geographically and in terms of historical evolution. To make this fact clearer, there is only the need to note that while English is Indo-European, Germanic and Anglo-Saxon by origin Fulfulde is African and Bantu (see Encarta Refrence Library 2005).

As an entailment of the objective stated above, another (even more practical) aim of this research is to explore the possibility of developing a Grammatical

model for African Languages in general and Fulfulde in particular. In the case of the latter language, it is hoped that this research will constitute a firm stepping stone on the way towards the formulation of not only a formal grammatical model, meant for general scientific Linguistic endeavours, but also for the realization of a model for pedagogical purposes.

## 1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to Arnott (I970) quite a number of research Works have been carried out on Fulfulde in French, German and in English. Some of the works appeared over a hundred years ago. Some recent publications cited by Arnott (I970) include August Klingenheben's (1962***) Die Sprache de Ful*** and Labourer's (1952) ***La Langue de Peuls au Foulbe*** ,written in German and French respectively. The only Fulfulde Grammars written in English are the I953 reprint of Taylor's (I92I) Grammar of the Adamawa Dialect and Lloyd Swift's Pedagogic Basic Course (based on the Gambian variety). From the foregoing, it can be concluded that, considering the numerical strength of Speaker, geographical spread and other potentialities of Fulfulde, not much research has been carried out on the language. At present some Nigerian Universities (for example University of Maiduguri and Bayero University Kano) have embarked on programmes on Fulfulde. It can therefore, be assumed that a research of this

nature will add to the existing literature on the field. With this, it is hoped that some of the problems of dearth of relevant material would be minimized for further researchers.

One other area of significance for this project is the fact that Fulfulde has gained a place among languages of not only national but also international broadcasting. In almost all the countries where the language is spoken it is being employed in this direction. In Nigeria, in addition to some state radio stations (e.g. Kaduna, Kano, Bauchi, Yobe, Gombe, Adamawa and Taraba), the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria, Kaduna National Station has a Fulfulde section that runs daily programmes. The Voice of Nigeria Lagos which is the country's external broadcaster, runs daily programmes for international audience in Fulfulde among such other languages as French, Arabic, Swahili and Hausa. In this field too, it is hoped that this research will find eager recipient. The international status of Fulfulde has made the language a subject of interest to international organizations. Both governmental and non-governmental organizations such as UNESCO and UNICEF need to utilize this rural based international language to execute their development programmes.

In this direction this project hopes to help in paving the way towards the development of a standard that is acceptable for the benefit of the entire Fulfulde speaking region. This would facilitate the translation of publications carried out by these NGOs.

In recent years, the Nigerian Government has embarked on some programmes aimed at bringing the Fulbe (Fulani) nomads into the mainstream socio-economic life of the nation. This can be seen for example in the nomadic education programme designed to educate the children of the normadic Fulbe. In this direction too this research will be of significance in its potential toward fashioning a model grammar for this programme.

## 1.7 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This research focuses on the Predicative systems of English and Fulfulde. This is to be done by way of comparing systems of the two languages. It is therefore not a general grammatical analysis. One should bear in mind however that Predication being the area of interest is centered around Semantics. And Semantics as an aspect of General Grammar cannot be studied independently of the other aspects. To be particular, in order to assess the Semantic system of a language, and especially logical Semantics (the Semantics of Predication) one has to also make an assessment of the Syntactic and Morphological aspects of

the language in question. These aspects also will come under focus in this research.

In doing this the researcher however takes for granted that in the case of English, the Syntactic and Morphological systems enjoy a greater degree of familiarity than in most other languages. It is therefore hoped that the balance of energy expenditure in this regard is weighted more on the side of Fulfulde. This is because while the structural pattern of English is all but too familiar, that of Fulfulde will need a good deal of extra analysis.

It is obvious from earlier analyses that Fulfulde is almost as well an international language as English. To this extent it is possible to predict a wide-ranging variety of dialects for each of the two languages. It would therefore be just in order to delimit attention on a single variety of each language for the purpose of analytical consistency.

In the case of English the business of selecting a dialect is obviously a straight-to-the-point one. The standard British English is so well known to both experts and laymen as to need any detailed elucidation. Suffice it simply to say that even the difference between American English and British English (both at the

levels of standard) is more on the Phonological and Lexical side and merely marginal on their Syntax or even Semantics. Fulfulde on the other hand is much less well known. Here, there certainly is need for some delimitational clarification. In this regard the existence of social varieties in Fulfulde would not be taken into consideration. This is more so in view of the fact that no variety has been generally adopted as standard Fulfulde. There is therefore need to confine the quest around the geographical parameter.

Arnott (1970) having put forward his dialectal map, settles down to focus on the variety of Fulfulde spoken around the Gombe division of the Old Bauchi province. This variety, representing the Fulfulde spoken across much of central Northern Nigeria and Eastern Niger, and even Chad, seems to fit and will be the adopted variety for this research. Apart from its geographical coverage, it is the view of this researcher that in the overall easterly expansion of the language, it is the area covered by this variety that marks a certain important landmark. This has to do with the pattern of encounter between Fulfulde and other Nigerian languages. Up to this point the pattern seems to characterize encounter between Fulfulde and some other major languages. In Senegal, for example it is Fulfulde versus Wolof. In Mali, Guinea and Burkina-Faso, it is Fulfulde against

Mandinka, Bambara and some other languages. Here in Nigeria and Niger Fulfulde has come face to face with Hausa. It is predictable up to this point that the Fulfulde varieties are fairly uniform and stable. But from here the linguistic terrain becomes characterized by clusters of small communal native languages that have not been affected by the development of any earlier Lingua-franca such as Hausa. It is the opinion of this researcher that some of the Syntactic, Morphological, Lexical and Phonological peculiarities of the Adamawa dialect, peculiarities which can be understood as processes of simplification or even pidginization, have been the result of uneven liguistic terrain the language has passed through on its contact with these many and sometimes not so related language clusters. To this extent, the Gombe variety enjoys a high degree of representativeness as far as the entire Fulfulde region is concerned.

One additional reason for adopting the Gombe variety has to do with access to published materials. In addition to printed material, when it comes to the broadcast industry a lot of corpus can be obtained easily for this variety. It should be stated that the present researcher is a native speaker of the Gombe variety. It is arguable that there may be the risk of a native-speaker bias. Let it however be noted that the current study is not a sociolinguistic undertaking and

can therefore in no way be under a threat of subjectivity. Coupled with this is the added advantage of' the researcher being in the position to capture some of the fine linguistic nuances which not even an ear of a good second language speaker is sharp enough to register.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.0 INTRODUCTION

The review of' existing literature for this study is divided into two main sections. The first section focuses on the general analysis of some sections of the Grammar of Fulfulde which are central to this study. In this regard, review would be made on Welmers (1973) and Arnott (1970). The second part would be concerned with the general theory of Predication and the practical application of the theory to some languages. Here the reseacher would review Dik (1981) and Napoli (1989). In addition to detailed review of these two works, there is going to be the identification of what would be used as the descriptive model for the research.

## 2.1 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIZATION OF FULFULDE

Arnott (I970) describes the "central" northern Nigerian dialect of Fulfulde (which encompasses the Gombe variety) as having hitherto "received little attention" and is therefore in need of reference material. Welmers (1973) makes reference to Sir Harry Johnson (19I9), Arnott (I960) and Greenberg (I963) as some of the few works done on Fulfulde. In particular, and of relevance to the present research, Welmers (1973) refers to Greenberg (1963) as having identified sixteen singular and six plural classes in what Welmers himself

describes as the "remarkably intricate" Noun system of Fulfulde. A more far reaching reference by Welmers (1973) is Arnott (1960) where a total of twenty-five Noun classes are identified. Each of these noun classes is also identified with four-fold Allomorphic variations each marked by a class of Suffixes. The combination between each of the twenty-five Noun classes and each of the four varieties of Suffixes is Lexically determined. The following examples are quoted.

"Leemuu-re mau-nde" (orange big)

"Loo-nde hes-re" (pot new)

"Jii-re wor-de" (squirrel male)

Welmers (1973), does not however indicate awareness of Arnott (1970), another work focused on the grammatical analysis of the Gombe variety of Fulfulde. This work is more far reaching in a number of' respects, especially as it affects the present study. Arnott (1970) carries out a comprehensive study of (as the title clearly suggests) "the Nominal and Verbal systems" of Fulfulde. Arnott hinges his analysis on what he refers to as "Syntactic Categories" and "Form Classes". It begins by considering the sentence which he said is analyzable in terms of Subject, Predicator, Object, Complement and Adjunct. These are the basic constituents of the sentence and they are expressed by linguistic exponents differing in length and are classifiable into the following: (a) Words (b) Components, (c) Elements (d) Complexes (e) Groups and (f)

Particles. Arnott (1970) describes the fist three (words, Components, and Elements) as Primary Syntactic categories and the other three as Secondary Syntactic categories. Here are Arnott 's definitions:

a. A "word" is the smallest stable form, "Stable" here meaning that it can stand alone in response e.g "Bello" (a man's name), "deptere" (Book) "Suudu" (hut), "hanko" (he), "ton" (there) "bindudo" (one-who-wrote).

a) "Components" are unstable — they cannot stand alone, even in response, but occur only in complexes e.g 'nder" (in), "maako" (his) "maaru" (its).

b.) "Elements" are also unstable forms, but mostly of simpler structure than components (viz. Monosyllabic forms with structures CV or VC) e.g "nde" "o" in the examples below.

c.) "Complexes" are "close" combinations and they are stable. The combinations are of two words:

"Deptere Bello"
(Book-of Bello) — Bello's book

Word + Component or Component + Word

"Deptere maako"

(Book-of him)----His book

"Nder Suudu"
Inside hut

World + Element or Element + Word

"Bindudo -nde"

(One-who-wrote it)

"Dde Bello"

(That of Bello)

Element + Component or Component + Element

"Nde maako"

(That-of his)

"O wartii"

(He has-come-back)

"Waddu dum"

(Bring it)

Two Components

"Nder maaru"

(Inside-of it)

There are also longer Complexes in which one of the components is itself a Complex or a Group of some kind.

d. A "Group" is an inclusive term used to cover a variety of forms, all of which occupy the same position in a sentence. In any given instance a Ggroup may be represented by a Word, a Complex or certain specific

combinations of Words, Complexes, Components or/and Elements. Groups are of two kinds Nominal Groups and Adverbial Groups.

e. A "Particle" is an unstable form which occurs only in combination with other forms, but is not part of the basic structure of a Complex, a Group or a Sentence, as are Components and Elements, and is Syntactically less restricted.

Referring to the Syntactic categories just highlighted, Arnott (I970) also identifies certain other categories that cut across them. These are referred to as "Form Classes" and can be distinguished in terms of "Nominals" "Verbals" "Verbo-noininals", "Adverbials" and "Prepositions". The term classes belong to open systems and cannot be defined by listing but by their structure and by reference to one or more of the series of Nominal and/or Verbal Suffixes.

