A CONTRASTING ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH. AND YORUBA MORPHOLOGY

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In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirenents for
the Decree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN LANGUAGE (M.A. LANGUAGE)

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY
ZARIA.

1979

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A B S T R A C T

This study demonstrates the fact that a language, in this case Yoruba, that is not as widely spoken as English, French, German etc. may contain morphological processes comparable to the widely used languages of the world. An attempt is made to contrast the morphological processes of Yoruba with that of English based on a descriptive, formal, but taxonomic approach.

It is found out that Yoruba has limited morphological processes that is, where English makes use of both inflectional and derivational morphology, Yoruba makes use of derivational morphology. Also, in its use of the derivation, Yoruba makes extensive use of prefixation while English makes use of both prefixation and suffixation. The other Morphological processes the Yoruba language lends itself to are: reduplication (which is the most productive process), compounding, and calqueing. As for English there are the processes of suppletion, replacives, compounding, very faint trace of calqueing and reduplication. Suffixation is the most productive morphological process in English.

Another finding is that there is no genetic relationship between the two languages. In spite of this, hov/ever, the morphological features can still

be compared as there are common processes as mentioned In paragraph two above. Also the English language serves as the base language whose morphological processes are used to dig out some of the processes in the Yoruba language.

Thus, in chapter one we look at the purpose of this present study, the problems to be faced, the scope of study and assumptions on which the study is based. An attempt is also made to see why the TG approach is not adopted in the study.

Chapter two looks at all the morphological processes that are available in the two languages pointing out those processes that are most productive in each of the languages. Such processes for example inflectional and derivational suffixes that are absent in the Yoruba language but present in English are also discussed.

Chapters three and four look at the relevance of morphology to syntax and semantics respectively. It is seen that the use of morphology in English is mainly connected with syntax while the Yoruba language puts the semantic aspect into more productive use. Chapter five then gives a summary of the whole work including a highlight of the important findings in the mode of word-formation of the two languages.

The study have, thus, indicated that a contrastive study of English and Yoruba (and any other Nigerian language) in whichever field of linguistic study (phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax) is necessary as this will throw light on what features of the languages are common and where the differences occur. This is not only valuable as an academic pursuit but of great benefit to learners of English and textbook writers for students, in this case, Yoruba students learning the English language.

PREFACE

Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) is often adopted in studies conducted for teaching purposes (Applied Linguistics). It entails, among other things, describing aspects of the two languages under study, pointing out the similarities and differences between the two and making necessary conclusions.

Although the present study is not pedagogic in intention, the contrastive approach has been adopted. This is for the purpose of finding out which morphological processes in English are similar to those of Yoruba and which are not. The study draws its inspiration and interest from the fact that very little work is available on a contrastive basis on the morphology of Yoruba and English. Such works as are available are syntax oriented, and the very early works by Rev. S.A. Crowther and Rev. T.J. Bowen are to bring the existence of Yoruba as a language to the attention of the British imperialists and not just a scholastic pursuit emanating from a desire to study for its academic value.

The present research is unique judging from the view that Yoruba morphology is a relatively new field of study. Many works exist on Yoruba syntax, phonology and semantics but scholars have yet to go into its

morphology. In dealing with this field of linguistic study therefore, the study has tried to break new grounds and pave the way for future linguists who might be interested in the field.

It is not an overstatement to say that there is need for continued work of a contrastive nature between English and all Nigerian languages that are used as media of instruction in Nigerian schools, since Nigeria is a multi-lingual nation. The current national policy on education (particularly for the primary schools) lends credence to the above call.

At this point I would like to express my profound gratitude to all those who have in various ways contributed to the success of this study. I must first of all thank my late Professor, Kọla Ogunbẹsan for his timely advice and cooperation during the course. My gratitude also goes to Moji Balogun, who helped with the typing of all my seminar papers during the course. I also thank E. O. Ọkẹ for providing me with a good and reliable typist in person of Boniface O. Alu, who typed this thesis even at times not very convenient for him. I cannot forget the department of English for all the cooperation received, especially from the late head of department, and my supervisors, Mr. R. and Dr. M. Aliyu, who all cooperated and contributed

immensely to the success of the thesis. At the same time, I must thank Professor Awobuluyi and Dr. Awoyale of the Department of Linguistics, University of Ilorin, for their advice and assistance in correcting the thesis.

Finally, I would like to express my indebtness to all others, who have in their various ways contributed to the success of the study. One of such is my husband, who not only sponsored the study, but has all along been the greatest source of inspiration. To him, I am most grateful.

MARY O. TINUOYE.

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LIST OF SIGNS/SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The use of complicated signs/symbols or abbreviations have been limited.

// a sign denoting phonetic symbol.

* a sign that what follows is either not grammatical or unacceptable.

a sign signalling a morpheme.

± presence or absence of a morphological process.
a sign denoting a low tone
a sign denoting a high tone
mid-tone has no sign

∅ zero morpheme.

$\succ$ becomes

$\longrightarrow$ rewrites as

TG Transformational Grammar

DS Deep Structure

SS Surface Structure

NP Noun Phrase

Aux. Auxilliary

VP Verb Phrase consisting of:-
VB - Verbal
NP - Noun-Phrase.

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D E D I C A T I O N

To my Late father, Mr. A. B. Adebayo, for his struggles to send me to school, and

To my husband and children for their unflinching support throughout the duration of the course.

CHAPTER ONE

I N T R O D U C T I O N

1.0 Purpose of the Study:

Various appeals have been made by specialists, educationists and linguists alike that there should be more research work done in the field of language both for academic and pedagogic purposes.

Firstly, this need for contrastive study is highlighted by Fries' assertion (quoted from Lado (1957) that: "... the most effective materials (that is, for teaching) are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner".[1]

Secondly, the Ford Foundation survey of the English Language in Nigeria in its submissions said, among other things that:

"Further work should be continued and extended to include contrastive analysis between English and all the Nigerian Languages which are used as media of instruction in the Nigerian schools."[2] This study is, therefore, a positive response to the appeals by those quoted above and many others.

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Another motivating factor is that the particular field I want to investigate (i.e., morphology) has not been very popular in present day linguistic theory when compared with the other components of grammar - that is syntax, phonology and semantics. Actually, from the 1960s to date attention in the linguistic field has been focused on syntax. This is seen from works of linguists like Chomsky (1957, 1964, 1965 etc.), Harris (1951), Jacobs and Rosenbaum (eds. 1970) and others. Linguists are also working on semantics and phonology but little attention is being paid to morphology in present day linguistic study. Thus, the seeming unpopularity of the field as compared to the other fields in English and even in the Yoruba language serves as a motivating factor for the present work. Morphology, in my opinion, serves as the base[3] for the other components of linguistic study, and so must be accorded equal attention with these other components.

In addition, the study aims at looking into the morphological processes of English as well as Yoruba[4] to see if there exist any similarities and/or differences in the ways the two languages combine morphemes in order to form acceptable words of the language.

Lastly, there is the need to see how morphology relates to the other components of language study, that is,

../3.

phonology, syntax and semantics.[5] As will be seen, the fields are not in water-tight compartments as they exhibit some measure of inter-relatedness. In spite of the inter-relatedness, however, each still exists in its own right, dealing with particular aspects of language study, and thereby demanding separate but accurate description.

A contrastive study of the morphology of the two languages is envisaged to be of great value not only in facilitating the preparation of pedagogical grammars but more importantly in contributing to the refinement and validation of the linguistic metatheory itself.

1.0.1 At this point, it may be relevant to mention that the most popular and current approach to grammatical description, the Transformational Grammatical model (henceforth TG) propounded and described by Noam Chomsky (1957)[6] will not be used in this thesis.[7] The reason for this is that there is no separate level of morphology within the TG theory. It is, therefore, difficult to extract morphology out of syntax in TG. In fact, one may say that morphology by its very nature belongs mainly to taxonomic grammar as the main approach to it is listing, categorising etc. whereas TG does not

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only label, but it rewrites and assigns proper structural description to strings. This must not be taken to mean that TG makes no use at all of Morphology. For example, in TG the word examination would have examine as a verb in:

1. He examined the class

This verb examine is nominalized to examination in

2. His examination of the class.

Here it is morphology that supplies the appropriate forms of the word. Although TG takes this for granted, it is in a study of morphology that we know what endings to put: consider

Verb	+	Nominalisation
tend		tendency
shoot		shooting

Whereas TG simply says that the lexical features are listed in the lexicon in the base component, while the phonological level lists all the phonological features necessary, it is the study of morphology that helps in the correct derivation of words from the DS into the surface structure (SS).

From the above, the choice of a model of description is guided by the fact that morphology lends itself more to taxonomic rather than Transformational analysis.

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1.1. The Problem:

1.1.1 Statement of the Problem. As this study is not directed towards pedagogy (although one of the main aims of contrastive linguistic analysis [CLA] is its pedagogic implications), the first problem is to find out the practical and academic value of the pursuit. Will a close study of the morphology of Yoruba carefully compared and contrasted with that of English serve any useful function to future linguists (irrespective of their linguistic bias - Phonology, Syntax, Semantics or Morphology itself) of both languages in general and of Yoruba in particular? Also, can the study of Yoruba Morphology throw any light on how some Yoruba words are to be classified, especially which words constitute verbs, adverbs and adjectives of the language?[8] For example words like kíákíá, 'quickly' and díẹ̀díẹ́ 'little by little' termed nouns by Awobuluyi (1976),p.17, are called adverbs by other Yoruba linguists like Bamgbose in "Yoruba Verb Phrase" [17:47].

Secondly we want to find out whether or not the question of adopting a standard Yoruba orthography can be solved through morphology. This is due to the fact that at present there are two different orthographies -

../6.

one based on Lagos and the other on Ọyọ dialects. Connected with this is the problem of whether or not tone marking should be retained on Yoruba words. A school of thought says that tone marking is not necessary because to use it is to concede that one is not writing for native speakers but foreigners.[9] The explanation offered is that without the tone marks people can read a piece of Yoruba literature without making mistakes. This is not always true. For example in Yoruba names:

(a) Akínìngbọ̀là may be wrongly pronounced

(b) Akíngbọ̀là without the tone marks as well as proper graphic representation. This will cause the semantic implication of the name to be mis-represented. For,

(a) Akínìngbọ̀là means "Akin (god) has not accepted sacrifice (or literally the man's claim to prosperity) where (b) Akíngbọ̀là means the exact opposite.[10]

Lastly, the author investigates what similarities and/or differences there are in the way the two languages lend themselves to morphology. For example, what are the various morphological processes that each of the languages lends itself to and how?

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1.1.2. The Scope of the Study:

As a complete contrastive study of the two languages (that is, in all fields of linguistics) would lie outside the scope of this study, the study has had to be limited to the field of morphology, particularly the areas of inflectional and derivational morphology: Other morphological processes - infixation, addition, suppletion, replaciveness etc. are also briefly treated. Inflection and derivation are particularly attractive because they are the most productive aspects of morphology. The choice of Yoruba as the language to be compared with English is due to the author's familiarity with the language as a native speaker, without which the attempt may prove too difficult to pursue.

Besides, the study will deal with the processes of morphology in each of the languages and state where the same processes apply to both languages and where different processes apply and how? Here the question of how each of the languages can be grouped comes up; that is, where the languages belong in the group of languages - inflectional, agglutinating, or isolating.[11] The most

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productive morphological process of each of the languages is also mentioned; for example, inflection is more productive in English while reduplication is the most productive process for the Yoruba language.

1.1.3. Definition of Terms:

Among the important terms to be defined in the study are:- Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA) which, according to Banathy (1969), "is a process by which two languages are compared in order to identify the differences between their linguistic systems."[12]

- Morpheme: "a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic - semantic resemblance to any other form ... is a morpheme."[13]

For example, the

un- as in unkind, unlike

de- " " deceive, detain

of English.

and the

ì- as in ìdọ̀tí 'dirt', ìrètí 'hope'

àì- as in àìgbọ́n 'lack of wisdom', àìmọ́ 'uncleanliness'

oni- " " onísìgá 'owner/seller of cigarette', onídàtà 'one who sells shoes'

of the Yoruba language.

- Morphology: according to Nida (1949) is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in the formation of

words."[14]

Reduplication: A morphological process involving either a partial or full repetition of some morphemes in a word. For example -

(1) Partial reduplication

ga —— gíga

pé —— pípé

(2) Full reduplication:

Pẹyẹ —— Pẹyẹpẹyẹ

Pẹja —— Pẹjapẹja

tannni —— tannitanni of Yoruba

and good —— goody goody

Pitter —— Pitter patter of English.

Calqueing: Used in this thesis to illustrate a morphological process in Yoruba whereby a whole sentence is compressed into a single word. For example 'ilèifowópamọ́sí' - 'the house where money is always kept.'

Ideophone: Yoruba ideophone has been described by Awoyale(1979) as 'a non-derived consonant - initial word, which is not primarily a surface verb, but can be predicated of another predicate or

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a nominal; or where such a word has been nominally idiomaticized, it functions fully as a noun.' Words like:

(i) Pàpàrà 'fat, heavy and muscular'

(ii) bà-ǹbà 'wide, heavy and strong' are examples.