Arnott (1970) analyses the Fulfulde Nominal system as based on a class system found in many West African and Bantu languages. Nouns and Nominals of the Gombe variety of Fulfulde can be divided into 25 classes based on Syntactic agreement between Nominals sharing a referent. For example "wudere" (cloth) and "sauru" (stick) are assigned to different classes based on agreement pattern.

a. "Wüdere mawnde ndee wudere ndeye sheede maare"

(Cloth big this cloth which price of-it)

b). "Sauru mawndu nduu sauru nduye sheede maaru"

(Stick big this stick which price of-it)

This agreement identified through concord markers

i. Varies with classes e.g.

"-re, - nde ndee, nde" (for "wudere")

"-ru, -ndu nduu ndu" (for "sauru")

ii. is of different kinds in different types of Nominals. For example the nominals:

"wude-re, maw-nde" and

"sau-ru, maw-ndu"

have Suffix concord markers. On the other hand, in the case of "nde-ye" and "ndu-ye" it is the first of the two constituent elements that identifies the agreement. There are also cases such as "ndee" "nduu" where the concord is marked by the whole form of the nominal. In "maa-re" and "maa-ru", it is the second element that marks the concord.

In the Verbal system of Fulfulde, majority of the forms can be analysed as Complexes. This is because of the inseparability and Morpho-phonemic

interdependence among the constituent parts of the Verbals. There are however, a few forms that can be ranked as words. The typical Verbal in Fulfulde is centered around a Verbal Base (simple a Base) composed of a Radical plus a Tense Suffix. There are Verbal forms (e.g. Imperative forms of the Intransitive Verb) which consist of, just a Base for instance.

"wartu" (come back)

"jooda" (Sit down)

Imperative Complexes are made of Base + one or two Object Elements e.g. "waddu—dum" (Bring it)

"Hokku-ino-dum" (Give-him-it)

There are also Verbal Complexes that consist of a Subject Element and a Base e.g.

"0—warri" 'O-waray"

(He has come) (he will come)

Some consist of a Subject Element and a Base +

i. A Preterite Element

"O warri no" (he had come)

"O waray no" (he was about to come)

ii. One or two Object Elements

"O-waddii-dum" (he brought it)

"O-hokkii-mo-dum" (he gave him it).

A hybrid of the Verbals and the Nominals discussed above are the Verbo-nominals. These are made of a Verbal Radical + a Tense Suffix + a Nominal Suffix with a possible Preterite Element between the two Suffixes. They are mainly of two types as follows;

Infinitives; e.g.

"loot-u-ki", (to wash)

"loot-aa-ki", (to wash oneself) to get washed

"loot-ee-ki", (to be washed)

ii. Participles, e.g.

"loot-u-do" (one who has washed (something))

"loot-u-be" (plural of above)

"loot-u-noo-do" (one who had washed)

"loot-ii-do" (one who has washed himself)

"loot-otoo-do" (one who will wash himself)

"loot-aa-do" (one who has been washed).

Syntactically, Verbo-nomninals resemble Verbals in some respects (e.g. the relation between a Verbo-nominal and a Nominal depends on it) but in other

respects they resemble Nominals (e.g. Infinitives occupy the same position in Sentence structures as Nouns, Participles. the same positions as Adjectives.

## 2.2 SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Arnott (1970) identifies the following types of sentence in Fulfulde

a. Simple sentences

b. Simple sentence containing one or more clauses

c. Co-ordinate sentences

d. Serial sentences

e. Compound sentences

f. Multiple sentences

The list above however falls into two broad classes: The Simple sentences of various types and the not-so-simple types. In analyzing the simple sentences focus is made on the positions of the Nominal and Adverbial.

Arnott (I970) categorizes the Fulfulde simple sentence into two. One the Verbal type and the other the Non-verbal type. The distinction between the two types is in terms of their having or not having a verbal form as nucleus. The verbal sentences can also be further sub-divided into Emphatic and Neutral types.

It has already been noted in the cause of this review how the basic functions of the various segments within the simple sentence are spelt out. In general, the

exponents of Subject, Object and Complement may be a Nominal or Adverbial Group. Subject and Object Elements also can function as Subject and Object respectively in certain Non-verbal sentences. The exponent of Predicator in Verbal sentences is Verbal (word or complex); in Non-verbal sentences, it is one of a small number of Quasi-verbal forms and stabilizing elements. The exponents of Adjunct is Normally an Adverbial Group, but certain, types of Nominal Groups are also possible.

The following are detailed examples of the various types of simple sentence

### 2.2.1 Verbal Sentences:

i. Neutral sentences formula (A) (S) P (0) (0) (A) in

this type of sentence the exponent of 'P' is always

a Verbal form e.g. 'P' "Wartu" (come back)

'0' "Waddiidum" (be brought it)

'AP' "hande o-wartii" (today he came back)

'PA' "o- wartii hande" (he came back today)

'SP' "Bello wart ii" (Bello has come back)

'ASP' "hande Bello warti" (today Bello come back"

'SPO Bello waddii sheede (Bello has brought money)

'SPOA"Bello waddii sheede hande "(Bello brought money today)

.ii.Emphatic-sentences

Four types have beeb distinguished by Arnott "S"-emphatic, "0"-emphatic, "C"-emnphiatic,

and "A"-emphatic. This indicates that at the semantic level of the sentence, there is "exclusive emphasis" on the given exoponent.

### 2.2.2 Non-verbal sentences

Five types have been identified by Arnott (1970) and the following analysis can be used.

i) analysable as "SC(A) e.g

"Ali/Shooko" — (Ali is-poor)

"Bello bumdo" —(Bello is-blind)

ii) Analysable as SP (A) e.g.

"deptere don—(book is-there)

"mi-don-no" —-(I was there)

iii) Analysable as AS (A)

"no banndu" (how is your body?)

"no innde maa" (what is your name)

iv) Analysable as P(O) (A)

"ndaa" — (here it is)

"ndaa baaba maako" — (there is his father)

"hiin huunde rnaada" — (here is your thing).

Sentences containing a Pre-fix e.g.

SPOA—"Bello Kam, waddii sheede hannde"

(As for Bello, he brought money today).

"Suka o'o, waddii sheede hannde"

(As for this youth, (he) brought money today)

SP – "hanko kam o wartii" (As for him, he has come back)

"Miin kam, mi andaa" (As for me, I don't know)

This analysis is applicable to Verbal as well as Non-Verbal sentences

e.g."Bello kam bumdo" (As for Bello, he is blind).

Simple sentences containing one or more clauses

These are sentences with the structure of a Simple sentence, but in which the exponent of one or more of the categories Subject, Object, Complement or Adjunct is analysable as a Clause. This may be compared with the concept of embedding in English.

Clause as Subject:

S P

"Nde shoodumi Kenya nden, majji".

(One-which I bought yesterday has got lost.)

` S O

Clause as Object: "O wi'ii mi wara"

(He said I-should come)

"O torake-yam, mi - hokka mo nyaamdu sedda"

(He begged me, that I give him food a-little)

"Mi yerdaaki, Bello joodoo do'o"

(I don't agree, (that) Bello should sit here).

Clause as Adjunct:

"Doole mi dilla" (Must, I go) — I must go

"Doole mabbe be koota" (Must them they go back)
` They must go back

### 2.2.3 Coordinate Sentences

"Emo- wara, emo- yima

` (He was coming, he was singing)

"Emo-joodii, emo, huwa"
` ` ` (He was seated, he was working)

### 2.2.4 Serial Sentences

'0 wartii ha '0 nastii

(he has come back, and gone in )

"0 yahi, 'o soodi gawri, nden 'o warti,'o hokki koree maako"
(he went, he bought guinea-corn, then he came back, and he

gave his wife).

### 2.2.5 Compound Sentences

"Mi-soodu-dum, na mi-wujju dum."

(I bought it, not I stole it) ----I bought it, I didn't steal it.

## 2.3 THE FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO PREDICATION

Dik's (1981) analysis is primarily concerned with the difference between linguistic expressions and the Semantic relationships that are contained in these expressions. Dik uses the following examples to demonstrate the problem.

1) John is eager to please
2) John is easy to please.

These two sentences have identical Syntactic structures. Transformational Grammarians have given explanation to the effect that the difference between the underlying Semantic structures of the two sentences is a proof of the different levels of transformation in the grammar of the sentence. Based on the Tranformational Grammar (TG) approach, the two sentences are said to belong to different deep structures.

However, Dik (I98I) explains that while the two sentences appear similar, they in fact represent two different sets of Semantic relationships. In sentence, (1) "eager" indicates a relationship between "John" and the activity of his pleasing someone. In sentence (2) on the other hand, the Semantic content is that "John" is such that it is not difficult, to please him. These defferences are made

clearer through the following paraphrases, the first pair of which being not acceptable, hence the asterisk.

3) *Pleasing John is eager
*It is eager to please John

4) Pleasing John is easy
It is easy to please John.

With these examples, Dik proceeds to highlight on some basic elements of Functional Grammar. These elements he stressed, are of special relevance to the appreciation of the functional model of grammatical analysis.

Dik (I98I) puts forward the following analysis as central to the proper understanding of Functional Grammar, which, as an approach to the analysis of language, is hinged on some Functional notions. Three types of Functions are distinguished:

A) S**emantic Functions**: These include Agent, Goal and Recipient, and they help define the roles of participants in the states of affairs designated by predications.
B) **Syntactic Functions**: These include Subject and Object and define different Persctives on the states of affairs designated by Predications.

C) **Pragmatic Functions**: These include Topic and Focus and mark the informational status of constituents within the wider communicative settings in which they are used.

On the other hand, the following principles are advanced as constraints on the types of rules and structures allowed by Functional Grammar as a theory.

a)Structure-changing operations, which delete, permute, substitute, or otherwise destroy elements of pre-estabhished structures are not allowed.

b) Filtering devices by means of which structures which have been produced at one stage in the descriptive process can later be rejected as ill-formed are avoided.

c) Lexical items are not decomposed into more abstract elements; all along the descriptive production line, the structures used in generating linguistic expressions contain integral lexemes of the object language. Linguistic expressions are schematized in the following sentence.

(As for John) (he didn't read it) (that book of yours)
Theme Predication Tail

'Theme' and 'Tail' are treated as constituents standing outside the predication proper, with the following pragmatic functions.

'Theme' defines a "universe of discourse" for the predication to bear upon.

'Tail' gives afterthought information specifying or modifying given elements contained in the Predication. The Predication proper has the following general structure:

n Q(X1) (X2) ...(Xn),

in which 'n' indicates one or more Predicative operators (such as operators for Tense, Aspect, Negation etc), 'Q' indicates some Predicate, and (X1) (X2) indicate positions for a number of Argument Terms associated with the Predicate.

Predicates are expressions designating properties or relations; Terms are expressions which can be used to refer to entities in some world. A Predication is thus basically, the application of some Predicate to an apropriate number of Terms. Terms are given in the lexicon as Basic Terms (e.g. proper names and pronouns). Most Terms, however, are derived through principles of Term formation.

All Predicates are mapped out Predicate-frames. Predicate-frames are structures which specify the fundamental semantic and syntactic properties of predicates. Some predicate-frames are basic (contained in the lexicon) while others are derived through rules of predicate formation. Basic and derived predicates-frames are together called nuclear Predicate-frames. A Nuclear Predicate-frame

consists of predicate and the term positions required by the predicate (the arguments of the predicate). Nuclear predicate-frames can be extended by satelite term positions; these are positions for terms which provide further modification and specification of the nuclear predicate frame as a whole. The following is an example of a basic predicate-frame for English for the expression "give".

Give V (Xl: animate (Xl) Ag (X2) Go (X3: animate (X3) Rec This predicate-frame expresses the following of the basic predicate "give". It is a Verbal Predicate (V) as distinct from Nominal (N) or Adjectival (A) predicates; It takes three arguments (X1) (X2) and (X3), in the semantic functions of Agent (Ag), Goal (Go) and Recipient (Rec) respectively. The first and the third arguments carry selection restriction to the effect that the terms filling them should designate animate entities.

A predicate-frame such as the one just described can be extended by a satellite position in the semantic function of Location (Loc) to result in the extended predicate-frame:

Give V (X1) A (X2 ) Go (X3) : animate (X3 ) Rec (X4) Loc

Satellite for other semantic functions such as Time, Duration, Reason, Cause, Beneficiary etc can be similarly added to nuclear predicate-frames depending on

the semantic properties of these. Certain predicates have argument positions that may or must be specified by predications. Let us consider the following:

"John believes that Bill loves Sally"

This predicate "believe" indicates a relationship between one entity described as "John" and another described as "that Bill loves Sally" where the latter entity has all the properties of a predication. To account for possibilities such as this, it has to be assumed that the predicate-frame for 'believe" has the following structure:

Believe V(X1):Human (X1 ) Po (Sub X2 [PREDICATIONJ (X2) Go

This predicate-frame indicates that "believe" is a verbal predicate (V) taking two arguments X1 and X2 in which X1 has the semantic function of "Positioner" (Po) and' is restricted to human terms, and X2 has the semantic function of Goal, and is specified by a predication. ln a sense, the predicate to be inserted into the position indicated here acts as a predicate over the term variable X2 which symbolises "that which is believed by 'X1', The element 'Sub' serves as a trigger for a subordinting device by means of which the embedded predication will be joined to the main predicate "believe".

For a predicate - frame to result in a predication, its term positions must be filled with terms. All terms are to have the following abstract arrangement.

W(X1): Q(X1)….n

in which 'W' stands for one or more term operators (for such categories as Definiteness, Number, Quantification etc) and each Q (X1) indicates some "open predication in X1 (some predication with X1 as its only free variable) acting as a restrictor on the set of proper referents of the term. The following term structures exemplify this organization.

a) 'dl (Xi): John N (Xi)

John

b) 13Xj: box N(Xi): wooden A(Xi): red A(Xi): Pretty A(Xj)

"Three pretty, red, wooden boxes"

c) dl (Xk): human N(Xk): Past kill V (Xk) Ag dl (Xl): Bill N(Xl) Go)

"The man who killed Bill". If the terms (a), (b) and (c) are inserted into the argument positions of the predicate"

d) Past give V (dl Xi: John N(Xi) Ag.

(I3Xj: box N(Xj): Wooden A(xj: red A(Xj): Pretty A(Xj)) Go (dlXk: man (Xk): Past kill V(Xk Ag (dlXI: Bill (Xl)) Go) Rec.,

this would underly a sentence such as "John gave three pretty red wooden boxes to the man who killed Bill." The would be predicate, in turn, could be

inserted into the second argument position of the predicate-frame of "believe" to arrive at the underlying predication for sentences such as:

"Peter believed that John gave three pretty red wooder boxes to the main who killed Bill."

The underlying predication for the sentence highlighted above could also lead to other realizations. The following cotnstructions are deemed to have the same underlying predication.

John gave the book to Bill  John gave Bill the book

The book was given to Bill by John  Bill was given the book by John

These constructions are semantically equivalent to the extent that each of them can be used to describe the same set of states of affairs. The semantic difference among them lies in the different "perspectives" each of them "chooses" to present the state of affairs described. These differences are captured through differential assignments of the syntactic functions "Subject" and "Objects" to the terms of the underlying predication.

Almost parallel to Napoli's (1989) division of predication into primary and secondary, Dik (1981) gives a division of Complex as opposed to Simple predication. He defines complex predications as "predications which contain other predications embedded within them. Complex predications are also

distinguished from compound predications which consist of pairs or series of predications conjoined together. Dik (I98I) also distinguishes all these varieties of predications from what he refers to as "Complex terms".

More precisely, complex predications are predications in which one or more term positions arguments or satellite positions) are specified by a predication e.g

"John believes that bill loves Sally"

Here "believe" is a two-way relation between a person "John" and something the person believes, expressed by "that Bill loves Sally". The following predicate-frame can be set up for "believe":

Believe V (X1) (X2) Go

In this predicate-frame it is indicated that the first argument of "believe" has the semantic function "Positioner" and the second argument the semantic function "Goal". 'The whole predicate designates a set of positions.

Given the rules for subject assignment in English, this predicate-frame correctly predicts that subject can be assigned to the second argument, so that we may get passive constructions:

"That Bill loves Sally is believed by john"
"It is believed by john that Bill loves Sally"

Additional information can be added to the combinatory possibilities of "believe". For instance "believe" takes human "positioner" and that its "Goal" position can be filled by predications:

(believe V (X1): human (X1) Po (Sub (X2): [PREDICATIONS] (X2)) Go. Here, hunman (X1) is a selection restriction on the possible fillers of positioner arguments "sub" indicates a sort of subordinating device. PREDICATION indicates a position into which a full new predication can be inserted and this sentence is as follows:

(Press believe V dl (Xi}: John N (Xi) (Sub (Xi): [Press Love V dl (Xk): Bill m(Xk) dl(Xj) Go] )

Suppose the sentence is continued as follows:

"…but he does not like it"

using the convention of anaphorical terms, it could be represented as follow:-

but pres neg like V (Xi) Po (Xj) Go

where later expression rules will specify the anaphorical terms as "he" and "it" respectively.

The above analysis makes it clear that predications are recursive through embedded predications and that embeding of predications into term positions of higher predications makes the whole arrangement hierarchical. Similarly, each predication defines a domain, and the domain of an embedded predication is

enclosed within the domain of the Matrix predication. It would then be correct to say that the expression in the example here is congruent with its underlying predication, because the domain structure of the expression, which can be indicated as follows: (John believes that Bill loves Sally),

reflects the domain structure of the underlying predicaticn.

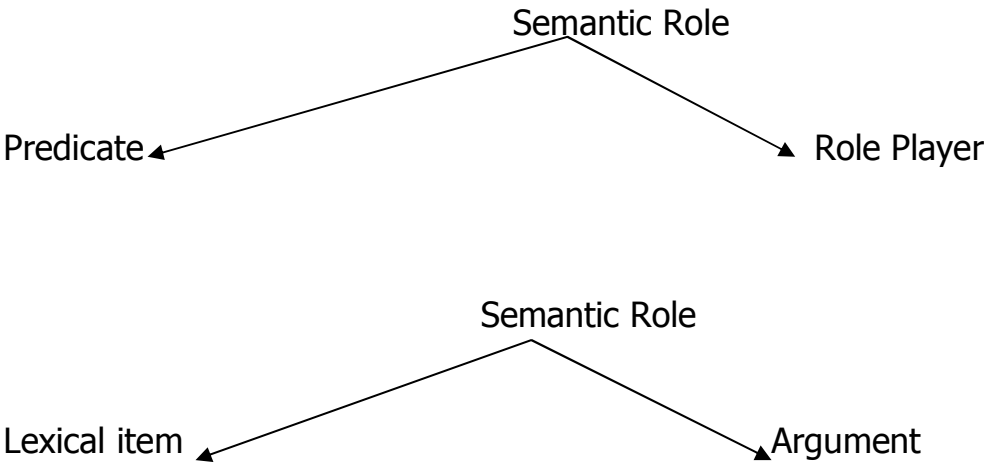
## 2.4 THE INDEXING THEORY OF PREDICATION

With regard to the Indexing Theory, the recview goes on to focus on Napoli (1989). This approach represents a difference of opinion from Dik (I98I) reviewed above. Dik's (198I) advocacy of the functional grammar approach to the analysis of predication has already been reviewed. Napoli on the other hand is within the Government and Binding School, a school inclined more towards the Transformational Grammar(T.G.).

It is however the opinion of this researcher that the two works share something that is relevant to the present study, namely, each of the two has presented in their respective ways, some comparative analyses of the predicative systems of some European languages. The present study would certanly benefit from these comparative studies.

Napoli (1989) begins by putting forward two related but distinct linguistic concepts, namely, a 'predicate' and a 'lexical item'. Predicates here are referred

to purely as semantic entities which do not have any particular syntactic characteristics. A paralel and a distinction are drawn between the relationship of a predicate to its role players on the one hand and that of a lexical item to its arguments on the other. This pair of relationships is presented schematically as follows:




Napoli (1989) explains that a typical lexical head e.g N(oun), A(djective) and V(erb) can head a predicate, although there are uses in which P(reposition) which does not head a lexical item may also head a predicate. This view of predication approaches the subject matter from an "event-structure" perspective.

In this regard a typical clause is seen as correponding to the general semantic notion of "proposition" which consists of a "state"or an "action"expressed and a Group (made of one or more) participants or role players in that state or action. Two terms here "state" and "action" are lumped together into "event". For example in the following sentence (which corresponds to a proposition), the event is the action of "lending"' and the role players are a lender, an object lent and someone who has received the object lent.

"John lent Mary books"

The analysis here is that the sentence is made of a predicate "lent" and the three role players. Defining a predicate in terms of an event structure, Napoli (1989) observes that the actual boundary between a predicate and its role players is a flexible one. In the example given above, the event can also be seen as of "lending books" and in this case the predicate would be a discontinuous string (lent…books) and there would be two role players ("John" and "Mary"). Again the event may be viewed as that of "John lending to Mary" in which case the predicate would be "John lent Mary" and the role player would be "books". "Mary" can also be viewed as the event so that "Jean" and "books" would be the role players. Napoli (1989) suggests that the event in our example here can be reduced to the verb "lent" or expanded to include anyone

or more nominal phrases to the extent that at least there is only one role player to the predicate.