1.1.4. Basic Assumptions: Here it may be necessary and useful to summarise some of the assumptions that the chosen field of research leads us to make in this study.

First, as morphology deals with the descriptive analysis of words, a contrastive approach to it presumes that the similarities, differences between the two languages to be contrasted will facilitate better and more productive language learning as well as stimulate more research in the field.

Secondly, the study will be of some pedagogic value. The pedagogic value of contrastive analysis will, however, not be dealt with in the study since we aim at a purely formal and theoretical description of morphology. Also, the fact that the value of contrastive grammars in facilitating pedagogy has been so widely discussed in

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recent times makes unnecessary a further re-examination of it here.[15]

Thirdly, it is assumed that a knowledge of Yoruba morphology carefully and systematically compared with that of English will provide students of the Yoruba language in particular and linguistics in general with a more complete education in all the aspects of grammar as emphasis now is more on syntax and phonology.

1.2. Review of Related Literature:

1.2.1. Contrastive Linguistics and Morphology:

Almost all existing works on CLA deal with the comparison of aspects of syntax and phonology, with their pedagogic implications. Lado (1957) and others emphasise the importance of CLA with regard to language teaching and the acquisition of a second language with its attendant problem of interference from the learner's first language, rather than word-formation. This approach almost always leads to a listing of hierachies of difficulty for the second language learner. As Pedagogy does not lie within the scope of the present study, the value of CLA as regards the refinement and validation of a linguistic metatheory will be treated as this is an equally important

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task of CLA. The importance of this is evidenced in works of structural linguists like Bloomfield (1933), Nida (1949), Gleason (1961), Matthews (1974) and others. In their treatment of morphology, they adopt a purely descriptive approach while the processes discussed are usually illustrated with examples from different languages thereby offering their readers an opportunity for comparing and contrasting the morphological processes of one language with those of other languages.[16] There is, therefore, a very good ground for academic pursuit as the revelation of processes common (or otherwise) to these languages and the extent of the similarities of such processes provide work for the student of morphology. For example the position of stress in Keckchi and Quechua described by Nida (1949)[17a] as well as inflection in Latin and English illustrated by Matthews (1974)[17b] will provide a good background for students of morphology on how to compare common features in two or more languages.

For Yoruba, early attempts were made by missionaries like Bowen (1858)[18a] and Crowther (1852)[18b] to describe Yoruba Morphology along lines of traditional Latin grammatical categories. Although these are old works by

../13.

self-made linguists, they really throw some light on the present study. A much more recent and very useful attempt has been made by Professor Banjo[19] in his Ph.D. thesis in which approximately four pages are devoted to a description of Yoruba morphology contrasted with that of English. Though brief, the discussion still serves to support my intuition on certain morphological processes operative in both the English and Yoruba languages, especially the fact that reduplication takes precedence over inflection in Yoruba whereas suffixation serves as the most productive process in English. Also, where Yoruba is hardly inflected, English is largely inflected, thereby making Yoruba an analytic language where English is more synthetic.

1.2.2. Contrastive Linguistics and TG: Once again it is necessary to say a word or two more on the place of CLA and TG since the usual trend by linguists now is to apply TG to their contrastive linguistic description in spite of the numerous other models of description. For example, there is the taxonomic model (which the author adopts), the word and Paradigm model' described by Hockett[20], 'sector analysis' by Allen and others more.

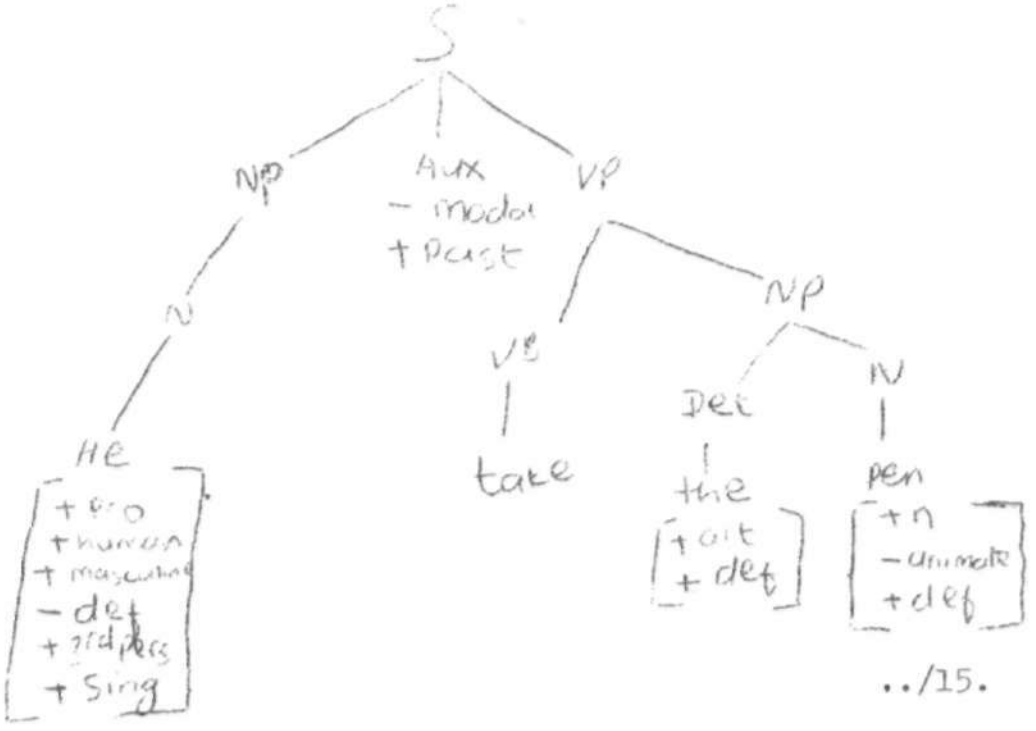
../14.

Of all the models, the TG tends to be the most popular as a formal, scientific approach to theoretical linguistics. This model was advanced by Chomsky in 'syntactic structures' (1957). Here a set of well - ordered rules is applied to the base component, the phrase structure and the transformational level of the grammar of a language to convert deep structure strings to surface structure strings. For example, the sentence:

(3) He took the pen

represents a surface structure, the deep structure of which will (diagramatically) be, as follows:

Figure I



../15.

Thus, in TG features take care of what morphology can do. However, as morphology deals specifically with the combination of morphemes in the formation of words, TG feature analysis is not really necessary as the correct combination of morphemes are concatenated at the level of morphology. In fact, TG can only be applied at the syntactic level as there is no separate level of morphology in TG.[21]

One may, however, wonder at how Banjo managed to discuss Yoruba lexical formation in his thesis using the TG approach. It should be noted that he discussed morphology in relation to syntax. He acknowledges the fact that TG cannot be applied to morphological descriptions in thesame thesis.[22] Other Yoruba linguists like Awobuluyi, Owolabi etc. who apply the TG model in dealing with Yoruba grammar are all pre-occupied with the syntactic aspects of the language whether in a purely theoretical way or as the language contrasts/compares with the English language.

Hence, even though the present research is of a contrastive nature, the field of study cannot make us adopt the TG model; rather, a formal, descriptive, scientific but taxonomic approach is adopted as this is

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the approach the field lends itself to.

1.3. Research Procedure:

1.3.1. Type of data. The variety of Yoruba to be contrasted with standard English (standard English is used here to mean the English of instruction in schools the textbook, and the English spoken by literate Englishmen), is known in the literature[23] as standard Yoruba that is, the form taught in schools and spoken among educated Yorubas.

As for the Yoruba language our data is mainly based on our introspection, on the said standard Yoruba, other native informants also contributed in case of indeterminacies, and the existing literature on the topic served as sources of information as well. Really, indeterminate cases cannot but occur, for as Courtenay (1968) succintly puts it:

"Since standard Yoruba is in most cases not the first dialect learned by a speaker, it is frequently tinged with localisms from the speaker's native region. For this reason, the standard has many idiolectal variants."[24] Banjo (1969) also has this to say of standard Yoruba:

../17.

> ...it is true that the standard form of a language is usually originally based on a regional dialect. But, it would be found in practically every case that there is a difference between that regional dialect and the standard form. In the case of Yoruba, it would be true to say that the standard form, is in an even early stage of evolution.
>
> ...Fifty years back the standard form was simply equated with ... the Oyo dialect, presumably for anthropological - historical reasons. But today, the picture is changing, and ... standard Yoruba now sounds more like Lagos dialect than Oyo.[25]

It can be seen that the two quotations above are essentially similar. They both talk of the standard form of a language showing signs of dialectal variations. It is these variations that account for cases of indeterminacies as may still be found in this study.

In selecting the models for data collection therefore, the author was guided by the basic linguistic principles of reliability and validity. Briefly summarised, the principles are:

(1) Intuition

(2) 'Free' but directed discussions with native speakers of Yoruba

(3) Reading relevant materials on data collection.

../18.

1.3.2. Sources of data: The data for the study, that is, the various morphological processes identified, were mostly extracted from works related to the field in English by Nida (1949) and Gleason (1961). My intuition as to Yoruba word-formation processes like Reduplication, Compounding etc. cross-checked by experts in Yoruba grammar as well as with the available works on processes of Yoruba word-formation serve as the source for the Yoruba language.

1.3.3. Analytic model: The procedure followed is a combination of the analytic contrastive model of Banathy, the descriptive model of Nida and the author's improvisation.

Briefly summarised, Banathy's model of CLA description is based on six main points to be considered -

(a) Purpose of CLA

(b) Scope and depth of study

(c) Language theory upon which the study is based

(d) Frame-work of comparison

(e) Justification of analytic procedures of comparison

(f) Formal construction and procedure justification.

../19.

On the other hand, Nida's descriptive statement of morphology can be paraphrased as follows:

(a) the formal description of morphology should reflect as accurately as possible the structure of the language under consideration. In other words, the morphemes and combinations of morphemes should be described according to their pertinent environments.

(b) The system of outlining must be clear and formal.

(c) The use of linguistic terminology should reflect the intended reader although it must conform with terms used by other linguists. New terms are to be clearly defined and consistently used.

(d) The use of mentalistic, historical, subjective and imperative statements should be avoided.[26]

Although Banathy's and Nida's models are different, the difference is a result of their treating two different topics. Banathy deals with ways of finding out similar/dissimilar facts about any sub-field of grammar while Nida deals with writing out the description of a particular sub-field of language, that is morphology. Their seeming differences, however, do not affect the author's work in applying the CLA approach to the morphology of English and Yoruba. Thus, the two models are used to complement each other.

../20.

The contrastive as well as the descriptive aspects of the work (based on the two models above) have therefore been reduced (by the author) to description, contrast and prediction.[27]

1.3.3.1. Description: Our research of the Yoruba morphology was based on a purely formal, scientific, descriptive but taxonomic approach, comparing those morphological processes that occur in the Yoruba language with those of English and contrasting the various aspects as to the way each language employs processes that are similar. Those processes present in one but almost non-existent in the other, for example, inflection, are also mentioned with the most productive morphological process in each of the languages discussed. The processes described are related in their functions to both syntax and semantics in succeeding chapters.

1.3.3.2. Contrast: The data collected on the morphological processes have been well contrasted with some of the contrasts provided in tabular form. See Chapter Two P. 60.

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1.3.3.3. Prediction: The study is concluded with inferences, that is, tentative conclusions and predictions about the field of study. There is a call for more research in the field and on the other fields of linguistic description (phonology, syntax and semantics) as this will reveal more facts about this all-important property of the human-being, that is, language. The study will also benefit the student of universal grammar whose main task is to find out more about the common features of the languages spoken by the various peoples of the world.

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FOOT-NOTES

1. Lado R., Linguistics Across Culture. (Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1957), P.2.

2. Ford Foundation and FMG: English Language in Nigeria. (OUP, 1966), pp. 92-93.

3. I made the assertion because where Morphology deals with the combination of morphemes into words, syntax deals with the combination of such words into sentences of a language. Transformational linguists may not totally agree with the view as they believe that both the lexicon and the phonological levels, supply the correct derivation of words and convert these from deep structure strings to the surface structure strings.

4. Yoruba is among the Kwa group of languages and is spoken by over ten million people in the south-western part of Nigeria. From Greenberg, J.H., The Languages of Africa. (The Hague: Mouton and Co., 1956).

5. Not much will be said on the other fields, as a full study of these other areas is outside the scope of the present work.

6. Chomsky N., Syntactic Structures. (The Hague: Mouton, 1957) and Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. (Cambridge: MIT, 1965).

7. I am aware of Mark Aronoff's Word Formation in Generative Grammar. (Cambridge and MIT Press, 1976) where he attempted to integrate morphological structure into a general theory of generative grammar. Nevertheless I still prefer the taxonomic model of description as no level of morphology has been successfully created in the TG approach adopted.

../23.

8. What words constitute Yoruba verbs and what yardsticks to use in deciding such words i.e. transitivity, distribution etc. are still under hot debate among learned scholars of the language. See The Yoruba Verb Phrase edited by Bamgbose,A. (1972).