Further, it can be argued that an "event" lexical item is the "head" of a predicate and that the event lexical item assigns a Thematic ('theta') role to the role players'. The process of theta assignment treats all role players equally. This is as opposed to the claim by some analysts that the VP assigns a Theta role to the item in the syntactic subject position. These other approaches seem to be in line with most linguistic definitions in which typically, the subject role payer is singled out and the rest of the material is called the predicate. Napoli (1989) disagrees with any analysis which views predicates as consisting of a VP versus the syntic subject. It is explained that predication analyses based on VP versus subject role player (or syntactic subject) can only be applicable to languages that have VP. Only a theory that views the predicate from an event structure point of view can handle the so-called non-cofigurational languages (languages that do not have VP, such as Tagalog). In essence, the argument here is that any approach to predication based on syntactic restrictions between the locations of predicates and certain of their role players would be grossly inadequate.

Napoli (1989) also focuses on specifiers and modifiers as to their roles within the predicate. This is in reaction to a suggestion by some analysts that

"adverbials" can be ptredicates. The following example is used for English.

a) Jean almost lent Mary books

b) Jean lent Mary books frequently

Napoli argues that these words are not event words (which can be predicates on their own). These can rather be considered as appendages to (modifying or specifying) the predicates. To buttress this assertion examples above are modified as follows: -

Jean almost lent Maty books frequently

And the question arises as to whether the correct reading for this would be

That it was "a frequent occurrence" that "Jean almost lent Mary books" or, (a more bizarre reading) that "it was almost the case that Jean frequently lent Mary books.

The analysis also focuses on multiple predications in a single clause. This is as opposed to sentences that have single predicates and which consist only of one clause. The following example is given:

We painted the barn red

This is a single-clause sentence which has two predicates ("painted" and "red"), which raise further questions as to the difference between "predication" and

"modification". How does the predicate "red" here differ from the "modifier" "red" for example in "we painted the red barn."

Napoli (1989) explains that in the case of "we painted the barn red", the result is that the barn turns out red and the barn is clearly a role player with respect to the state described as "red". In other words "red" predicates the barn. However in "we painted the red barn", we are picking out a particular barn and calling it "red". After painting, it might be another colour.

For example:

"We painted the red barn blue for a change".

And before painting, it might not even have been red.

The theory put forward here also states that every predicate must have role players. Napoli (1989) notes that many event words, particularly Nominals, can be without explicit role players e.g

"I am saddened by destructon of any kind"

Here "destruction" is an event word and in other sentences it can take explicit role players e.g

"I am saddened by the Venetians destruction of their own city".

In the case of the earlier example it can be explained that there is an implicit role player in form of an agentive controller.

Also in an attempt to clarify the semantic status of predication as opposed to the syntactic structure of the clause, (or even the pragmatic motive behind the structure of the sentence), Napoli draws a distinction between what can be described as "thematic roles" and "Semantic roles". The former belongs to pragmatics and is assigned to an argument of an event lexical item. Thematic roles (also called "theta roles") are limited in number and are gross semantic features that show the general nature of participation of an argument in an event. "Semantic roles" on the other hand are unlimited in number and are made of finely detailed semantic properties indicating, the specific nature of the participation of role players in an event. Semantic roles are assigned to role players by the predicate. The following chart is to illustrate the foregoing analysis.

| LEXICAL STRUCTURE | PREDICATE STRUCTURE |
|---|---|
| "Lexical item" — single word, string of words or phrase | "Predicate" — an event. Lexical item (the head of the predicate) Plus certain specifiers and Modifiers of the head. |
| Lexical items take arguments | predicates take role players (All arguments of the head of |

| | |
|---|---|
| | the predicate are its role payers |
| Arguments receive theta roles | Role players receive |
| (whicln are a few gross semantic | semantic roles (which are |
| features like Agent, Patient. | Unlimited detailed semantic |
| Theme... | properties. |

From here the focus is shifted to highlighting on grammatical categories (or lexical categories to be more specific) that can serve as predicates (or. more specifically heads of predicates). These are N(oun), V(erbs) and A(djectives) and each is discussed in detail. There is also a highlight on categories that can serve as role players of a predicate. These include any phrase (or what stands in place of the phrase). This assertion is backed by a "principle of coincidence" which goes as follows: "The arguments of a lexical item are the role players of the predicate headed by that lexical item".

There is then a detailed analysis of the concept of "theta assignment" whose nature, Napoli (I989) argues is not configurational but semantic, applying to arguments wherever they are located in the clause. What should be noted thus far is the stress Napoli (1989) has repeatedly made to the effect that predication is purely a semantic relationship. Napoli (1989) then goes into explaining a set of principles that are supposed to cater for what is referred to as "predication

coindexing". This appears to take care of what is sometime described as the rank system in language particularly as it is reflected in the relationship between "primary predication" and "secondary predication". It is acknowledged that the concept of Coindexing is common to many other theories of predication. In fact, since many such theories treat predication configurationally (in terms of VPs and Grammatical Function Subjects, with internal role players being part of the predicate, coindexing between a subject role player(srp) and its predicate becomes the most central relationship.

Napol's (1989) definition of predication, however, suggests that all role players of a predicate are semantically on equal footing. This is so that in the so called non-configurational languages (languages that do not exhibit VP in their structure) all the arguments of a predicate are always external to the head of the maximal projection of the head of the predicate. So there would be no sense in talking about coindexing between a subject role player (srp) and a predicate, because there is no special (subject) role player.

The theory also allows for the existence of multiple predicates in a single clause. From this we derive the distinction between the primary predicate (which Napoli (1989) refers to as the "ideal" predicate) and the secondary predicate. In defining these, Napoli (I989) refers to the "X-bar" theory

A primnary predicate is defined in terms of a predicate

a) whose head is the syntactic head of the first "XP right sister to I (inflection)",

or

b) which is itself the first XP right sister to I -

A secondaty predicate is defined as any predicate other than a primary predicate.

From this the work delves into explaining how a secondary predicate can be coindexed with its primary predicate. Some of the factors to be borne in mind are as follows:

First, the relevant configurational domain of a primary predicate is its clause. Second, every secondary predicate belongs to a clause that has a unique primary predicate; but a primary predicate may have more than one secondary predicate within its domain. Unlike some other linguists who propose that primary predicates be defined by structural relationships only, Napoli (I989) restricts all predication coindexing to elements bearing only the semantic relatiotnships of subject role player- predicate.

The following examples are given for predicates in Italian and

English. An arrow is used to point from the head of the predicate

(underlined) to the subject role player (srp).

a) Maria ha unafiato i fiori

Maria watered the flowers

Maria e' molto brava

Maria is very good.

Maria e' una professoressa

Maria is a professor

b) Maria e' appena arrivata

Maria has just arrived

Maria e' stata ignorata

Maria has been ignored.

(see Napoli 1989: pp. 89-90)

In all the example above the head of the predicate is shown to assign theta role to its subject role player (srp) through one of three forms of theta assignment.

### 2.4.1 a) External theta assignment

Here a lexical item assigtns a theta role to just one argument that is extenal to the maximal projection of the head of the lexical item (examples A above).

### 2.4.2 b) Direct theta assignment

A lexical item assigns theta role to its sister argument (example 'b' above).

### 2.4.3 c) Compositional theta assignment

A lexical item assigns a theta role to its prepositional

arguments (examples 'c').

After indepth discussion of predication the principles of theta assignment and the pinciples of coindexing, Napoli (I989) devotes the remaining half of the work to the application of these principles on certain linguistic data. The principle of coindexing is first of all applied to the analysis of the noun phrase (NPs) in Italian and in English. The following are examples of NPs analysed.

"that crook of a chairman"

This is similar to the Italian NP:

"quell matto di Giorgio"

that mad-man of Giorgio

We would not go into details of these analyses of NP's for the reason that as it would turn out the analysis of' the internal structure of NP may not be relevant to this study in the sense that in the case of Fulfulde, the idea of NP does not

typically apply. So NPs as a grammatical category are likely to constitute a point of contrast between English and Fulfulde rather than of comparison.

## 2.5 OUR THEORETICAL MODEL

Various descriptive frameworks have been propounded by different analysts for the study of predication.. Napoli (1989) makes reference to certain opinions which see the concept of predication configurationally (that is in terms of VP versus Grammatical Function (GF) subject. These, according to Napoli (1989), are of the view that predicates are tied to syntactic structure. But Napoli dismisses these theories as inadequate because, at one level, they can only claim to apply to languages referred to a configurational, (languages that exhibit "VP"). In line with the above reasoning Napoli (I989) advances the indexing theory of predication. This theory is like many of the other theories, based on the Government and Binding theory of Grammar. Napoli's (I989) tlneory is based on abstracting predication from the syntactic structure — in fact even from the structure of' the lexical item on which the predicate itself is based. Any parallelism between the structure of the clause and the structure of the predicate is eliminated. To account for the congruences between predicates and the "role players" on the one hand and lexical items and their "arguments" on the other, Napoli (I989) puts forward what she calls the principle of

coincidence which states in effect that the arguments of a lexical item are the role players of the predicate headed by that lexical item.

Napoli's theory leans on the Transformational Grammar Propounded by Chomnsky and his followers. The T.G. is of course a formidable theoretical force. Napoli (I989) for instance claims that by solving the problem of interpreting predicates in terms that are purely syntactic, the theory she advances can be applied to all languages. However, for the purpose of this study, we would rather lean more on the Functional Approach as put forward by Dik (1981), with possible modifications. Compared to the Transformational Grammar, this model has a number of advantages;

a) It should be borne in mind that Chomsky himself has often distanced Transformational Grammar from attempting to solve the problems concerned witln language teaching. In other words, the T.G is purely a formal scientific grammar rather than pedagogical grammar. It was already stated as one of the aims of this study the provision of material that would help towards teaching indigenous languages in our schools. To this extent the Chomskyan theory is certainly not a viable choice.

b) Napoli's (1989) theory of predication appears to be still a bit too abstract. This may not be surprising considering the notoriety of the T.G. for being abstract. For example, the concept of "theta assignment" which determines which of the arguments of the clause is to be coindexed with the predicate is too abstract. Dik (1981) has solved this problem by presenting the predicate in form of a predicate-frame mapped out of the "functions" within the clause. These fuctions are identified from the existing linguistic structure and by this we are able to avoid such problems faced by napoli (1989) as to the explanation of the location of "role players" along the linguistic string. In fact, Dik (1981) has stated that in the case of predication (which is purely a semantic affair) 'it is irrelevant to talk about the order of constituents within the clause'. In addition to this relative practicality of the Functional Grammar the Futnctionalists, as is well known from Haliday himself, are concerned primarily with the development of teaching models of language.

Let it be noted in concluding this, that the choice of theoretical frame-work here is not a rigid one. It has to be accepted that no theoretical model has so far been identified to cater for all languages especially when it comes to contrastive analyses such as this. So the model put forward by Dik (1981) is going to be adapted rather than completely adopted.

# CHAPTER THREE

## 3.0 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights on how the data for this research was collected and processed. In other words, the reseacher intends to examine the principles employed for the fieldwork of the project and how these principles are put into use. In this direction inspiration is derived from basic linguistic principles of data collection; principles that are aimed at ensuring reliability and validity of findings and conclusions. In line with the foregoing observation, the area of focus for this research has greatly influenced the methods of data collection. We are here referring to the fact that predication as we had earlier stated is basically a structural concept. It is therefore normal to rely on sentences and lesser expressions as raw material. We are in no way compelled to prefer speech to writing or vice versa. There is therefore hardly any compelling need to go beyond sourcing corpus from the existing literature and prerecorded speeches and dialogues.

## 3.2 THE CORPUS

As has just been hinted in the introduction to this chapter, the sources of the data form two main parts. The first part is the written Corpus. This was obtained, mainly from some of the literature already on the ground. A great bulk of examples for Fulfulde were adopted from the literature reviewed in chapter two (2) particularly Arnott (I97O) and McIntosh (1984). McIntosh's verbal morphological analysis of Fulfulde actually forms a good basis for some of the new concepts encountered in the data analysis. An example of this is the significance of the 'VAP' suffix with regard to the predication in Fulfulde.

Also collected were pre-recorded radio drama programmes in Fulfulde. Selection of drama language was informed by the approximate nature of theatrical use of language viz-a-viz natural speech. It is believed here that drama has a methodological advantage of being less conscious of the researcher's presence than natural speech that is likely to be inhibited by the intrusion of the data gatherer.

In addition to these two major sources of data (texts and drama), the researcher also made use of the native speaker "intuition". This was actually not intended to introduce new information, but rather to augment examples that

were obtained using the other methods as well as to corroborate the data that has already been made available.

## 3.3 TRANSLITETERATION AND TRANSLATION

The pre-recorded audio material was subjected to careful replay to get a broad "transcription" (transliteration). The transcription method employed here is the double length type in which long vowels are distinguished by doubling their segments. Through this, a script of the Fulfulde data was obtained that is accessible to non-speakers to an appreciable extent. In doing this cognisnace is taken of the morphosyntactic characteristics of Fulfulde compared to English which as we note somewhere in our analysis has a more word-based grammar. The transliterated material, along with the written corpus was further translated at two levels. The first level is what we can refer to as item-for-item ("word-for-word") translation. This was then reduced to its "idiomatic" English translation to get the nutshell content of the expression. Below is an example of the transliteration and translation as explained above.

"Bello wadd-an-ii. Buba sheede".

Bello bring-for-VAP. Buba money.

Bello has brought money for Buba.

(VAP Voice Aspect Polarity suffix).

In all this, one should note the absence of direct reference to data collection for English. However, we can also recall in earlier discussion it was stated that English is merely serving as a background of comparison so that we view the variable language (in this case Fulfulde) as reflecting against the background. Essentially English constitutes too familiar a background to desersve any belabouriing.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# DATA ANALYSIS

## 4.1 CATEGORIAL SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH AND FULFULDE AS THESE AFFECT THEIR PREDICATIVE SYSTEMS

It already observed in the literature review for this reseach (Chapter two) the structure of Fulfulde can be considered as radically different compared with that of English (Arnott I970). In that analysis it was noted that the syntactic aspect of Fulfulde is extensively influenced by what in the analysis of English can pass for the morphological component. In English, it can be contended that the word plays a predominant role at the syntactic level of grammar. Here, there is a clear line of demarcation between syntax and morphology to the extent that morphemes play roles that are largely word-internal and words sentence-internal roles.

In Fulfulde on the other hand "morphemes" have much more definable influence on syntax. A clear example in this respect is the Voice Aspect Polarity, (VAP) suffix as identified by McIntosh (I984). This suffix, located within the verbal complex, accounts for the signaling of behaviours that are common to the verb phrase in many European languages including English. The first signal of the "VAP" suffix is the voice where in addition to the two voices (active and passive) that are accounted for in English, there is a third (a middle voice). The "VAP"

suffix takes the following forms to signal the three voices we have just highlighted

### 4.1.1 THE 'VAP' SUFFIX

a) "-ii" , as in
"O loot -ii"
(He-wash-has)
He has washed (something)

b) "-aama," as in "O loot-aama"
(He-wash-has-been)
He has been washed (by somebody)

c) "-ake" as in "O Loot-ake"
(He-wash himself) He has washed himself.

Another area in which the morphosyntactic system of Fulfulde plays a role in setting the structure of the language apart from that of English is the category described by Arnott (1970) as the Verbo-nominals. At the source, this grammatical category can be called words, but from a semantic point of view they can be represented by clauses in the English sense of the term. The following are examples of Verbo-nominals in Fulfulde.

### 4.1.2 THE VERBO-NOMINAL

'femb-oo-be'

barb-VAP-ones

those who barb (others), barbers.

b) 'femb-aa-ki'

barb-VAP-to, (to barb oneself)

c) ‘femb-ee-ki’

barb-VAP-to

to-be barbed (by someone)

The foregoing analysis, comparing the structures of Fulfulde and English has become miecessary if we are to come up with the correct premise on which to anchor our discussion of the predicative systems of the two languages as compared.

## 4.2 PREDICATION IN ENGLISH

Napoli (1989) speaks of predication in terms of an “event structure” with the predicate expressed by the “event word”. Other words connected with the ‘event word are termed “role payers” in the event that is encapsulated by the event predicated. Napoli (1989) is also of the opinion that a predicate can be in form of a lexical item that is made of more than one word. This is the case with the instances she describes as the “unanalysable idioms” such as “out of mind” and “off the rocker”.

Dik (1981) on the other hand refers to predication in terms of a network of relationships expressed in the form of a predicate and a given set of tunctional terms. These functional terms enter into a relationship specified through the

predicate thereby forming what is described as a "predicate-frame". In his analysis Dik (1981) admits the existence of a gap between the semantic structure of a predicate which can be anlysed in terms of a set of relationships on the one hand, and the grammatical structure which he refes to as "expression" on the other. This belief in the existence of a gap between a predicate and an expression representing it also seems to be shared by Napoli (1989) who however feels that this gap rather coincides with the transformationalist belief in the deep and surface structural divide in grammar.

The agreement between the two however, ends there as far as this analysis is concerned because while Napoli (1989) feels (along with other transformationalists) that this gap can be closed through stages of categorial movements, Dik (1981) holds the opinion that the gap is normally filled in one fell swoop. Elsewhere Napoli (1989) and Dik (198I) agree that predication can be graded onto two levels of analysis. The terms employed by Napoli (1989) to refer to this grading are "primary' and "secondary" types of predicate. Dik (1981) on the other hand presents predications in which one of the terms is expressable by a predication. This fact seems to be in line with the general opinion among linguists that all natural languages share the feature of structural recursiveness (or

embeddedness). As was mentioned earlier (Chapter 2), this project would lean more on the Functiomial Grammar particularly as presented by Dik (1981). It should however be stressed that other theories too would not be rejected completely. To start with, wherever the need arises we would not hesitate to invoke these other theoretical models. In other words, this research is potentially eclectic.

According to Dik (1981) a linguistic expression can be described in terms of the following general schema:

Theme, Predication, Tail

The following is given as an illustration of the schema:-

"As for John, he didn't read it, that book of yours,"

{Theme} { Predication} {Tail}

### 4.2.1 LINGUISTIC EXPRESSION

"Theme" and "Tail" are treated as constituents standing outside the predication proper. They perform pragmatic functions as follows:

"Theme" defines a "universe of discourse" for the predication to bear upon.

"Tail" gives after-thought information specifying or modifying given elements in the predication.

The predication proper has the following general structure: n(X1)(X2)….(Xn)n. In this structure "n" indicates one or more predicate operators (such as for Tense, Aspect and Negation); "Q" indicates some predicate and (X1) X2) indicates positions for arguments associated with the predicate. "Predicates" are described as expressions that designate properties or relations "Terms" are described as expressions which can be described as the application of some predicate to an appropriate number of terms.

All predicates are contained in predicate-frames which specify fundamental semantic and syntactic properties of the predicate. The following is an illustration of a basic predicate-frame for a lexicon in English:

give V(X1: anim (Xl) Ag (X2) Go (X3: anim (X3) Rec.

This predicate frame expresses the following properties of the basic predicate "give". It is a Verbal Predicate (V) as distinct from Nominal (N) or Adjectival (Adj) Predicates. It takes three arguments (X1), (X2) and (X3) in the semantic functions of Agent, Goal and Recipient in that order and the first and the third arguments carry selection restriction to the effect that the terms filling them should designate animate entities. Predicate-frames can also be extended by satellite positions for Location, Time, Duration, Reason, Cause, Beneficiary etc.

All these additional satellite arguments depend on the semantic properties of the nuclear predicate-frame. Some predicates have arguments which may or must be specified by a predication. For example the predicate "believe" in "John believes that Bill Loves Salley" indicates a relation between one entity described as "John" and another described as "That Bill loves Sally" and the latter entity has all the properties of a predication. In order to account for scenarios such as this, one has to assume that the predicate-frame for "believe" looks as follows:

Believe V (X1) :human (X1) Po (Sub X2: (PREDICATION) X2 Go

This indicates that "believe" is a Verbl predicate (V) taking two arguments (X1) and (X2) where (X1) has the semantic function of Positioner (Po) and is restricted to human terms and (X2) has the semantic function of Goal (Go) and is specified by a full fledged predication. The term variable (X2) here can be seen to be that, which is believed by (X1). Examples of predication such as in "John believes that Bill loves Sally", Where one of the terms in the predicate-frame which predicate frame represents the over all predication, can itself be specified by a predication, is a type of predication described by Dik (1981) as complex predication.

According to Dik (I981) for a predicate-frame to become a predication, its term positions must be filled with terms as the following illustration indicates:

W(X1):cp (X1) cp2 (X1) u (X1) n $\geq$ 1 in which "W" stands for one or more term operators (e.g. for Definiteness, Number Quantification, Demonstrative etc) and each cp(X1) stands for an open predication in (X1) a predication with (X1) as its only free variable- acting as a restrictor on the set of proper referent of the term. This organization can be demonstrated as follows; -

(a) dl (X1): John N (X1)

John

(b) (13 X): box, N (Xj): wooden A (X): red A (Xi) Pretty A (Xi)

"Three pretty red wooden boxes"

(c) dl(X1)human N (Xk): past kill V (Xk) Ag. (dl(Xl):Bill N (Xl) Go)

The man who killed Bill.

If the term as indicated in (a) (b) and (c) above are inserted into the argument positions of the predicate "give" as presented in our earlier example, we would get the following predicate:

Past give V dl(Xi): John N (Xi) Ag

(13X): box N (Xj): wooden A (Xj): pretty A (Xi) Go

(dl(Xl)human N (Xk): past kill (Xk) Ag (dlXi: Bill N (Xi) Go Rec.