9. Oral discussion with Professor Banjo (1977).

10. ` (grave) low tone.
' (acute) high tone.
no sign - mid tone.

11. According to Bloomfield (1933) "isolating languages were those which, like Chinese, used no bound forms; in agglutinative languages the bound forms were supposed merely to follow one another, Turkish being the stock example; polysynthetic languages expressed semantically important elements, such as verbal goals, by means of bound forms, as does Eskimo; inflectional languages showed a merging of semantically distinct features either in a single bound form or in closely united bound forms. Bloomfield, L., Language. (Holt; Rinehart and Winston, INC., 1933), p.208.

12. Banathy, B. H., The Potentials and Limitations of Contrastive Linguistic Analysis. (Oregon: Defence Institute, 1969), p.3.

13. Bloomfield, L., Ibid. p. 161.

14. Nida, E., Morphology (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1949), P.1.

15. See among others Lado (1957) and Banathy (1969).

16. See especially, Gleason, H. A., Jr., Workbook in Descriptive Linguistics. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1955).

17a. Nida, E., Ibid. p. 86.

b. Matthews, P.H., Morphology: An Introduction to the theory of word-structure (Cambridge University Press, 1974) p. 146.

..24.

18a. Bowen, T. J., Grammar and Dictionary of the Yoruba Language. (The Smithsonian Institution, 1858).

b. Growther, S. A., A grammar and vocabulary of the Yoruba Language. (London, Seeleys, Fleet street and Hanover street, Hanover square, 1852).

19. Banjo, L. A., A Contrastive study of Aspects of the Syntactic and lexical rules of English and Yoruba. (Ph.D. thesis, 1969), Pp. 90 - 94.

20. Hockett, C. F., "Two models of Grammatical Description." (Word 10, 1954)Pp. 210-233.

21. It is true that some transformations affect strings of morphemes. For example, Chomsky's affix transformation affects the ordering of morphemes:

SD: Affix + x

SC: x + Affix (under the domination of a different mode) (Syntactic structures, 1957) - thus converting a string such as (ed) + may into may + (ed) (morphophonemically: might). However, the transformation is still operating upon nodes, or phrase markers, converting whatever those nodes dominate into the appropriate structural change. A node that dominates a single morpheme is a case of self domination; that a morphological re-ordering is thus being effected is incidental. Transformations operate upon phrase markers on the intermediate level, not upon ultimate constituents, words and morphemes.

22. Banjo, L. A., Ibid. p. 90.

23. See Bamgbose (1966), Awobuluyi (1967), Banjo (1969) and Owolabi (1976).

24. Courtenay K. R., A generative phonology of Yoruba. (University of Carlifornia, Los, Angeles. Ph.D Dissertation, 1968). Quoted from Owolabi's thesis.

25. Banjo, L. A., Op.cit., p.5.

../25.

26. Nida, E., Op. cit., pp. 222 - 242.

27. Note that the purpose, scope, and language theory have been discussed above.

CHAPTER TWO

MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

2.0. In this chapter we shall briefly discuss affixation, and the other morphological processes present in the two languages under investigation. Particular attention will be paid to those processes that are most productive and the form-class of words they apply to. The aim is to see if both languages exhibit the same processes and how. We shall draw attention to such processes as may be present in one language but absent in the other.

2.0.1. Affixation:

This is a process whereby new words are formed by attaching morphemes to words. Such morphemes may be added before or after the words and in certain cases some words have both prefixing and suffixing of morphemes to the root morphemes. An example of affixation in English is the word undesirable which is made up of the root morphemes desire after which is added the morpheme -able; the two morphemes are preceded by un-. The morpheme un- is therefore a 'prefix', that is a morpheme that comes before the root morpheme, while -able is a 'suffix' in this particular word.

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As an example of affixation in Yoruba let us consider the word alàìgbàgbó 'unbeliever' which consists of the stem gbàgbó 'believe' to which is prefixed the two morphemes onì- 'owner' (agentive prefix), and àì- 'un' (negative prefix).

One must note that while English lends itself to both prefixation and suffixation, Yoruba uses prefixation. The other method of affixation, that is, infixation is not common to the two languages though it is productive in other languages, such as Tagalog.[2]

From the foregoing, therefore, prefixes, suffixes and infixes constitute affixation in any language although the three may not necessarily occur together in a particular language, as indicated above.

2.1.0. English Morphological Processes: Here we shall consider the processes of suffixation (both inflectional and derivational) and prefixation in that order for the English language.

2.1.1. Inflectional Suffixes:

An inflectional suffix has been described by Tomori (1977) as "a morpheme that performs a grammatical function in a word without changing the word-class of the particular word". For example, the English words devote

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and devoted belong to the same word-class of verb with the inflectional suffix / -d / in devoted performing the function of signifying the past tense form. In addition, consider the words bag and bags. The two words belong to the form-class of noun while the {s} in bags is the morpheme signalling plural number, as in:

(1) The bag is on the table.

(2) The bags are packed full.

In English, inflectional suffixes always come at the end of a word and always close the form. This fact can be illustrated with the words generations and written where the root words are generate and write respectively. The derivational suffix in the former is {-ation} and the inflectional suffix is {z}, while in the latter we have just the inflectional suffix {-en}. The point here is, no other suffix can follow both words.

English words may be inflected for tense, case, number and degree and the class of words to which these apply are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs. I hope, therefore, briefly to discuss inflection as it affects the different word classes of English.

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2.1.2. Nouns:

English nouns are inflected for number as in cow/kau/; cows/kauz/ and man/maen /: men/men/ each of which signifies the singular and plural number.[4]

At this point, mention should be made of the phonologically conditioned allomorphs of both the possessive and plural forms of the nouns, that is, the /s/, /z/, and /iz/ sounds. Briefly explained, the /s/ sound follows unvoiced consonants as in cats /kaets/; /z/ is produced with vowels and voiced consonants as in John's / [illegible] /, cows/kauz/; and /iz/ after affricates: / [illegible] / and / [illegible] / e.g. churches / [illegible] /, judges/ [illegible]; roses/rouziz/ and bushes/ [illegible] /. Thus, /s/, /z/, and /iz/ are the three allomorphs of both the plural and the possessive morphemes (represented by {-s} in English.

Besides, there is the zero allomorph for the plural number as in thecase of the following words:

I (i) sheep: sheep

(ii) counsel: counsel

such words demonstrate no morphemic difference between the singular and the plural forms. Other irregular formations like:

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2. (i) man : men

(ii) foot : feet

(iii) mouse : mice

(iv) child : children

in which the plural forms are phonetically changed cause a sort of sound replacement within the words.

For example:

3. (i) /mæn/ ..../men/ /æ changes to e/

(ii) /fut / ..../fi:t/ /u: " " i:/

(iii) /maus/ ..../mais/ /au " " ai/

(iv) / /..../ / /ai " " il/

2.1.3. Pronouns:

Morphologically, the pronouns of English can be divided into three groups, namely: Personal prononouns, relative pronouns and demonstrative pronouns. Both the personal and relative pronouns are inflected according to their position or function in the sentence: either they occupy the subject/object position or they indicate an epithetic possessive/predicative possessive case; while the demonstrative pronouns are inflected for number only. The table below shows the various inflectional forms of the pronouns:

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TABLE I[5]

Subjective	Objective	Epithetic Possessive	Predicative Possessive
I	Me	My	Mine
We	Us	Our	Ours
You	You	Your	Yours
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Her	Hers
It	It	Its	Its
They	Them	Their	Theirs
Who	Who or Whom	Whose	Whose
Which	Which		
That	That		
This	This		
Those	Those		
These	These		

2.1.4. Verbs:

Inflection is highly productive in English in the word-class of verbs. Most verbs can be inflected for tense, number, and case. There is the base or infinitive - to go; to walk; the -s form (third person singular or agreement morpheme) walks, goes; the -ing form (present participle or gerundive form walking, going; the -ed form (past tense)

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walked; went and the -en form (past participle) walked, gone.

The third person singular form signalled by the morpheme {-s} has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs /s/, /z/ and /iz/ just as is the case with the plural and possessive explained in 2.1.2. above. The ing form has only one form while the {-ed} form of regular verbs has three allomorphs /t/, /d/ and /id/ which are also phonologically conditioned. The {-ed} form of irregular verbs in the past participle also exhibit the same three phonologically conditioned allomorphs mentioned above. The sound /t/ is used after voiceless consonants as in walked /wo:kt/; /d/ after voiced consonants as in robbed /robd/ and also after vowels as in housed /hauzd/ while /id/ occurs after /t/ or /d/ as in included/inkludid/ and rented /rentid/.

There are irregular endings e.g. go - went which is usually referred to as morphologically suppletive. Some verbs: cut: cut have zero allomorph (both the zero and suppletive forms are still allomorphs of (-ed)) while others like the strong verbs:

../3.

4. (i) see /si:/ ... saw with i: changed to ɔ:/

(ii) take /teik/... took/tuk: with ei:changed to μ:

(iii) come/kom/ ... came/keim/ with: changed to /ei/

demonstrate a process of sound replaciveness.

It is obvious that the English language consists of morphologically inflected verbs and a lot of work has been done on verb morphology in English.[6]

2.1.5. Adjectives:

This word-class is usually inflected for comparative and superlative degrees and the morphemes used are {-er} and {-est} respectively. For example.

5. (i) low lower lowest

(ii) short shorter shortest

(iii) big bigger biggest

Some adjectives are not inflected; rather they have the lexical items more and most[7] added to their comparative and superlative degrees. For example:

beautiful more beautiful most beautiful

handsome more handsome most handsome

This is regarded as periphrastic inflection and it is a syntactic rather than morphological feature.

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Adjectives also show a process of morphological suppletion in words like:

6. (i) good better best

(ii) many more most

(iii) bad worse worst

2.1.6. Adverbs:

Morphologically English adverbs are at times inflected with the morphemes '-er' and '-est' for degree just like the adjectives. For instance, consider the words:

7.(i) soon sooner soonest

(ii) quickly more quickly most quickly

The process of suppletion also occurs with the English adverb, for example:

8. badly worse worst -

although there are not many words in this category.

From the above it can be seen that English has its words inflected for tense, case, number, and degree. All the inflected morphemes in English are always suffixed - more quickly suffix? to the words concerned. Irregular words are either morphologically taken care of by zero allomorph or by either the process of suppletion or replacive morphemes; while the regular allomorphs e.g. the /t/, /d/ and /id/

of the simple past (-ed) or past participle (-ed) morphemes are usually phonologically conditioned.

2.2.0. Derivational Suffixes:

Unlike the inflectional suffix which does not change the word-class in any particular word, a derivational suffix as a morpheme - often changes the word-class of the word to which it is added. For example, in English the suffix -ly changes the words quick and slow to quickly and slowly respectively. The word-class of quick and slow is adjective while that of quickly and slowly is adverb. No process is equivalent to this in the Yoruba language as there are no derivational suffixes in the language. cf 2.3.0 p42 ?

2.2.1. Types of Derivational Morphemes:

The morpheme markers and the class of words to which they are attached in order to derive other word-classes are briefly treated in this section.

It has been found out by earlier linguists that English words can be morphologically grouped into two classes namely, primary words and derived words.[8] Primary words may or may not contain a free form. For example, there are derived primary words consisting of

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more than one bound form as in re-ceive, de-ceive, con-ceive, re-tain, de-tain, con-tain. There are morpheme words which consist of a single (free) morpheme as in man, boy, cut, run, red. A derived word, on the other hand, consists of at least one root and a number of bound or free morphemes. Inter-relatedness is an example of a word with one root and a number of bound morphemes. Relate is the root, inter - the derivational prefix, -ed and -ness are the derivational suffixes.

Besides, some English words have two or more roots conjoined e.g. boat-house consisting of boat and house, schoolroom consisting of school and room. This process is known as compounding. Other derived words have more than one root with bound morpheme(s) e.g. truckpusher has the two roots truck and push plus the bound morpheme -er.

Morphological markers of words derived from other word-classes are discernible in English. For example:

(a) Morphemes that form nouns from nouns are:

-ster as in:

gangster
trickster

-eer as in profiteer
engineer

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-er as in: glover
londoner

-cy as in: chieftaincy

-dom as in: stardom

-ess as in: heiress

-hood as in: sisterhood

-ian as in: quardian

(b) Suffixes that form nouns from verbs are:

-ation as in fixation
foundation
victimization

-ant as in contestant
disinfectant

-age as in leakage
breakage

-ance as in performance
maintainance

-er as in seller

-or as in sailor

-ar as in liar

-ment as in employment

-ing reading

(c) Morphemes that derive nouns from adjectives are:

-ness as in meanness
happiness

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-ity as in sanity
diversity

-ce as in prominence
eminence

-cy as in persistency
insistency

-ity as in visibility
brevity

(d) Morphemes that form adjectives from nouns are:

-y as in wealthy

-al as in rational

-ful as in truthful

-less as in toothless

-ly as in orderly

-ish as in boyish

-ic as in traumatic

-ed as in saddled

while

(e) Morphemes that form adjectives from verbs are:

-able as in surmountable
commendable

-ous as in felicitous
solicitous

-ive as in passive
deceptive

-ing as in surpassing
surprising

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2.2.2. Prefixes:

English exhibits no inflectional prefixes. Prefixes are derivational and can be classified according to meaning or the word class they usually attach to. Here, the prefixes will be classified according to meaning.[9]

2.2.2.1. Negative Prefixes: These are prefixes which usually have the meaning 'not' or 'opposite of'. They change the polarity of words from positive to negative. Example of such prefixes are:

un- in unfair, unwise, unattached

non- in non-conformist, non-politician

dis- in as in disown, discontent.

in- in in-frequent, insane

NOTE: in- changes to il-before /l/ illegal

" " im- before labials impossible

" " ir- before /r/ irrelevant.