And the sentence for this predicate frame would be as follows: "John gave three pretty red wooden boxes to the man who killed Bill". This whole predicate can as well be further inserted into the second argument position of the predicate "believe" to get the following:

"Peter believed that John gave three pretty red wooden boxes to the man who killed Bill". One further observation made by Dik (I98I) is that underlying predications can have varying surface realizations (expressions).

The following construction types were judged to have the same underlying predication.

a. John gave the book to Bill

b. John gave Bill the book

c. The book was given to Bill by John

d. Bill was given the book by John

These construction types are assumed to have the same underlying predication because they are deemed to be semantically equivalent in that each of them can be used to describe the same set of states of affairs. Any semantic

differences between them are based on perspectives from which each of them presents the state of affairs described.

In line with the observation above where different construction types are deemed to have a common underlying predication, Dik (1981) asserts that predications are in fact "unordered hierarchical structures" which for constructional purposes have to be linearized in conformity with linguistic expression represented in writing. This linearization is brought about with the use of "placement rules" (rules which define the linear positioning of' constituents of predications). These placement rules are in the confines of the expressional component of the grammar and are made to work rather late in the derivation of' linguistic expressions. There is therefore no room for any underlying order of predication.

Underlying predications (which as we have just noticed are unordered) are

mapped on to the linguisitc expressions (which are ordered linearly) so that they

can be expressed. This process is achieved through a set of rules known as

"expression rules". These rules perform the following functions:

i. To determine the form which constituents of predication may or must take, given their structural and functional properties.

ii. To determine the order in which constructions may or must be linearized, given their structural and functional properties within the predication.

## 4.3 PREDICATION IN FULFULDE

We have earlier on observed in this chapter that structurally English and Fulfulde are two languages that are fundamentally set apart. This structural difference has been found to hold from various dimensions and ranges from word forms and the structure of grammatical components, to such sentence internal mechanism as Tense Aspect and Voice. If we take the Tense/Aspect for example and look across the two languages, we can easily see that the Perfective Tense in English for example would be lumped together with the Simple Tense if translated into Fulfulde.

"Yolnde mabb-aama"
(Door close)

The door {has been } closed
{Was }

Again if we talk of the Voice aspect, we would see a difference between the two languages. In addition to the two voices (The active and the passive that are found in English, Fulfulde has a third (the Middle Voice). The voice in Fulfulde is expressed through a suffix within the verbal complex. This suffix is referred to as the Voice Aspect Palarity (VAP) suffix (McIntosh 1984). The following are examples of constructions showing the voice system in Fulfulde. The voice is encompassed in the "VAP" suffix.

"Innawuro loot -ii binngel muudum"

(Innawuro wash-VAP child-of her)

Innawuro has bathed her child ("-ii" being the VAP)

"Binngel Innawuro loot-aama"

(Child-of Innawuro wash VAP)

Innawuro's child has been bathed ("-aanma", being the VAP)

"Binngel lnnawuro loot-ake"

(Child of lnnawuro wash-VAP)

Innawuro's child has taken bath (self) ("-ake", being the VAP)

The voice system in Fulfulde looks more straight forward in the sense that it is located in one part of the sentence and the three options in form of the VAP suffix within the verbal complex can be easily identified as "-ii", "-aama"

and "-ake". There are more elements that are part of the verbal complex and indeed of the VAP suffix. An example is the Polarity aspect which is either positive or negative. The negative polarity seems to be the marked as opposed to the positive and it is expressed in the following way, taking the earlier examples we have seen.

"Loot-ii", (has washed) ('-ii')

"Loot-aayi" (has not washed) ('-aayi' )

"Loot-aama"; (has been washed) ('-aama' )

"Loot-aaka"; (has not been washed) ('-aaka' )

"Loot-ake"; (has taken bath (self)) ('-ake')

"Loot-aaki"; (has not taken bath (self)) ('-aaki')

This analysis seems to bring one fact to light. The Fulfulde verbal complex is heavily loaded in terms of syntactic functions. In fact some expressions in the language that are termed sentences and analyzed accordingly are at a lower level of analysis referred to as verbal complexes. Such sentences in which the subject and object positions are occupied by subject elements and object elements can be viewed both as sentence and verbal complexes because the subject element and the object element are also analysed as parts of the verbal complex as they are not stable grammatical categories that can stand on their own. The following sentences can also be regarded as verbal complexes:

"wart-u" (come back you) - come back

"O-wart-ii" (he-came back VAP) He has come back/came back

"O-wadd-ii dum" (he has brought it) He bring VAP it brought it.

The structural differences between English and Fulfulde as was just observed in the foregoing analysis, seem to be the basis of any possible differences in the predicative systems between the two languages that may be encountered. It is therefore logical to analyze each of the sentence types in terms of its predication. In doing this, the reseacher is adopting the grammatical models developed by Arnott (1970) and McIntosh (1984). Examples are given directly from these works and where necessary additional examples would also be sourced from other corpuses obtained in the course of the fieldwork for this study.

### 4.3.1 RECURSIVENESS AND PREDICATION

Napoli (1989) puts forward a broad distinction between "primary and secondary predications. This, despite differences in analytical approach can be viewed as similar to Dik's (1981) view of a predication having "Arguments" one of which is also analyzable into a predication. This goes to confirm the widely held opinion about embedded expressions in natural languages. From another perspective this has also helped to confirm the general belief in the centrality of

the verb in the predicative system of languages particularly at the level of clause. Whatever disagreement in this respect may have to do with where to draw the boundary around the verbal phrase or verbal complex but not with the centrality or otherwise of the verb itself. To illustrate the point just raised, Napoli (1989) disagrees with other linguists who analyze a predicate in terms of the grammatical function (GF) subject versus the verb phrase (VP). On the other hand Dik (1981) has been able to go round this problem by singling the predicate versus the arguments of the predicate. Here the predicate represents a state of affairs and the arguments are represented as terms.

Having noted the centrality of the verb in the analysis of predication at the level of a simple sentence (or clause), it is now time to go into specific illustrations using the various construction types in Fulfulde. To use as an example, the following construction using the verb "wadd" (bring) would do.

"Bello wadd –ii sheede"

(Bello bring VAP money)

Bello has brought money

Let it be noted that, in analyzing the predicate attention would not be focussed on certain intricacies of the tense system of Fulfulde. This is because, as yet, there doesn't seem to be agreement on what terminological standards to use.

For example while Arnott (1970) employs the term "tense", McIntosh disagrees rather adopting the term"conjugation". Moreover the niceties involved in the analysis of the tense are not likely to affect this presentation. Having said this, the reseacher would now proceed to analyze the predicate "wadd" (bring) given above with its "VAP" suffix as follows using Diks (1981) approach.

(wadd-V (dlX)i: Bello N (X1) Ag dl(X2): Sheede N(X2)

However, the analysis of predicates such as "wadd-" (bring) can be much more complicated with the increase in complexity of the verb itself Consider for example 'wadd-an- (bring-for) instead of wadd. The -"an" morpheme seems to be a marker for an increase in the valency (number of potential arguments for the verb so that it now has two objects instead of one in the case wadd). (bring). So while "wadd" (bring) is a two place verb "waddan" is a trivalent verb. This can be demonstrated as follows;

"Bello wadd-ii sheede"

(Bello bring VAP money)

Bello has brought money.

"Bello wadd-an-ii Buba sheede"

(Bello bring for VAP Buba money)

Bello has brought money for Buba

In fact, the verbal complex can be more complicated by introducing an adverbial suffix into it. Consider the following:

"wadd-ir-

"wadd-ir-an"

"Bello wadd-ir-ii sheede den sedda-sedda"

(Bello bring-adv-VAP money-the little-little)

Bello brought the money little by little.

"Bello wadd-ir-an-ii Buba sheede den sedda-sedda"

(Bello bring-adv-for-VAP Buba money-little-little"

Bello brought the money for Buba little by little.

The last illustration shows that in addition to increasing the valency of the verb for example from two places to three, the verbal complex also has a way of signaling what is described by Dik (1981) as "Satellite Terms" which mark such semantic functions as manner, reason etc.

Let us also note that Arnott's (I970) distinction between Neutral and Emphatic sentences within the construction type called verbal sentences should not be of serious concern to us in this analysis as this does not seem to affect the state of affairs described by Dik (1981) as predicate.

We would now take another example of a verbal sentence whose verbal root if translated into English would have more than one meaning:

"wart-" become/return

a. "Bello wart-ii Kaduna" Bello return-VAP Kaduna

Bello has returned to Kaduna

b. "BeIlo wart-ii lamido"

(Bello become-VAP chief) Bello has become a chief.

The difference in the predicational structures of the two verbs "wart" (return) and "wart" (become) is that in the case of the former we have a basically one term predicate (the optional term Kaduna (to Kaduna) being a satellite term with the semantic function of Place. On the other hand, the latter 'wart' (become) is a predicate that has two indispensable terms -Bello (the subject) with the semantic function of positioner and lamido (Chief) with the semantic function of Goal.

The verbal sentence in Fulfulde is capable of extending into the realm of what Dik (1981) describes as complex predication. This type of predication (also described by Napoli (1989) as "secondary prediction) would be discussed later in this chapter.

For now, attention would be shift to the non-verbal variety of the simple sentence in Fulfulde. As the name indicates, this type of sentence is one that does not have a verb at its nucleus. Majority of the non-verbal variety of

sentences involves a Noun or a Nominal Phrase (NP) given a direct attribute. The following constructions illustrate the foregoing:

"Bello lamido jooni"

(Bello chief now)

Bello is now a chief

"Baaba-am Laamiido Naaraayi"

(Father-my chief (of) Naaraayi)

My father is the chief of Naaraayi

The Transformational Grammarians would easily view this type of construction as involving a "covert" relational verb (such as the English 'is') to the effect that what obtains here is something like;

"Baaba-am won(-i) Laamiido jooni"

(Fathmer my exist (as) Chief now)

My father is a chief now.

"Baaba-am won-i laamido Naarayi"

(Father my exist (as) Cief (of) Naaraayi)

My fatlmer is the chief of Naaraayi now.

Going by this analysis, that could have been put forward by the Transformational Grammar (TG), this type of construction ceases to be identified as non-verbal.

However, the controversy as to this type of construction being verbal or non-verbal would not in any fundamental way affect the analysis of the predicative structures of these construction types. This point would become clearer when it is pointed out that the proponents of Transformational Grammar (among them Napoli (I989) have also adduced that the verb (be) used in these constructions is a relational or functional word and not a lexical word and as such it is not qualified to be part of or head a predicate. We can therefore still go ahead with the analysis of the non-verbal sentence in Fulfulde.

The lexical item "Laamiido" chief can be viewed as the predicate of such a simple non-verbal sentence. "Bello', the grammatical function (GF) subject of the sentence, to use the words of Napoli (1989), is the only direct agrument in the first sentence. "Bello Laamido jooni". "Jooni" (now) can be analyzed as a satellite argument having the semantic function of 'Time".

If these two construnction types are to be reconciled, account would have to begiven for the status of "Naaraayi" in the second construction where there seems to be two direct arguments. There are two options in this regard. One is to take it that this predicate has a flexible vaiency that can vary its number of terms (in this particular case between one and two terms). The second option is that we follow the transformationalists who have put forward the empty

category theory. The latter option is clearly more attractive and through it the construction can be explained as follows:

"Bello Laamido Naaraayi jooni"

So that the second direct argument of "Laamiddo" which is "Naarayi" expresses the entailed Chiefdom which Bello rules.

It could be recalled that earlier on, discussion on complex type of predication was suspended. This was intended to facilitate a more systematic approach to the discussion. A complex predication is a type of predication in which one of the arguments of the predicate is capable of being analyzed as a predicate. In other words one of the terms of the predicate-frame for this type of predicate can be filled by a predication. This "predication-within-a-predication" is exemplified by Dik (198I) in the followig English construction

John believes that Bill loves Sally

Dik (1981) takes "believe" here as a two place relation between a person, "John" and something that person believes, expressed by "that Bill loves Sally". The predicate-frame for 'believe' should be put as follows.

Believe V (X1) Po (X2) Go

This predicate-frame can be analyzed as indicating that the first argument of "believe" has the semantic function of Positioner and the second the semantic function Goal. Elaborated further, the combinatory possibilities of "believe" can

be increased to indicate that it takes "Human positioner and its goal position can be filled by a predication. This can be illustrated in the following way:-

Believe V (X1: human (X1) Po (Sub X2 (PREDICATION)(X2)

In this "human" is a selection restriction on the possible fillers of the Positioner argument. "Sub" indicates some subordinating device, and "PREDICATION" indicates a position into which a full new predication can be inserted, expressing the content of "that which is believed".

The above analysis can be applied to constructions in Fulfulde. The following are examples:

"Bello wi -ii Buba yid -i war- ki"

(Bello say -VAP Buba want -VAP come-to)

Bello said that Buba wanted to come

The over all predication can be in the following way:

dl-V (X1): human (X1) Po (X2 (predication) (X2) Go

One obvious difference between this analysis and the analysis of the predicate frame for "believe" in English as we have just seen above is the absence of the subordinating device ("sub"). This signifies that Fulfulde does not employ an "overt" subordinating device in the same fashion as the English ("that"). In fact, it should be interesting to note that even in English it is possible to ignore the subordination device, so that now have.

"John believes Bill loves Sally"

Nevertheless, in English, it seems here that the construction without "that"can be viewed as the "marked" option. In Fulfulde on the other hand, reverse is the case, Let us look at the following contrast between two sentences one with "that" subordinator and the other without one.

a) "Bello wi-ii Buba yid-i warki"
b) "Bello wi-ii (wai) Buba yid-i warki"

Here, the "that' subordinator is expressed by "wai'. Unlike the case in English, the construction with "wai" (the "that" subordinator") in Fulfulde is the one that is considered "marked". In fact the subordinating conjunction "wai as used in the example above is borrowed into the Language from l-Iausa, a phenomenon common to all the Fulfulde dialects spoken in Nigeria.

There is one other area of comparison between the predicate systems of English and Fulfulde that needs to be considered. This is the internal composition and structure of the projected predication, described by Napoli (1989) as "Secondary predication". The structure of the "secondary predicate" in English can be described as broadly similar to that of the main predicate. The only fundamental difference here is that of levels of analysis which makes the secondary predicate less stable since it cannot stand on its own.

Napoli (1989) draws a difference between these two types of clause around

the area of 'Theta Assignment" where it is said that while in the case of "primary predicate" the lexical head of the predicate assigns "Theta role" directly to its only external argument, the lexical head of the secondary predicate assigns "Theta Role" indirectly to the subject Role player (srp) of the matrix clause. This kind of theta assignment is called compositional theta assignment (as opposed to direct theta assignment).

However, though we would not disagree with Napoli, we have chosen to draw on Dik's (1981) model and here the broad outline of the "primary" and "secondary" predicates is the same — composed of a predicate and its terms making a predicate-frame.

### 4.3.3 THE QUASI–VERBALS IN FULFULDE

Before turning attention away from verbal sentences, there is need to look at one construction type that does not seem to have an equivalent in English. This type consists of constructions that are apparently "subjectless". They are centered around the class of words described by Arnott (1970) as the "Quasi-verbals" ("Ndikka" or "igga"). The two words are freely substitutable and therefore whatever difference between them is not likely to affect the semantic make-up of the construction in which they are used. In his grammatical

analysis of these constructions, Arnott (1970) describes the quasi-verbal as the "predicator" of the sentence (which is almost always a simple sentence). The following are examples of these quasi-verbal-based "verbal" sentences.

"Ndikka du-um"
(Better this)
This is better

"Ndikka du-um, dow du-ma

(Better this, than that)

In the predicational analysis for this study "ndikka" (or "igga") is clearly the predicate. The most central argument of this predicate is the one directly linked to the predicate at the syntactic level. In the case of the example here "du-um" appears to be more directly linked to the predicate. Let it however be noted that the difference between the two arguments of the predicate does not have any fundamental effect on the structure of' the predicate itself. In order to present an analysis of this construction there has to be an account of the difference between the two construction types given above using "ndikka" or "igga". The first construction "ndikka du'um" ("Better this") has one argument while the second "ndikka du'um dow duma" ("Better this than that") has two arguments (du'um" and "duma"). In order to overcome this problem it seems we would have to conjure the "Empty category" hypothesis advanced by the Transformational Grammarians (among them Radford, I997). We should then be

able to explain that the predicate that appears to have one argument is actually so at the surface level. At the semantic level of this construction it is easy to see that "(ndikka)" (better) is a signal for comparison. And it is a known fact that by its nature, comparison always involves two sides (two participant arguments). Logically, in order to compare a thing, there has to be another thing that serves as background.

We can perhaps draw a conclusion on the type of predication that is based on quasi-verbal ("ndikka"/" igga"). It is a relation of comparison of a thing, or a phenomenon. This naturally necessitates the existence of another thing or phenomenon serving as a background against which the item to be compared can be observed. In this kind of predication the argument that serves as background is very much visible on the semantic horizon, but it may not have been spelt out on the syntactic level. Through this "covert" linguistic expressions, it is made generally easier in Fulfulde to realize "nut-shell" expressions such as adages and proverbs. ln this respect, the comparison goes beyond concrete lexical items such as nouns up to the realm of the abstract. Let us look at the following constructon of the "ndikka"/"igga" type.

"igga purum e kurum"

(better brownish than blacky)

The idea here is that something immaculate on its way to becoming black would normally start by being brown (or grey).. Therefore it would be better to stop midway (at being brown) than to go the whole hog of becoming black.

Another one is:

"igga hul-a his-a dow word-a bu-a"

better fear-be safe than be brave and deficate

it is better to be cowardly and safe than to be brave and disgraceful. This is to the effect that "he who fights and runs way, lives to fight another day"

## 4.4 FULFULDE VERBAL MORPHOLOGY AND PREDICATION

Earlier on in this chapter, it was observed that English and Fulfulde have fundamental structural differences at the syntactic level and that these differences are capable of reflecting on the predicative systems of the two languages. It was pointed out specifically that the differences between the syntactic categorial systems of the two languages was to the extent that while in English the most basic syntactic category is the word, in Fulfulde the basis of syntactic categorization is shared almost equally between the word and the morpheme.

### 4.4.1 MARPHOSYNTACTIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FULFULDE

There are a number of areas where these morphosyntactic differences can be identified between English and Fulfulde. Two such areas are the verbal complexes and the verb-nominals in Fulfulde. Arnott (1970) states that only a few of the members of the Fulfulde verbal system can be ranked as "words." The majority are complexes. Arnott (1970) analyses the Fulfulde verbal complex as having at its core a "verbal base". The base is composed of a radical + a tense suffix. In an imperative construction the verbal complex normally consists of "base" + one or two "object elements".

"Wadd-u dum"

(Bring-VAP-it). Bring it

"Hokk-u-mo dum"

(Give-VAP-it). Give it to him.

Other verbal complexes consist of "Subject element" and base', or

subject element and base together with:

(i) a "preterite element"
(ii) One or two "object elements

(iii) both preterite and object element(s)

SE base PrE

i) O warrri-no

ii) SE base OE

O wadd-ii dumn

iii)SE base PrE OE

o wadd-ii-no dum

The analysis goes further to break the base itself into the "verbal radical" on the one hand and the "tense suffix" on the other.

McIntosh (1984) differs from the analysis given by Arnott above. She gives the "tense suffix', a name that gives a syntactic and scientific description of the suffix " from a more self-sustaining point of view. Giving this class of suffixes a common term, the "Voice Aspect Polarity" (VAP) suffix, Mcintosh is able to substitute Anott's idea of "tenses" in Fulfulde with what she describes as 'conjugations'. It is in this respect that the VAP suffix has gained the influence it has in the predicative system of Fulfulde as would become clearer in the course of this discussion.

However, the elements that actually affect the structure of the predication within the Verbal complex of Fulfulde is the Radical Extention Suffix (RES for short). The following can be used to illustrate this point:

a) "hokk-" (give)

"Bello hokk-ii Buba nagge"

(Bello give-VAP Buba cow)

Bello has given Buba a cow

b) "hokk-it" (give-back)

"Bello hokk-it-ii Buba naggee-muudum"

(Bello give-VAP Buba cow -his)

Bello has given Buba back his cow

c) "Hokk-itir" (give-out)

"Bello hokk-itir-ii nagge-muudum"

(Bello give-out-VAP cow-his)

Bello has given out his cow

The constructions just considered reveal that "hokk" (give), the base of the verbal complex, if it is given the verbal extension "-it" "give" we now have "give-back" ("or return"). On the other hand if the added extension is the "-itir" (instead of "-it"), this will change the sense of the verb still further to "give-out". Here it would be relevant to notice that the predicate handled by the verb ("hokk-") loses it second (Goal) argument in form of Direct Object (or object element).

This scenario can be stretched further to an extent the verbal Radical Extension also has a reciprocal effect on some verbal predicates Consider the following with particular attention to the Radical Extension Suffix (marked RES).

"Bello wurt-ake"

(Bello come out-VAP) Bello has come out

"Bello wurt-or ake fuuna"

(Bello come out- RES-VAP east)

BelIo has gone out-towards the east.

"Bello wurt-ootir-ii e koree muudum"

( Bello come out- each other- VAP with wife his)

"Bello has parted ways with his wife."

"Waal" (lie down""

"Bello waal- ake dow daago"

(Bello lie-VAP on mat)

Bello has lain down on a mat

"Bello waal-ootir-ii e Buba"

(Bello lie-each other-VAP with Buba)

Bello settled (his debt) with Buba.