2.2.2.2. Reversative Prefixes: always have the meaning of 'to reverse the action', as in:

un- undo, untie

de- defrost, decode

dis- disconnect, dismount.

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2.2.2.3. Pejorative Prefixes: Used to denote something that is done 'wrongly' or with the sense of something being 'astray'; as in:

mis-	miscalculate, misfire
Mal-	maltreat, malformed
pseudo-	pseudo-legs, pseudo-scientific.

2.2.2.4. Prefixes of degree or size: These express a sense of something or somebody 'higher' or 'above', 'under, 'beyond' the other. Such prefixes are:-

arch-	archduke, arch-enemy
super-	supernatural supermarket
out-	outgrow, outlive
sur-	surpass, surcharge
sub-	subhuman, substandard
over-	'overdo', overconfident
under-	undercook, underfeed
hyper-	hypertension, hypersensitive
ultra-	ultra-modern
mini-	minibus, mini-skirt.

2.2.2.5. Prefixes of attitude: Show the attitude of somebody whether positive or negative to things or other people. For example:

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co- cooperate, co-worker

counter- counter-sign, counteract

anti- anti-crime, anti-war

Pro- Pro-communist.

2.2.2.6. Locative prefixes: - denote location in relation to other things; as in :-

inter- international, interplay

trans- Trans-atlantic, transplant.

intra- intravenous.

2.2.2.7. Prefixes of time and order: usually used with the meaning 'before', 'after', 'former' or 'again' as in:

fore- forewarn, foretell

Pre- Pre-war, Pre-school

Post- Post-war, Post-mortem

ex- ex-president, ex-minister

re- rebuild, reclaim.

From the above, it can be seen that most of the prefixes treated usually attach to the word classes noun, verb, and adjective. Both prefixation and suffixation play vital roles in English word-formation. Suffixation is used in both the inflectional and derivational morphology while prefixation is confined to derivations only.

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2.3.0. Yoruba Morphological Processes:

In treating Yoruba morphological processes one must bear in mind that the language does not lend itself to inflection. Derivational morphology is, therefore, dominant in the language and this makes use of prefixation rather than suffixation. Prefixation will thus be discussed first. The processes of reduplication (most productive) and compounding will then be treated. The derivation of other parts of speech will also be looked at.

cf 2.2.0 p 35

2.3.1. Derivational Prefixes:

In the derivation of Yoruba words, morphemes are usually prefixed to the root. There is no suffixing of morphemes unless one calls the repetition of morphemes in reduplicated words like pani pani, tóní tóní, etc., suffixation. Prefixation is therefore very productive in Yoruba word formation. Like English, Yoruba words can be grouped into two main morphological classes:

1. base words: For example:

   (i) Ọmọ 'child'

   (ii) ilẹ 'house'

   (iii) bẹ̀ẹ̀rè 'ask' or 'demand'

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2. derived words: as in.

(i) Ọ̀yáju 'a forward person' derived from the root yáju - 'being forward' and the nominalising prefix Ọ̀.

(ii) alárọ̀ká 'a gossip' from oni + àrọ̀ká
'owner of' 'gossip'

NOTE:

In Yoruba nominalisation, oni- (the agentive prefix) always undergoes certain changes before the oral vowels 6 a, e, ẹ, o and ọ.

oni

- deleted
- replaced by the initial vowel of the noun.
- becomes l

This can be illustrated as follows with the word 'alárọ̀ká!

oni + aroka

a — l deleted + aroka

process of contraction:

alaroka.

Thus the initial vowel of the noun takes the place of o in oní while n becomes l before the oral vowel à; í is

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deleted and the process of contraction and assimilation (the tone of í is copied on to à to give á) attaches a + l. + àrèkà ---- alárèká. à is the nominalising prefix; rèká is the verb phrase consisting of rè 'talk' and ká 'about'. Thus, a sort of rule ordering operates here:

1. vowel contraction
2. N----- l
3. O ---- a (initial vowel of the n).

(1) Agentive Prefix: oni- The Yoruba agentive prefix oni- indicates the owner/seller' of an item. Before oral vowel - it undergoes certain chánges (explained above). Hence we have

10. (i) aláṣọ oní+aṣọ 'owner/seller of cloths'.
    (ii) olówó oní+owó 'a rich man'
    (iii) elépo oní+epo 'one who owns/sells oil'.
    (iv) ẹlẹran oní+ẹran 'one who owns/sells meat'

However before consonants and the vowel í- the oní- remains the same as in:

11. (i) Onísìgá from ní, sìgá
    'cigarette 'have''cigarette'.
    seller'.
    (ii) Onígàrí from ní gàrí
    gari seller have gari(food item).

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(iii) Onigbagbọ from ní, ìgbàgbọ́.
'have' 'faith'

2. Nominalising Prefixes a, ì,:

The productivity of Yoruba prefixation is seen in the derivation of one form-class from another. For example, in the derivation of nouns from verb phrases a mid-tone a, or a low tone i is usually prefixed to the verb phrase. For example:

apẹja 'fisherman'

asore 'a kind person'

apani 'a murder'

ìkọwe 'pen

ìreti 'hope

ìgbagbọ 'belief or faith'

NOTE: There are six vowels (a, e, ẹ, i, o, ọ) that can start nouns in Yoruba and the language demonstrates three possible tone patterns, which are, high (á), low (à) and mid (a) tones. No noun in the language starts with a high tone so we are left with two tone patterns, low and mid. Consider:

12. (i) apẹja (a fisherman) *àpẹja

(ii) *epẹja *èpẹja

(iii) *ẹpẹja *ẹ̀pẹja

(iv) *ipẹja ìpẹja 'instrument of fishing'

(v) *opẹja òpẹja 'one who is fond of fishing'

(vi) *Ọpẹja ọ̀pẹja 'one who is fond of fishing'

From the above examples, the mid-tone a- prefixed to a verb-phrase to form a noun indicates the actor or agent of an action while the low tone ì-, indicates the 'instrument of doing something' and ò- and ọ̀- as in òpẹja and ọ̀pẹja indicate the doer of an action. The low tone à- prefixed to monosyllabic words (verbs) for example:

13. (i) àlọ́ 'act of going'
(ii) àbọ̀ 'act of returning'
(iii) àjọ 'assembly'

form nouns from such words.

3. Negative Prefix: The morpheme àì when prefixed to noun negates the noun, thus changing the polarity of the nouns from positive to negative. For example, the word àìlọ́mọ, 'state of not having a child', is derived in the following way:

14. (i) àì + ní + ọmọ
'not' 'have' 'child'

l o

(ii) àì + l + ọmọ

process of assimilation and contraction.

(iii) àì + lọ́ ọ
negative prefix

(iv) àìlọ́mọ.

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Thus, through the processes of replacement, deletion, assimilation, contraction and finally negation,[13] the word àìlóṇọ́ is formed.

As already mentioned, the main difference between the derivational morpheme of English and Yoruba is that while such morphemes in English are either suffixed or prefixed to the particular words, Yoruba morphemes are almost always prefixed. It is in such morphological processes like reduplication, compounding and calqueing that suffixation occurs.[11] An example of Yoruba reduplication is the word gìlọ̀gìlọ[12] 'slugishness' while that of compounding is aṣọ-ebí 'family dress' and calqueing ilé-ìfowó-pamọ́sí 'bank'. In calqueing, one faces a situation whereby a whole sentence is compressed into one word presenting an extreme kind of Halliday's rankshifting (which is a syntactic rather than morphological analysis). Here the words do not yield morphemes but word group - subject, relative pronoun, object, verb, preposition. The word groups in turn have a qualifier which is a rank-shifted clause with the statement turned to interrogation.

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2.3.2. Reduplication:

This is a very productive morphological process in Yoruba. The language exhibits both full and partial reduplication in its word-formation. Full reduplication will be treated under the following sub-headings.[14]

(1) agentive nominals (2) adverbial phrases,

(3) Period of time phrases (adverbs) (4) Reduplication with word linkers and (5) ideophones. As for Partial reduplication, we shall look at (1) gerundive reduplication and reduplication of tri- and quadri- syllabic words.

2.3.2.1. Full Reduplication:

(a) Agentive reduplication: The reduplicated forms denote the 'doer' of an action as in

15. (i) pẹyẹ pẹyẹ 'bird hunter'
'kill bird'

(ii) pẹja pẹja 'a fisherman'

(iii) tanni tanni 'a deceiver'

(iv) pani pani 'a murderer'.

Here verb phrases are reduplicated to form nouns.

(b) Adverbial Phrases: These are reduplicated form used for emphasis or intensification as in:

16. (i) tilé-tilé 'entire household inclusive'

(ii) tọmọ tọmọ 'children inclusive'

(c) Frequency Phrases: These are adverbial phrases expressing period of time. They are formed by reduplicating nouns with the final vowel of the first noun dropped while the initial vowel of the second noun (identical to the first) is copied to the first. For example:

17. (i) ọṣooṣù ọṣù + ọṣù 'every month'
(ii) ọjọọjọ́ ọjọ́ + ọjọ́ 'every day'
(iii) ọdọọdún ọdún + ọdún 'every year'
(iv) àràárọ̀ árọ̀ + árọ̀ 'every morning'
(v) alaalẹ́ alẹ́ + alẹ́ 'every night'
(vi) ọsọ̀ọsán ọ̀sán + ọsán 'every afternoon'

(d) Reduplication with word linkers: The word linkers are particles like ki 'any' (nominal compound linker) ti...dé 'from... to' ní (1) 'own'
For example:

18. ki (i) ènìyànkéniyàn 'a worthless person'
(ii) ẹnikẹ́ni 'anybody at all'
(iii) aṣọkáṣọ 'any cloth at all'
(iv) ọmọkọ́mọ 'any child at all'

19. ti...dé: (i) àtọwọ́dọ́wọ́ 'from hand to hand'
(ii) àtìgbàdégbà 'from time to time'
(iii) àtọjọ́dọ́jọ́ 'from day to day'

20. (l): (i) ọmọ́lọ́mọ 'another person's child'
(ii) aṣọ́alásọ 'another person's clothe'
(iii) owó́ló́wó 'another person's money'

The particle 'ki' may have a contemptous connotation while 'ni' denotes 'ownership' as can be seen from the examples above.

(e) Ideophones[15] These have been defined by Awoyale (1979) as a 'non-derived consonant - initial word, which is not primarily a surface verb, but can be predicated of another predicate or a nominal; or where such a word has been nominally idiomaticized, it functions fully as a noun'. Yoruba has a lot of these ideophones which take part in productive reduplicative processes.

(a) Distributive Reduplication: This is a full reduplication with no difference in tonal pattern. It denotes repetition for emphasis and this is very common in the language. For example:

(21) (i) fío-fío 'very tall'

(ii) lémọ-lémọ 'repeatedly'

(iii) léra-léra 'continuously'

Tonal pattern of (i - iii) is high-mid-high-mid.

(i) múlọ́-múlọ́ 'very soft and fleshy'

(ii) pátá-pátá 'totally'

(iii) téní-téní 'very clean'

(iv) láú-láú 'very white'

Here the Tonal pattern is high - high - high - high.

(b) Compound Reduplication: This follows tonal patterning and usually has pejorative connotations: For example.

(22) (i) bàmbà-bamba 'wide, heavy and strong'

(ii) gbàgìdì-gbagidi 'big and heavy'

(iii) bọ̀kìtì-bọkiti 'big, heavy and fleshy'

(iv) règòdò-rogodo 'that is very round and big'

The tone is low - low - low - mid - mid - mid.

(i) - (iv) above can also be reduplicated as in:

(i) bámba-bàmba-bàmbà-bambà

(ii) gbágídi-gbàgìdi-gbàgìdì-gbagidì

(iii) játi-jàti-jàti-jatí 'of many things or people being rough and disorderly'

The pattern here is high-(high)-mid-low-(low)-mid-low-low-(low)-mid-(mid)-high. There are many more reduplicated ideophones in Yoruba but as the thesis is not

on ideophones the above examples are enough to illustrate the mode of ideophone reduplication in Yoruba.

2.3.2.2. Partial Redunlication: In Yoruba, partial reduplication with phonetic change is regular. The resulting reduplicated words usually indicate state of being. For example we have:

(24) (i) gíga 'that is tall' from gà 'to be tall'

(ii) gígùn 'that is long' from gùn 'to be long'

(iii) kíkéré(kékeré) 'that is small' from kéré 'to be small'

(iv) bíburú(búburú) 'that is harsh' from burú 'to be harsh'

(v) kíkurú(kúkurú) 'that is short' from kúrú 'to be short'

Here the initial consonant of the verb is reduplicated with the vowel í instead of the vowel of the verb. This modification towards í might result from the fact that two consonants do not always follow each other in Yoruba. Reduplicated forms like: (24) (iii) kékeré, (iv) búburú, and (v) kúkurú are irregular forms as forms like (24) (i) *gága, (ii) *gúngùn do not occur in the language.

There is another form of partial reduplication in Yoruba whereby the final syllable of the word is copied and suffixed to the stem in a very productive way. Examples of such reduplication are:

(25) (i) fẹ̀rẹ́gẹ̀dẹ̀ - dẹ - 'very very wide'

(ii) gbẹ̀dẹ̀mùkẹ̀ - kẹ 'that is very festive and ceremonious'

(iii) gbàràkàtà - tà - 'that is very big and very very heavy'

Other form of progressive partial reduplication involve copying the first syllable and suffixing it to the stem as in:

(26) (i) pàpàrà: pàpàràpà 'fat and muscular'

(ii) gbàgbàrà: gbàgbàràgbà ''big and wide'

(iii) fẹ̀fẹ̀rẹ̀: fẹ̀fẹ̀rẹ̀fẹ̀ 'very very wide'

(iv) gàgàrà: gàgàràgà 'very very high'

2.3.3. Compounding: We shall briefly look at Noun-Noun compounds[16], Noun-Verb compounds and the process of calqueing:

(a) Noun-Noun Compounds: The process of noun-noun combinations in the formation of words is a very productive one in Yoruba. Example of noun-noun compounds are:

27. (i) ilé-iwé 'school'

(ii) ojú omi 'water surface'

(iii) ilée-túbú 'Prison'
'house prison'

(b) Calqueing: This process involves uniting a whole phrase or even sentence to form a single

noun. This is commonly found in Yoruba newspapers. For example there are nominals like:

Afibi-sùolóre 'an ingrate'

Alágabagebè 'a hypocrite.

Calqueing is also seen in Yoruba names e.g.

(i) Olúfúnmiláyò 'God has given me joy'

2.4.0. The other parts of speech:

2.4.1. Pronouns: Yoruba pronouns can be divided into three classes morphologically i.e. personal, demonstrative and the interrogative pronouns. Unlike English pronouns they are not inflected. However, the personal pronouns demonstrate some morphological variety similar to that of English in their nominative, objective as well as the possessive uses (the form used for the epithetic possessive is the short, unemphatic form of the predicative and so no separate column is needed). It is this lexical variety that we actually want to look at as it could favourably compare with the English pronouns in spite of its not being inflected. See the table below for the pronouns:

TABLE 2:

SUBJECTIVE	OBJECTIVE	POSSESSIVE
('I') mo mo	mi ('me')	T'èmi ('mine')(ti emi)
(you sing) o/ọ	o, ẹ ('you', plu)	T'ìrẹ́ (yours) (ti irẹ)
('he'/'she'/'it') ó	(vowel of the verb, Him, her,it) ó	T'irè (his,hers,its) (ti rẹ)
('we') a	wa('us')	T'iwa (ours) (ti awa)
('you' plu.) ẹ	Yin ('your')	Tiyín (yours)(ti èyin)
('they', 'them')wọn	wọn ('them')	T'iwọn (theirs)(ti awọn)
tà èwo		
ǐyọn		
èyi		

NOTE:

(i) The forms Èmi, 'I' and ìwọ 'you' can be emphasised while the forms mo and o, etc. cannot e.g.

29. (i) Èmi ló se é. 'It was I did it'

(ii) *Mo ló se é.

(2) The Yoruba possessive pronoun is a contraction of two lexical items ti + pronoun as in ti + èmi ---- temi with the vowel -i of (genetive 'I' marker) the first word being elided. The two items have come to be used as one lexical

item as they actually denote 'something that is mine'.

(3) The Yoruba interrogatives ta (ta/taa)[17] 'who' and wo/èwo 'which' show no change but the first is usually collocated with ti and ni to form ti tani (ti + ta + ni) 'whose' to show possession. The demonstrative pronouns èyi 'this', and ìyẹn 'that' usually have the word 'awọn' attached, to denote plurality. These pronouns are therefore morphologically primitive (showing no change both syntactically and morphologically).

It is obvious that it is the personal pronouns in Yoruba which show a faint trace of morphological variety comparable to the English pronoun inflection. We must bear in mind, however, that these lexical 'inflections' do not affect either the tense or mood of the sentence in both languages. Consider the sentences below:

30. (i) Mo ti ṣe é. 'I have done it'.

(ii) Èmí ti ṣe é 'I, myself, have done it'.

The only difference in the sentences is emphasis, tense remains unchanged, and no other word is affected in the Yoruba sentences except the subject. Hence, the 'inflection'

(if it may be so called) is morphological, and on the isolated personal pronoun.

2.4.2. Verb derivation: "Verbs are not derived in Yoruba and the only way of forming verbs in the language is to make words function as verbs."[18] For example, the word gbajúmọ̀ 'to be social and popular' is a verb in the following sentences:

31. (i) Ọkùnrin náà gbajúmò gan an ní Èkó
'The man is very popular in Èko'

(ii) Ó gbajúmọ̀ gan an ní Èkó.
'He is very popular in Èkó'.

Thus Yoruba verbs are primitive in that they are not derived. For example words like:

32. (i) fẹ́ 'to love'

(ii) tàn 'to deceive'

(iii) tàn 'to light

(iv) tán 'finish'

(v) tò 'to arrange'

(vi) lọ 'to go'

(vii) wò 'to look'

are verbs from which other word classes e.g. noun can be derived -

Verb	Noun	
fẹ́	ìfẹ́	'love'
tàn	ẹ̀tàn	'deceit'

2.4.3. Adverbs:

Just as the case is with verbs, adverbial phrases rather than adverbs are derived in Yoruba. This is through the process of reduplication as in

33. (i) fíofío 'very high'

(ii) màràànmàràn 'very shiny'

(iii) kíákíá 'quickly'

(iv) gìlọ̀gìlọ̀ 'sluggishly'

To express degrees with adverbs the Yoruba language employs the lexical items jù 'more' and jù... lọ 'most' to compare with the English comparative and superlative degrees respectively as in:

34. (i) pupa pupa jù pupa jù...lọ[19]
red red more red most

(ii) kíákíá kíakía jù kíákíá jù...lọ
quickly quickly more quickly most.

2.4.4. Adjectives:

Yoruba adjectives may be derived from simple verbs through the process of partial reduplication as in:

	Verb	Adjective
35.(i)	ga 'tall'	gíga 'lofty'
(ii)	le 'hard'	líle 'is hard'
(iii)	dùn 'sweet'	dídùn 'that is sweet'

(iv) mú 'sharp' — ríimú 'that is sharp'

(v) kúrú 'short' — kíkúrú 'that is short'

A second way of deriving adjectives (adjectival phrases) is to prefix ní 'to have' to nouns like agbára 'strength' and ewà beauty to form l'agbára and l'ẹ́wà respectively through the process of contraction and assimilation. It is in this way that words used to affirm qualities are formed i.e. (i) ni + NP

(2) l + NP (l before oral vowels)

Yoruba adjectives have the lexical items jù and jù...lọ added for the comparative and superlative degrees. The addition of these lexical items denote comparison of nouns. Hence:

36. (i) lágbára 'have strength' — lágbára jù 'have strength more' — lágbára jù... lọ 'have strength most'

(ii) lọ́lá, 'have wealth' — lọ́la jù 'have wealth more' — lọ́lạ jù... lọ, 'have wealth most'

are derived.

In the derivation of adjectives, therefore, Yoruba makes use of prefixation and reduplication.

2.5. To sum up it is obvious that the two languages make use of many morphological processes. The English language employs both inflectional and derivational suffixes. It also uses derivational prefixes, suppletion, replacive and compounding in its word-formation processes. The Yoruba language on the other hand, makes use of derivational prefixes, reduplication, compounding and calqueing. Attempt is also made to show the use of morphology in changing the form class of words (for example verb changing to noun, etc).

To aid memory, the morphological processes of the languages under consideration make use of are set down in the table below.

TABLE 3:

Morphological Processes	English	Yoruba
Inflectional suffixes	+	-
Derivational suffixes	+	-
Derivational Prefixes	+	+
Suppletion	+	-
Replacives	+	-
Reduplication	very faint trace especially in onomatopaeic words (e.g. Pitter, Patter).	+
Compounding	+	+
Calqueing	very faint trace	+

NOTE: + signifies the presence of a process in each of the languages while - denotes absence of it.

FOOTNOTES

1a. In Yoruba n of the agentive prefix oní changes to ɪ before oral vowels - (a e ẹ o ọ) with the initial vowel of the noun prefixed to it, hence alaigbagbọ; and remains n before nasal vowels (i, ɛ, ɔ, u) and the consonants - hence Onisiga, Oniru. The two (n, l) are in complementary distribution. i is usually deleted and its tone assimilated to the initial vowel of the noun.

b. ài- 'un' in Yoruba consists of two nominalising prefixes a and i both of which combine to form the negator ai. According to Awoyale (University of Ilorin, Oral communication, 1979) a as in atetelọ ('fact of going early') àtètèdè (fact of arriving early) is a factive nominalising prefix while i as in imudele ('the act of bringing home') igbẹkẹle (act of relying on something or somebody) is a non-factive nominalising prefix.

2. An example of 'infix' from the language is seen from the derivation of the word [su 'mu': lat] 'one who wrote', from [su:lat] 'a writing' with the infix [-mu-]. See Bloomfield, L; Language (N.Y.Holt, Rinehart and Wiston. Inc., 1933) p. 218.

3. Tomori, S.H.O., The Morphology and Syntax of Present Day English: An Introduction. (London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., 1977) p. 33.

4. Hockett, C. F. has suggested in his 'Introduction to descriptive Linguistics that the possessive case s is no inflection and so we need not concern ourselves with this in the present work.

5. Table taken from Tomori, S. H. O. referred to above p. 37.

6. See works by linguists like Palmer, Bloomfield, and others. Their works are referred to in the Bibliography.

7. More and most can be considered allomorphs of -er and -est.

8. Bloomfield, L. Ibid. p. 209.

9. The terms used to indicate the major categories of the prefixes are taken from Quirk, R. et. al. A grammar of Contemporary English. (London, Longman group Ltd., 1972) pp. 973 - 992.

10. See Chapter 4 below.

11. A term suggested by Professor Banjo (Oral discussion).

12. Such connective morphemes will be treated, later on, under reduplication.

13. The negator is always prefixed to the verb phrase in Yoruba.

14. The sub-headings are suggested by Awoyale (already referred to above).

15. Yoruba ideophone is fully discussed by Awoyale in his paper, On the grammatical reality of the ideophone in Yoruba (Presented at the 10th annual conference on African Linguistics, 1979).

16. See Owolabi's thesis on Noun-noun constructions in Yoruba (Ibadan, University Press, Ph.D. thesis, 1977).

17. Actually ta and ni are two forms that always go together with ni as the identifier. I consider them as bound forms since none can stand on its own in Yoruba. In the interrogative ta is used for animate objects while ki 'what' is for inanimate objects ni is a helping verb and can stand but in the interrogative it has to be joined to ta or ki, since it neither denotes possession nor performs independent verbal function.

18. Oral idscussion with Professor Awobuluyi (University of Ilorin, 1979).

19. jù and jù..lọ in Yoruba may translate more and most respectively and they can at times translate any one of the comparative and superlative degrees. Hence it cannot be asserted that each strictly translates the comparative/superlative degrees respectively as semantically they are interchangeable. Thus, the one chosen depends on context. Nonetheless they are the lexical items in Yoruba that are used to express degree though they may not strictly equate the English more and most.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0. Function of Morphology within Syntax:

The relevance of this chapter is to show the importance of morphology in syntax. The relevant facts to note about inflection like (i) the different inflectional suffixes, for example, the plural morpheme (-s) with its different phonologically conditioned allomorphs (ii) the past tense, morpheme (-ed) also with its allomorphs, (iii) inflection as it affects the different word classes of English etc. are already noted in chapter two above. Also, the important facts to know about - derivational morphology in both English and Yoruba like (i) derivation of one form class from another, (ii) the use of certain prefixes e.g. 'un' and 'àì in, changing the polarity of words from positive to negative are, at the same time noted.

In this chapter, therefore, we shall concentrate on the syntactic functions, that is, the relevance of those facts to syntax. Thus, taking the English language first, under inflection, we shall consider the importance of the plural markers in the (i) nouns (ii) pronouns. After this will come the tense markers in the lexical word class verb, and here, as it affects (i) the infinitive

(ii) the progressive (iii) the perfective and (iv) the 3rd person singular form of the verb. Then, the degree endings in adjectives and adverbs, that is, in the comparative and superlative degrees will be treated.