The point being made with these constructions is that the Verbal Radical Extension Suffix (RES) is capable of effecting a change in the predicative structure of the verbal base within the overall verbal complex, so that the number of' arguments is altered or their semantic functions are made to shift. Taking "hokk-it" (give-RES) (back) and "hokk-itir"(give-RES) (out) as an

example one would notice that the "-it" Radical extension Suffix (RES) when +substituted with "itir" make the predicate change in terms of its number of arguments from three in "Bello hokk-ii "Buba nagge" ("Bello", "Buba" and "nagge") to two in "Bello hokk-itir-ii nagge nuudum"

(Bello" and "nagge muudum" "his cow").

### 4.5.1 THE VERBO-NOMINALS IN FULFULDE

One grammatical category that also deserves special attention, in addition to the verbal complexes already analyzed, is the category referred to by Arnott (1970) as verbo-nominals. These can be described as a hybrid category and they can be analyzed (following Arnott, 1970),as consisting of a verbal radical + tense suffix + a nominal suffix, with the potentiality of a Preterite element between the two suffixes. Verbo- nominals can be classified into two — the Infinitives and the Participles. The following are Arnott's (1970) examples.

### 4.5.1 Infinitives

"loot-u-ki" to wash

"loot-aa-ki" to wash oneself (to get washed)

"loot-ee-ki" to be washed

### 4.5.2 Participles

| | |
|---|---|
| "Loot-u-do" | (one) who has washed (something) |
| "loot-u-be" | those who have washed |
| "loot-unoo-do" | (one) who had washed |
| "loot-otoo-do" | (one) who will wash himself |
| "loot-aa-do" | (one) who has been washed |

According to Arnott, (1970) Verbo-nominals can be regarded as a special type of nominals that has a stem that primarly consists of verbal forms. These are nominal suffixes that belong to the series "class concordant suffixes that tend to mark the Fulfulde nominal system out from the majority of other languages, The "tense" suffix on the other hand corresponds to the tense suffixes of the verbal system, reflecting differences in tense and voice. What should be noted here is that the tense suffix as described here has been more appropriately named the Voice Aspect Polarity (VAP) suffix by McIntosh (1984).

The syntactic behaviour of verho-nominals as far as this analysis is concerned can be said to fall more heavily on the side of the Nominals, than that of the verbals. The infinitives occupy the same Positions in the sentence structure as full Nominals while the participles occupy the positions of Adjectivals. At this stage it would be pertinent to recall that in line with the predication analysis

based on Dik (I981), verbo-nominals can play the role of arguments. This is where this researcher intends to premise consideration of the verbo-nominals in Fulfulde as regards their role in the predicative system. It is even possible to speculate here that verbo-nomimals that play the syntactic roles of Nominals at the word level, can also be made to undergo structural analysis that is internally focused. With this, we would find out that the Fulfulde verbo-nominals play the roles of what Napoli (1989) would describe as "secondary predicates". Using Dik's (198I) analysis, one can find out that the verbo-nominals can be viewed as cases where an argument of a predicate can also be considered as a predicate —a projected predicate with all the usual set of terms that can be analyzed into a predicate frame.

There would seem to be some areas that are foggy in analyzing the Fulfulde verbo-nominals as projected (or secondary) predicates. Looking at the Infinitives in particular, it would be easy to see that they do not look much different from the infinitive verb phrases in English. In fact if not for the Nominal Element in form of the noun "class concordant suffix" ("-ki" or "-go")

This variety of verbo-nominals can easily pass for pure Infinitive Verbals. Moreover, in Fulfulde, unlike in English, as we have stated earlier, the infinitive verbo-nominals play the same roles as pure nouns in the sentence.

In this respect, the verbo-nominals (infinitives) could as well be regarded as gerunds. Consider the following construction:

"Yott -aa -ki maako ndeen-ay-mi"

(Arrive-VAP-to his wait-VAP-I)

his arriving is what I am waiting for.

Because of this tendency of the infinitive verbo-nominals to lean towards pure nominals (at least from the functional point of view) it would be pertinent to make a limitation around them in describing the verbo-nominals as potential predicates. Earlier examples of participeal verbo-nominals can be restated here:

'loot-u-do'

'loot-u-be'

'loot-unoo-do'

'loot-otoo-do'

'loot-aa-do'

Before putting these examples into a wider analytical context, there is the need to point out that some of the participles are inherently transitive because of the "polarity" of the verb as signaled by the "VAP" suffix. In the following constructions, the verbo-nominal is underlined.

"Musa holl -ii -yam loot -u -do limshe den"

(Musa show-VAP-I wash-VAP one cothes the)

Musa has showed me (the) one who washed the clothes.

It is very clear here that the verbo-nominal has to take an object ("limshe den") in order to satisfy the transitivity introduced into the verbo- nominal by the VAP suffix. If this construction is applied to the predicate-frame analysis the following would be the outcome.

"loot V (X1): animate (X2): Noun(X2)

Going back to Arnott's (1970) examples cited above, one can notice that the second and third examples ("loot-u-be" and "lot-unoo-do") differ from the first ("loot-u-do") in being plural. In the fourth, fifth and sixth examples ("loot-u-do"; "Ioot-otoo-do" and "Ioot-aa-do") it can be seen that the verb element ("loot") is intransitive and this is signaled in the differences of the VAP suffixes ("-ii-" "-otoo-" and "-aa-") instead of ("-u-") which has a transitive polarity.

The foregoing analysis has confirmed the assumption that the verbo- nominals, particularly the participle variety are capable of being analyzed as "secondary" or projected predicates within the larger clause structure.

Before closing this section, there is the need to clarify an issue. It has been already indicated that in order to put the transitive verbo-nominals in a wider constructional perspective there is the need to supply an object to satisfy the transitivity on the verbo-nominal.

"loot-u-do + limshe" (obj).

One question arises here. Why is it that the verbo-nominals, where they are in isolation, are able to attain stability while they are obviously transitive. We have two options to get out of the problem. First it can be assumed that in isolation the participial verbo-nominals in Fulfulde are like the English verbs. For example the English verb "give" can stay on its own without an object, but as it is put in the wider context of a sentence it becomes necessary to supply it with an object.

Mary gave

Mary gave John a book

In the Fulfulde example that follows, we cannot remove the object just like in the English example above.

"Musa holl-ii-yam loot-u-do"

Even if it is possible to take this Fulfulde construction as acceptable, "loot-ti-do" would not have the same meaning as in "loot-u-do limshe" (one who has washed clothes). Without the object, "loot-u-do-" ceases to represent a state of affairs as Dik (1981) would put it. However, the following scenario is possible.

"Moye loot -i"?

(who wash-VAP) - Who washed?

' ' "Walaa loot –u -do"

(Exist-not wash-VAP-one)

No one washed.

In this instance the verb "loot-" "wash" does not need to have an object. Now to the second of the two options: This involves applying the "Empty category principle" and therefore assuming that the object of "loot-u-do" is not 'overt' but 'covert' (ellipticized).

# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This research set out right from the outset to make a comparative analysis of the predicative systems of English and Fulfulde. To be more specific, it was stated in chapter one that the reseacher was going to focus on the meeting points and disparities between the way the syntactic structure of English is used to handle its semantic structure on the one hand, and how this same linguistic relationship is handled in Fulfulde. This task would logically involve the need to devote a relatively great deal of energy on the verbal systems of the two languages compared to other gramatical components.

In the course of pursuing this goal, a fairly detailed analysis of the grammatical systems of the two languages was made. There were greater details in the analysis of Fulfulde because it actually constitutes a "greener pasture" or "a not-so-much-treaded track". Here, the researcher actually came up with a structural difference between English and Arnott"s (1970) analysis of Fulfulde where in addition to the verbal component that English has, there is also a "verbo-nominal". On looking at the verbo-nominals that set Fulfulde apart from English, it is seen that there is the segment described by McIntosh (1984) as the "Voice

Aspect Polarity (VAP) suffix". This suffix seems to play a role that is actually assigned to full blown words and morphemes and not monopolized by the former alone.

## 5.2 FINDINGS

The researcher carried out this comparative study of the predicative systems of these two languages with the hope that it would come up with new insights that can help towards fashioning out an approach to the teaching and learning of Fulfulde. It should also be noted that this study, focused on Fulfulde which has not enjoyed commensurately much research especially here in Nigeria, is bound to face constraints especially in the area of corpus. Focus was therefore anchored around the readily available works of Arnott (1970) and McIntosh (1989) in addition to the predicative theories advanced by Dik (1981) and Napoli (1985). Using these as tools, the researcher corroborated local corpus, looking closely at the structural differences that exist between English and Fulfulde and how these differences reflected on the predicative systems of the two languages. It was noted thar the "verbo-nominal" put forward by Arnott (1970) combines the elements of verbals and nominals seen from the point of view of English on the one hand, and that these verbo—nominal actually play the grammatical roles of Nouns or Adjectives depending on their further sub-classification as "infinitives" and "participles" respectively.

One Other structural difference observed was the case of the Voice Aspect Polarity (VAP) suffix that plays a very significant role in the grammar and by extension in the predicative structure of Fulfulde. All these differences have further confirmed the need to "adapt" rather than "adopt" theories when it comes to the exercise of making comparison of languages. On the whole, however each of the existing theories has something to offer in the analysis of Languages that had hitherto not been applied.

## 5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

All professionals engaged in handling language (Textbook writers, researchers on languages, translators, broadcasters, language teachers and planners etc) would find this work quite helpful. It is also hoped that in this regard a step has been made in the way to tackling some of the language related problems that we are facing as a nation. This logically follows the belief that a work such as this based on well established linguistic principles would be a good source of inspiration to those who want to do research work in future.

The teacher of Fulfulde as well as English is now on a better footing to avoid some of the pit falls others have faced mainly involving the application of linguistic theories across languages in the field of language teaching and

learning. Emphasis should henceforth be laid on differences between languages as well as (if not rather than) similarities.

In case of the existetice of a huge dialectal spectrum of Fulfulde, there is the need to come to terms with what one would have to consider as the peculiarity of Fulfulde compared to most other African languages. The language has about the widest geographical spread (from Mauritania to Central Africa and the Sudan). It is therefore not surprising that the dialectal differences are quite amazing. The choice of the Gombe dialect is largely informed by the centrality of the dialect especially viewed from Nigerian point of view. It is recommended here that further research be carried out with a view to coming up with a standard variety of' Fulfulde using this dialect as the most accessible to speakers and other users.

## 5.4 AREAS FOR FURTHER STUDY.

In the course of carrying out this research on the comparison of the predicative systems of English and Fulfulde, many other areas of the grammatical structure of Ftulfulde naturally have come to surface. The verbo-nominal as well as the Voice Aspect Polarity (VAP) suffix have featured quite prominently. The Tense and Aspect systems of Fulfulde as well as the concord and concordant systems are a very fertile ground for further investigation. Going into further inquiry about these areas would also solve the difference in approach between scholars

such as Arnott (I970) who has “tenses” and McIntosh (1984) who holds to “conjugations” for example.

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