Under derivational morphology we shall look at what syntactic function the derivation of one form class from another serves that is, do the suffixes so used demonstrate any clear syntactic functions? Lastly, the derivational prefixes will be considered.

For the Yoruba language, the syntactic functions of the derivation of form classes will be treated. After this, the syntactic importance of:

(i) Yoruba reduplication (both full and partial) along with ideophones

(ii) prefixation, and,

(iii) word-linkage that is, the particles -ki- 'any' -ti...de- 'from ... to' and -ni- 'of' will be considered in that order.

3.1.0. Syntactic Functions:

3.1.1. Inflections:

3.1.2. Plural marker: The plural marker (that is, the morpheme {-s}) in English is syntactically important in relation to number, that is, the singular versus plural numbers. For example:

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(1)	Singular	Plural	
	boy	boys	/boiz/
	girl	girls	/gælz/
	plant	plants	/plants/
	pant	pants	/pants/
	box	boxes	/bɒksiz/
	match	matches	/mætʃiz/
	trench	trenches	/trɛntʃiz/
	church	churches etc.	/ʧɜːʧiz/

There are irregular plural forms like:

(2)	Singular	Plural
	man	men
	foot	feet
	sheep	sheep

The first two words exhibit some phonological changes in the root. This is called phonemic replacives where:

/æ/ changes to /e/

/u/ changes to /i:/

The third word, however, exhibits no difference either in spelling or pronounciation from the singular form. Such words are said to exhibit zero allomorph of the plural morpheme.

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From the above it could be seen that the notion number is associated with the noun phrase since it is a property of the NP. Thus, if an NP is singular the verb to be used with it must be singular and if plural, the verb must be plural also. This can be illustrated with sentences 3(i) - (vi) below:

(3) (i) The man is a thief.

(ii) The men are thieves.

(iii) *The men is a thief.

(iv) The oranges are bad.

(v) The orange is bad.

(vi) *The oranges is bad.

The above rule that a singular NP must take a singular verb while a plural NP takes a plural verb (also seen in the sentences above) is the essence of concord in English sentences and concord (agreement between subject and verb) is very important in English syntax. For example in 3(i) the subject man is singular and so is the verb is. Sentences 3(iii) and 3(vi) are ungrammatical because they have plural subjects with singular verbs.

Concord is also a feature of the NP and runs throuth all that can constitute an NP that is, nouns and pronouns. This will be seen presently as we consider inflection in personal as well as demonstrative pronouns.

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Pronouns:

The personal as well as demonstrative pronouns are inflected for number.

Singular	Plural
I	we
you	you
he/she/it	they
this	these
that	those

It is only the 2nd person personal pronoun you that shows no change in the plural form. However, it has a plural in the reflexive. For example:

Singular	Plural
wash yourself	wash yourselves

Pronouns are also inflected in relation to case that is, whether the pronoun is used in the nominative, objective or genitive cases[1]. For example:

(4) (i) The house is mine.

(ii) This is my house

(iii) The house is built by me

(iv) I built the house.

me, my, mine, are all inflected forms of the first person personal pronoun I which is the form

functioning as subject, me is the object form while my and mine are the possessive forms representing the epithetic and predicative possessives respectively (see section ?)

The table below shows the various inflectional forms of the pronouns:

Nominative	Genitive	Objective
I	my (mine)	me
he	his	him
she	her(s)	her
who	whose	whom
you	yours	your

3.1.3. Tense Inflection:

Tense inflection in English affects the verb category. English verbs demonstrate inflection in the following ways:

(i) the infinitive - to talk

(ii) the -s (agreement morpheme or 3rd person singular) form -talks.

(iii) the -ing form (Present participle or gerundive)- talking.

(iv) the -ed form (past tense) -talked

(v) the -en form (past participle) - talked.

This is put in Tabular form.

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Table 4

Infinitive	3rd Person Singular form	Pres.Participle/ gerundive form	past tense	Past Participle form
to forgot	forgets	forgetting	forgot	forgotten
to invite	invites	inviting	invited	invited
to sink	sinks	sinking	sank	sunk
to walk	walks	walking	walked	walked
to kill	kills	killing	killed	killed
to wane	wanes	waning	waned	waned
to go	goes	going	went	gone
to have	has	having	had	had
to cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut
to think	thinks	thinking	thought	thoutht

It can be seen that verb inflection is not regular in all the tenses. The most regular inflections are, the third person singular form and the present participle/gerundive forms[1]. The infinitive is the base form of the word and so it remains the same while the past tense and the past participle show variations in their inflectional forms from verb to verb although their regular forms are (-ed) and (-en) respectively. English verbs can be roughly grouped into the two categorie

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of "strong" and "weak". The latter being more regular while the former is mostly irregular.

Concord is also an important consideration in English tense inflection. There is the 3rd person singular pronoun inflectional morpheme -s which must always be suffixed to verbs in the present tense. It demonstrates a peculiar case in concord. For example

(5) Here he comes.

In conditional statements, however, the 3rd person singular indicating the present may not take (-s) as in

(6) If he were here, things would take a better shape.

This shows mood as a syntactic consideration although its role in syntax is diminishing.

The only verb in English showing concord for all the three persons is be:

I am

you are

he is

am, are is being the various forms of the verb 'to be' in the present tense.

Besides the subject: verb concord, the tense used in a sentence must agree with the time of action and this agreement is morphologically indicated in the main

verb of the sentence. For example, an action that takes place before the moment of utterance is considered a past action and so the verb to denote such an action must be the past tense:

(7) He came here.

The verb <u>came</u> shows that the subject called sometime before the moment of utterance. See the paradigm below:

<u>Verb</u>	<u>Present tense form</u>	<u>Past tense form</u>
walk	walks	walked
talk	talks	talked
work	works	worked
touch	touches	touched
drop	drops	dropped
eat	eats	ate
go	goes	went
come	comes	came
have	has	had
rule	rules	ruled.

The perfective and progressive aspects while relating action to time, still demonstrate special features. The marker of the perfective aspect is <u>have</u> + (-en). See below:

(a) Present tense perfective aspect:

	Singular	Plural
1st person:	I have-en	we have -en
2nd "	You have -en	You have -en
3rd "	he/she/it has -en	they have-en.

(b) Present tense perfective aspect:

	Singular	Plural
1st person:	I had eaten	we had eaten
2nd "	You had eaten	You had eaten
3rd "	he/she/it had eaten	they had eaten.

The (-en) is suffixed to the main verb of the sentence to form the past participle of the verb. Thus the perfective aspect whether present or past takes the form:

have + past participle of the main verb

The progressive aspect marker, on the other hand, is 'to be' (present or past) plus the -ing (or present participle form of the main verb. Thus we have:

Present Progressive:

	Singular	Plural
1st person:	I am going	we are going
2nd "	you are going	you are going
3rd "	he/she/it is going	they are going

Past Progressive:

	Singular	Plural
1st person:	I was going	we were going
2nd "	you were going	you were going
3rd "	he/she/it was going	they were going

Thus, concord is an important consideration in tense and a primary function of the tense markers is to indicate time and aspect that is agreement in the time of action versus moment of utterance. Another function is to provide the correct form of a word in relation to other words in a syntactic string in order to form grammatical and acceptable sentences of English.

3.1.4. Degree endings:

Degree endings in adjectives and adverbs -er and -est also denote the importance of inflection in syntax. When two things are compared -er is used but with more than two things -est is used; as in:

8. (i) John is taller than James

(ii) John is taller than James but Harry is the tallest.

Hence -er is used for the comparative degree while -est is for the superlative degree. For example:

Adjectives:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
tall	taller	tallest
short	shorter	shortest
sharp	sharper	sharpest
bright	brighter	brightest
fast	faster	fastest
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful

Adverbs:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
often	oftener	oftenest
soon	sooner	soonest
vigorously	more vigorously	most vigorously

The lexical items more - and most - are the periphrastics used with adjectives/adverbs which do not take the regular (-er) and (-est) endings as in beautiful and vigorously above.

3.2. Derivation:

In chapter two, we have seen how the English language derives one form class from another by derivational suffixes. For example the suffix: (-en) form verbs from adjectives as in:

Adjectives	——— Verbals as in:
tight	tighten
wide	widen
quick	quicken
dark	darken

{-ly} forms adverbs from adjectives:

adjectives ———	adverbs
quick	quickly
slow	slowly
sluggish	sluggishly
weary	wearily
eery	eerily
cheerful	cheerfully
merry	merrily

{-al} forms adjectives from nouns:

nouns ———	adjectives
nature	natural
structure	structural
pasture	pastural

{-ish} forms adjectives from adjectives:

adjectives ———	adjectives
good	goodish
small	smallish
big	biggish
brown	brownish
red	reddish

-ness forms nouns from adjectives:

adjectives -----	nouns
tight	tightness
dark	darkness

-ion forms nouns from verbs:

verbals -----	nouns
act	action
generate	generation
ventilate	ventilation

The question to ask is, what is the syntactic role of this change in form class? One immediately sees that the first role involves a change in lexical category. This can be seen in adjectives changing to verbals, adverbs, nouns and so on. Such a change not only affects the function the words perform in a syntactic string (that is, either from a qualifying to a modifying word, or to an action word etc.) but also the collocation of such words in a string. For example:

(i) His quick steps were heard from the kitchen

(ii) *His quickly steps were heard from the kitchen

(iii) He walked quickly away from the scene.

A second role of the changes in form class can be seen in the change of a word from indicating state to showing a process as in tight - tightness above: below:

(i) The dress is tight on her.

(ii) The tightness of the situation distresses her.

Besides, there is a change from state to manner. For example:

quick: quickly above. This is of syntactic significance as the word changes from a qualifying word to word showing the manner in which an action is performed.

Lastly, there is the change from entity to state. The entities here are not arbitrary as they carry semantic implications. Thus, the various changes in form-class, besides having syntactic implications serve important semantic function as witnessed. where?

Many of the derivational prefixes in English indicate a negative notion as in .

{dis-} disunite, disengage

{un-} untie, undress.

The syntactic indication of these prefixes is not just the change in polarity but its absence/presence may lead to the deletion of certain particles and even,

choice of certain preposition. For example:

9. (i) The girl dressed up.

(ii) The girl undressed.

(iii) The boy engaged in administrative malpractices last year.

(iv) The boy has disengaged himself from such malpractices since last year.

Thus, with the use of {un-} in 9(ii) the preposition up is deleted while {dis-} in 9(iv) takes the preposition from instead of the in, in 9(iii) above.

Also the prefixes:

dis- in disappoint

un- " un-appoint

non- " non-appoint here rather than indicate a negative notion shows state or condition which is also a syntactic consideration.

3.3. Yoruba Derivations:

3.3.1. Reduplication: The derivation of one form class from another in Yoruba is not as extensive as the case is in English. Besides the derivation of nouns from verbs or verb phrases, Yoruba derives most of the other form classes by the process of reduplication. We shall therefore treat the syntactic implications of form classes in relation to reduplication.

The Yoruba language derives adjectives from verbs through the process of partial reduplication as in:

		verbs	adjectives
10.	(i)	ga 'tall'	giga 'that is tall'
	(ii)	dára 'to be good'	dídára 'that is good'
	(iii)	gbóna, 'to be hot'	gbígbóná 'that is hot'
	(iv)	jinná 'to be cooked'	jíjinná 'that is cooked'

The syntactic function is seen in the change of grammatical category:

Verb _____ gerundive nominal

ga giga

and Adjectives _____ qualitative adjective

dára didara

With full reduplication, a verb phrase is changed into a noun phrase as in:

Verb phrase	Noun phrase (agentive)
wolé 'look house'	wolówolé 'sanitary inspector
gbéni 'carry person'	gbénigbéni 'kidnapper'
pani 'kill person'	panipani 'murderer'

Here, the noun phrase becomes the agent.

Also, through the process of full reduplication

adverbial phrases of manner are formed from adjectives as in:

adjectives	adverbial phrases	
gìlọ̀	gìlọ̀gìlọ̀	'sluggishly'
kíá	kíákíá	'quickly'
wéré	wérewéré	'quickly'
fío	ffófío	'very high' (of)
màràn	màràmmàràn	'shining brightly'

Ideophones, in Yoruba, when fully reduplicated[2] denote two senses[3] (a) nominal (b) predicate as in:

		nominal	predicate
(11)	(i)		
(11)	(i) kàlòkàlò	gaming machine	manner of swallowing
	(ii) korokoro	toy	sound
	(iii) woroworo	toy	sound
	(iv) dànidàni	('somebody')	behaviour

so that the sense indicates its position in a sentence.

With some Yoruba ideophones a sort of concord appears indicating size and weight. For example:

(12) (i) bàmbà + reduplication — bàmbà:bàmbà
(ii) bọ̀mbọ̀ + " — bọ̀mbọ̀:bọ̀mbọ̀
(iii) gbànkù + " — gbànkù:gbànkù

With the reduplicated forms 13(i) - (iii) above the subject must be plural as they indicate the weight and size of many things. Also such ideophones must have low tone

as is evidenced from the tone marks on 13 (i)-(iii) above.

Poly-syllabic ideophones 14(i) - (iv) below also have the same implication as 13 above. Consider:

13. (i) fẹ̀rẹ̀gẹ̀dẹ̀ fẹ̀rẹ̀gẹ̀dẹ̀
(ii) bọ̀rọ̀kọ̀tọ̀ bọ̀rọ̀kọ̀tọ̀
(iii) bàkìtì bàkìtì
(iv) fẹ̀nfẹ̀ fẹ̀nfẹ̀

3.3.2. Prefixation:

The nominalising prefixes i-, a- as in ìjòkó 'seat', akọ̀wé 'secretary' besides changing the word class of a verb phrase to noun do not seem to perform any other syntactic function. Likewise the agentive prefix oni- of onídòdò 'owner/seller of fried plantain', besides indicating the agent, serves' no other syntactic purpose. The Yoruba derivational prefixes are therefore of semantic importance and so will be fully considered in the next chapter which treats morphology in relation to semantics.

NOTE:

The syntactic function of nominalisation can be seen in the realm of Yoruba names. For example: the names:

14. (i) Olúfúnmiláyọ̀: 'God gives me joy'.

(ii) Adébọ̀wálé: 'Crown returns home'.

(iii) Ọlátúnbọ̀sún: 'Honour increases'

(iv) Títílayọ̀: 'Joy continues for ever!

demonstrate that single words in Yoruba may contain the essentials of sentences - subject, verb, object. The names illustrate a sort of rank-shifting, that is, a word being analysed into groups. Consider the name: Olúfúnmiláyọ̀:

Olú 'God' is a noun

fún 'to give' is a verb

mi 'me' indirect object.

ní 'to have' (embedded sentence)

ayọ̀ 'joy' (direct object).

Thus, the NP, is Olú; VP fún and NP_2(s) miláyọ̀. The phrase structure is shown below:

FIGURE 2.



Here Yoruba names can be seen to demonstrate agglutinative features.

3.3.3. Word Linkage:

The internal morphemes (particles) -ki- 'any', -ti...de- 'from... to' and -ni- 'of' as in:

15. (i) ẹrankẹ́ran 'any animal whatsoever'

(ii) àtoṣùdóṣù 'from month to month'

(iii) ọmọọlọ́mọ 'a child of somebody else'

are syntactically important in linking two nouns together. They are also important in concord as none of the nouns so linked takes a plural verb. Consider:

15. Ẹrankẹ́ran tí ó bá wọlé ni kí ẹ mú

- 'lay hands on any animal that enters'.

The ẹrankẹ́ran signifies just one animal and so must take a singular verb.

3.4. From the foregoing analysis, it is clear that English morphology is more important in syntactic considerations. Both the inflectional and derivational suffixes contribute towards the syntactic realization of the English language. Inflectional suffixes, for example, the plural morpheme {-s}, the tense markers {-ed}, {-en}, {-ing} etc. as well as the degree endings {-er} and {-est} are of syntactic importance in the realm of number, concord, time/aspect and degree.

Most of the derivational suffixes are not regular and are also without clear syntactic functions. Nevertheless, some still have useful syntactic purposes. For example, the suffix -ly changes an adjective to an adverb thereby delimiting the use of a word like quickly to a modifying word.

Derivational prefixes, on the other hand, do not merely serve semantic functions but their presence may delete or replace certain particles in a syntactic string; as in:

17. (i) The hole is covered up

(ii) The hole is un-covered.

As for the Yoruba language, the process of reduplication is of syntactic importance in (a) the derivation of one form class from another, and (b) Concord. Name in Yoruba also demonstrates syntactic function in its agglutinating property although the language is not agglutinative to the extent that the Turkish language is. Prefixation in Yoruba is of semantic importance while the nominal linkers kí 'any', ti...dé etc., besides linking nouns are of syntactic importance in concord.[3] Gender is left out to be treated in chapter four below.

FOOTNOTES

1. These forms are the various forms of the present tense.

2. The function of reduplication allows the semantic extension.

3. Examples (11) - (13) are taken from Awoyale's seminar paper (already referred to above.)

4. There is no tense concord in Yorubaas the language is largely unmarked for past tense. Although Awobuluyi (oral discussion) claims that the high tone on vowels indicate past tense in Yoruba as in Ojo pa yerepe deni akọlu. I do not agree that the high tone on a of pa indicates 'past-ness'. Infact the tone should be mid not high. It is context that dictates the tense of action in Yoruba. Consider Ojo pa a 'The rain beat him' a is the pronoun (referring to the person the rain beat). It does not actually refer to tense. Pa refers to the action which from context denotes past.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0. Function of morphology within semantics:

Semantics[1], as a field of study, is becoming increasingly popular as each word either on its own or in a syntactic string (be it a content or a function word) has a sort of semantic importance attached to it. The meaning so attached may be contextual, denotative, connotative or collocative. An obvious criterion here is polarity, that is, a change of meaning from positive to negative particularly due to the prefixing of certain morphemes, for example un- to other morphemes in English and the prefixing of àì- to morphemes of the Yoruba language.

In this chapter, therefore, we shall consider the semantic relevance of the following processes in English (i) derivational suffixes, (ii) derivational prefixes, (iii) gender (iv) diminutives (v) approximatives and (vi) compounding in that order.

As for the Yoruba language, the semantic functions of (i) reduplication, (ii) agentive prefix onì- (iii) the negative prefix àì- , (iv) compounding and calqueing will be treated. It will be seen that the primary function of these processes is to explicate meaning and in fact Yoruba morphology serves more semantic functions than English morphology. This will be evidenced when the processes are considered below.

4.1. Semantic Functions: In looking at morphology from the view-point of semantics, I hope to treat the relevant processes in the English language first. Then, I shall treat the relevant processes in Yoruba.

4.1.1. Derivational suffixes. Some of the relevant suffixes here are {-er}, {-al}, {-ist}, {-ian}, {-ster}, {-eer}, {-less}, {-or}, {-ess}, {-ee}, {-ed}, {-ø} - which can be grouped into three according to the semantic functions they perform.

(1) strictly agentive suffixes: These are:-

{-er} as in:

seller

farmer

occupier

examiner

executioner

mender

painter

{-al}

professional

rival

{-ist}

racist

violinist

stylist

typist

{-ian} logician

physician

magician

technician

mathematician

{-ster}

gangster

gamester

trickster

songster

{-eer}

engineer

profiteer

racketeer

pamphleteer

The above suffixes indicate the 'doer' or performer' of an action.

(ii) Suffix indicating gender:

The suffix here is (-ess) which not only indicates 'doer' but also the 'sex' of the doer as in:

masculine	feminine
manager	manageress
poet	poetess
host	hostess
headmaster	headmistress
steward	stewardess.

It can be seen that where there is no regular morpheme to indicate the masculine gender the feminine gender suffix (-ess) is more regular.

(iii) Patient suffixes[2]

The suffixes here indicate the 'sufferer' rather than the 'doer' of the action as the objects concerned have the actions performed on them. The suffixes involved are {-ee}

employee

detainee

{-ed}

deceased

beloved

unemployed

wretched

hated

{-Ø}

rich

poor

dead

sick

{-less}

homeless

jobless

lifeless

hopeless

One can see that these suffixes[3] are significant semantically in denoting the 'doer' or the 'patient sufferer' of an action.

4.1.2. Derivational Prefixes: Here we shall consider (i) prefixes which change polarity, (ii) prefixes of motion, (iii) prefix of repetition or re-occurrence.

(i) Prefixes which change polarity: Polarity which involves a change in meaning from positive to negative is an important consideration in semantics and the English language makes use of many of its prefixes to effect this change. The prefixes thus used are:-

{un-}, as in:

unable

unsatisfactory

unattended

unjust

undesirable

{in-}

insane

ineffective

inadequate

inadvertent

incomplete

The prefix {in-} changes to il- before /l/ as in:

illegal

illegible

illogical

illiterate

im- before labials:

immoral

impossible

impure

in- before velars k/g

inconsequential

incogruent

ir- before /r/

irregular

irreparable

irreconcilable

irrefragable

{dis-}

dislike

disunite

disclaim

disabled

dismember

{anti-}

antichrist

anticrime

antipathy

antidote

anti-unity.

{a-}

amoral

apolitical

asymmetry

{de-}

decode

defrost

desegregate

deflate

deforestation

{ex-}

expatriate

expel

ex-president

{non-}

non-operative

non-conformist

non-smoker

non-polician.

(ii) Prefixes of Motion:

{in-}

inflate

influx

inflow

infiltrate

{on-}

on-going

on-coming

{out-}

out-going

out-cast

(iii) Prefix of re-occurrence or repetition:

{re-}

re-do

re-pay

re-play

repair

repeat

remount.

The prefixes treated except in- as in inflate and re- are involved in changing the polarity of words from positive to negative. Thus, they are used in place of the English negator not. {in-} and {re-}, however, demonstrate that prefixes are not only meant for negating ideas but that prefixes can perform other semantic roles. For more detail see chapter 2 page .

4.1.3. Gender[4]

Gender in English is not as elaborately marked as in some other languages like Latin, German and French where it performs syntactic functions. It is true that English gender performs certain syntactic roles but not to the same extent as we have in Latin, German and French. Gender denotes the grouping of words into masculine, feminine and neuter depending on whether they are male, female or without sex. In English there is the masculine and feminine genders. The neuter gender (present in Latin) is not clearly marked in the English language. It is the inflectional ending that distinguishes the feminine gender from the masculine gender. In German the structural words 'doer' and 'die' [Lyons: 1968] distinguish masculine construction from a feminine one whereas in English it is the morpheme marker {-ess} that distinguishes the feminine from the masculine gender as in:

Masculine	Feminine
count	countess
duke	dutchess
Prince	Princess
mister	mistress

Other sporadic markers are {-ine}, {-ette}, {-a} as in:

Masculine	Feminine
Joseph	Josephine
Paul	Pauline
Usher	Usherette
major	majorette
suffrage	suffragette
Albert	Alberta

The pronoun 'it' marks the neuter gender in English but there are neither derivative nor inflectional morphemes to mark the gender.

4.1.4. Diminutives:

These are words with transferred meanings usually determined linguistically by an accompanying form. [5] For example, the suffix {-let} as in:

eye	eyelet
star	starlet
leaf	leaflet
eagle	eaglet
brace	bracelet

{-ling}

duck	duckling
goose	gosling

{-kin}

cat	catkin

The semantic function of the diminutives is to reflect the size of the base word. For example:

owl-let is a small owl

eye-let - small hole (eye) for rope, thread etc. to pass through.

leaflet - a small pamphlet.

etc.

4.1.5. Approximatives:[6] These show how close the particular state is to the standard form of the notion or object. The suffix -ish is always used for this semantic purpose. For example:

Adjectives	Noun
small	smallish
brute	brutish
boy	boyish
girl	girlish
big	biggish
good	goodish

The suffix (-ish) therefore indicates the degree of smallness, bigness etc.

4.1.6. I Compounding:

Another important morphological process relevant to English semantics is the process of compounding. Here we shall consider (i) the noun-noun-combination, (ii) Adjective - noun combination and (iii) repetitive compounds.

(i) Noun - Noun Combination: Here two nouns are combined to form a word with each of the nouns in isolation contributing its individual meaning to make the meaning of the combination. For example:

school-room

workhouse

classroom

penknife

milkman

Ice cream.

(ii) Adjective - Noun Combination: The examples here are:

black-bird

white-cap

red-coat

long-nose

short-horn.

(iii) Repetitive Compounds: These have minor phonetic differences called "rhyme motivation" as in:

film flam

zig zag

pell-mell

fuzzy wuzzy

It must be noted that, for a combination in English to be referred to as a compound word, there must be a high stress on the first member of the word (noun, verb, adjective etc.). Where the two words are equally stressed, the semantic difference stands out as the combination with only one high stress marks a single word (compound) while the one, with two high stresses marks a two-word phrase. For example the word black-bird[7]

'black bird - bird of a particular specie.

'black 'bird - a bird with black colour.

II. Pseudo-compound Verbs: These are of diachronic importance as content is the criterion of derivational relationship between the words. For example:

typewrite is derived from typewriter

brainwash is derived from brainwashing

proofread is derived from proofreading

logroll is derived from logrolling

babysit is derived from babysitting.

This diachronic analysis for the derivation of the above words is important semantically since, for example: typewrite does not mean 'write in type' instead the correct analysis is use a 'typewriter'. Interpretation of the other pseudo-compound verbs listed above likewise have recourse to the semantic features of the agent or verbal substantives (typewriter, brainwashing etc.) from which they are derived.

In connection with semantics, therefore, the English language makes use of derivational suffixes and prefixes. Some of the semantic functions of these affixes are:

(a) Suffixes:

(i) to indicate the agent/doer of an action as in {-er}, {-al}, {-ist} etc.

(ii) to indicate gender -ess

(iii) to indicate the sufferer of an action -ee

(b) Prefixes:

(i) to change polarity of words from positive to negative for example un-

(ii) to indicate motion on-

(iii) to show re-occurence re-

(iv) to reflect size as in the diminutives

(v) to reflect the standard state of an object as in the approximatives.

(c) In compounding we have the combined words contributing their individual meanings to the interpretation of the compound which is a useful semantic function.

4.2.0. Yoruba Morphological Processes relevant to Semantics:

As noted above, Yoruba uses morphological processes in a semantic rather than syntactic way. This will be seen as we treat the relevant processes. The processes to be considered are: (i) reduplication (ii) prefixation: (a) the agentive prefixes[8] {oni-}{a,ò, ọ, ì, (b) the negative prefix {àì- }, (iii) phenomenon of calqueing and (iv) compounding.

4.2.1. Reduplication: Reduplication in Yoruba does not serve the purpose of forming one form class from another only, it also plays significant semantic roles. One of such functions is intensification or emphasis. This can be seen in reduplicated ideophones like - were - wérewere, làntì - làntì lánti, jàlá - jàlájàlá etc.

1. (i) wérewére 'quickly'
   (ii) làntìlanti 'very big'
   (iii) jàlájàlá 'not steady' 'wearily'

as in the sentences:

2. (i) Ó se iṣẹ́ ná wéréwéré 'He did the work quickly'

(ii) Ó rí làǹtìlaǹti 'It looks very big'

(iii) Ó sáré jàlájàlá 'He ran wearily'

A second semantic function of reduplication is to show distribution as in:

3. (i) méjìméjì 'two by two'

(ii) mẹ́tamẹ́ta 'three by three'

for example:

4.(i) Wọ́n ṣe iṣẹ́ na ní méjìméji - they did the work two by two.

(ii) Wọ́n pín isu na ní mẹ́tamẹ́ta 'they took three each out of the yams'.

Besides, partial reduplication conveys performative meaning as in:

	Nominals	Reduplicated Form	
5. (i)	ìṣọ́nà	sísọ́nà	'act of watching'
(ii)	ìtajà	títajà	'act of selling'
(iii)	ìjokó	jíjoko	'act of sitting
(iv)	ìdúró	dídúró	'act of standing'

4.2.2. (a) The Agentive Prefixes: 'a ?, 'o ?, 'ọ ?, 'i ? and 'oni- ? are the agentive prefixes in Yoruba. They all indicate the 'doer' of an action. For example:

(i) apẹja 'a fisherman'

(ii) òsìṣẹ́ 'a worker'

(iii) ọ̀mùtí 'a drunkard'

(iv) ìkọ̀wé 'pen'

(v) ìjòkó 'seat'

(vi) onibata 'one who sells shoes

The prefix {i-} rather than indicate the doer, indicates the instrument used. {Oni-}, on the other hand, has a wider semantic significance than mere indication of, the 'doer'. It indicates the 'owner of as well as the one who prepares or makes the item (though not always). For example:-

6. (i) seller - one who sells

(ii) occupier - one who occupies

(iii) doer - one who does things

(iv) driver - one who drives a vehicle.

The English agentive suffixes -er , -ist as in driver, and typist etc. can be compared with the Yoruba prefixes {a- {ọ̀ {ọ- and {ì- in (i-iv) above in that they all indicate the 'doer' of an action but with the various meanings that the Yoruba agentive prefix oni- represents, the English language has no direct equivalence. Consider:

aláṣọ - 'seller/owner of cloths'

in

mú aṣọ fún aláṣọ 'return cloth to owner/seller'

In English one will say 'owner of' not 'clother' which would have been the translational equivalent of the Yoruba alásọ. Really, instead of referring to oni- as the agentive prefix one can call it an 'associative' prefix as the person is always associated with the object. Thus, while Yoruba has just one prefix to cover 'the seller/owner/even the one who prepares' English agentive prefixes indicate the doer only.

4.2.3. The Negative Prefix àì-[9] The morpheme àì- in Yoruba indicates a change of meaning from positive to negative. For example:

8. (i) jòkó 'sit' àìjòkó 'not sitting'
   (ii) jẹun 'eat' àìjẹun 'not eating'
   (iii) dúró 'wait' àìdúró 'not waiting'
   (iv) lọ 'go' àìlọ 'not going'

This is its primary semantic function and as polarity is of much significance in semantics the prefix àì- occupies the unique position of changing, polarity in Yoruba:

àì- un is also semantically important in indicating inability to finish or end an action or activity as in:

9. (i) àbùùbùtán 'taking but not being able to finish taking all of a thing'.

(ii) àṣéesetán 'doing but not being able to do all'

(iii) àmọ̀ọnmọ̀tán 'knowing but not being able to know all'

àbùùbùtán is analysed below to see that the second vowel in each of 9(i) - (iii) is àì-.

àbùùbùtán. 'the inexhaustible'

(i) bùtán. 'finish taking'

(ii) àbùtán (à nominalises bùtán). 'easily exhaustible'

(iii) *ìbùtán (the form is not usual in standard Yoruba; ì is also a nominalising prefix)

negation (iv) àìbùtán 'having not finished taking.

Reduplication and assimilation: àbùùbùtán.

Note: kò is a lexical item that also negates an action. It corresponds to the English not as it is never prefixed to a word. It always stands as an item in the syntactic string, and so it is not used in the derivation of words like àbùùbùtán etc.

4.2.4. Phenomenon of Calqueing:

This is another morphological process in Yoruba that has semantic implications. It is part of naming. Here the function is conceptual as the literal meaning of the name is suppressed and we have the idiomatic meaning. For example, the name Adégoróyè means

'one who arrives to ascend the throne'. But, we do not have the situation of a 'crown' or a 'person' with the name `Ade' ascending the throne. We are only reminded of the tradition from which the name comes up. Similar explanations can be given for other names like:

11. (i) Ọlátúnjí - 'honour re-awakes'.

(ii) Ọlábísí - 'honour increases'

(iii) Asooremásìkà - 'one who does good without doing any ill'.

(iv) ilèifowópamọ́sí - 'bank' or 'house where one keeps money' (literally).

With calqueing, therefore, a whole sentence is compressed into one word. One, thus, finds himself in a grey area between syntax and morphology because if the names are analysed, the result is an extreme kind of Halliday's rank shifting which is a syntactic rather than morphologic analysis. Consider:

Ọlátúnjí - 'honour re-awakes'

Ọlá - is an abstract noun.
'honour'

tún - is an adverb
'once more'

jí - is a verb.

The words here, do not yield morphemes but word groups, that is, subject, verb, modifier.

One may begin to wonder, if the morphemes can be thrown around regardless of syntax. With proper names like Adegoroye, Ọlatunji etc. above it is impossible for example, names like:

*Tunọlaji

*Tunjiọla

*Goroadeye

*Aderoyego

do not exist in Yoruba. However, pet names and descriptive words like Asoremásìkà, and ilẹ́ifowópamọ́sí above may, to a very limited extent have their morphemes thrown around. For example:

12. (i) Asooremásìkà - 'one who does good without doing ill'

(ii) asìkàmásoore - 'one who does ill, without doing any good'.

(iii) asooresìkà - 'one who does good and evil simultaneously'.

(iv) asìkàsoore - 'one who does evil and good simultaneously'.

13. (i) ilẹ́ifowópamọ́sí - 'house where money is always kept'

(ii) *ilẹ́epowómọ́sí - 'house where money is kept

(iii) ileipowonọ - 'house where money keeps'

Note (13) (ii) is possible but (iii) is better.

It can be seen that with 12 (i) - (iv) the semantic implication changes with each re-arrangement of the morphemes that make up the word asọ́ọremásìkà while 13 (i) - (iii) retains the same meaning.

Thus, the process of calqueing is semantically important. It not only gives the conceptual meaning of words but also links morphology with syntax in compressing a whole sentence into a single word.

4.2.5. Compounding:

The usual way of compounding in Yoruba is the combination of two nouns to form a single word and the most regular of these noun-noun constructions[10] are those whose meanings can be deduced from the meanings of their constituent nouns. That is, each of the nouns in the construction contributes its ordinary lexical meaning in isolation to the combined semantic interpretation. This is a highly productive device in the language. For example:

14. (i) etí - ilé 'near house'
'near' 'house'

(ii) aṣọ - ebí 'family dress'
'cloth' 'relation'

(iii) ọwọ́ - irọ̀lẹ́ 'towards evening'
'hand' 'evening'

(iv) ilé - ìwé 'school'
'house' 'book'

(v) ilé Àìná 'Aina's house'

(vi) etí - ajá 'dog's ear(s)'

(vii) ìwé - orí 'tax - receipt'
'book' 'head'

(ix) Olú Ọlọpa 'Olu, the policeman'
'Olu' 'Policeman'

(x) Bọ́sẹ̀ akọ̀wé 'Bọsẹ, the secretary'.
'Bọsẹ' 'secretary'

From 14 (i) - (x) it can be seen that compounding in Yoruba serves significant semantic roles. They do not merely describe (i - iv) but also show possession either ordinarily like (v) ile-Aina 'Aina's house' or idiomatically as in (viii) ìwé-orí 'tax-receipt'. Thirdly, the noun - noun compounds can denote appositive construction or show the type of work a person does as in (ix) Olu, Ọlọpa - 'Olu, the Policeman'.

From the foregoing, the semantic functions of the Yoruba morphological processes can be briefly stated as:

(a) use of reduplication for intensification or emphasis, distribution, performative interpretation and repetition.

(b) use of the agentive prefix 'oni-' to indicate 'owner/seller of an item' - which is of wider semantic significance than the English -er , -ist etc.

(c) use of the negator 'ai-' (i) in changing the polarity of a word and (ii) in causing partial or internal reduplication in certain performative words as in abuubutan.

(d) use of calqueing to denote the conceptual meaning of names, for example Adegoroye. and

(e) the use of compounding in showing possession and denoting nouns in apposition.

4.3. From the above, it is clear that both the English and the Yoruba languages make use of morphological processes to serve semantic functions. The English language employs suffixes, prefixes, compounding, Pseudo-compounds, diminutives and approximatives for semantic purposes while the Yoruba language uses prefixation, reduplication, calqueing and compounding for the same purpose. One must however, note that the Yoruba processes have wider semantic significance than the English language whose morphological processes lean more towards syntax.[11]

FOOTNOTES

1. Semantics here is taken to be the derivational processes outside syntax.

2. The term 'patient' is suggested by Awoyale (University of Ilorin, oral discussion, 1979).

3. It should be noted that the stem of the suffixes are not easy to predict. This is peculiar to the English language. Another thing is that the suffix -er is more productive than the other agentive suffixes.

4. In English the selection of the pronouns he and she divides the personal nouns into the categories of male and female which stand for the important genders of the language.

5. Marchand, H., Studies in English Syntax and Word-formation (Munchen, 1974)

6. The term 'approximatives' is suggested by Banjo (University of Ibadan, Oral discussion, 1978).

7. Some words may not show, this semantic difference e.g. ice-cream, 'Ice Cream' but the fact remains that one is compound and the other a phrase. See Bloomfield, (1933; P.224 - 232).

8. There are other prefixes in Yoruba but oni- and ai- are the two I consider most significant semantically.

9. As laready mentioned in chapter 2, the n of the agentive prefix oni- changes to l before oral vowels, the o is replaced by the initial vowel of the noun, while assimilation and contraction deletes i as in alakara

o + ni + akara.

o + li + akara.

replacement + l + i + akara

a deletion

contraction and assimilation

alakara.

10. See chapter 2 footnote 1a. Although Adeleke, T. in his paper: Ayewo igbekale oro ni ede Yoruba (Long Essay, Dept. of Ling. and Nigerian Languages 1979) p.17-29, contended that ai is a single morpheme I insist they are two nominalising morphemes that always combine, to form the Yoruba negator a+i (ai- 'un'-). Each cannot negate on its own but they must always go with one another.

11. Compounding in Yoruba has been referred to as noun - noun construction by Owolabi, D. K., in his Ph.D. thesis: Noun - Noun Construction in Yoruba: A syntactic and semantic analysis (Ibadan University Press, 1976).

12. This is seen in Chapter 3 below which treats the role of morphology within syntax.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0. This work tried to probe, intensively and extensively, into the English and Yoruba modes of word-formation on a contrastive basis. It has been able to point out those morphological processes that are common to both languages and those ones that are not. It has also dealt at length with such processes as are most productive in each of the languages. At this juncture, therefore, it is necessary to sum up, make inferences and suggestions for future students of linguistics, particularly in the field of morphology.[1]

5.1. Summary:

One important task of the author in the foregoing chapters was to establish and justify the point that morphology as a field of linguistic study is of equal importance to the other fields - phonology, syntax and semantics which linguists concentrate on these days. The relevance of word-formation to grammar is seen in two ways. First, the rules by which words are constructed help us to recognize the grammatical class of a word by its structure; for example, one is able to say that the word organization is a noun from the fact that it ends in the suffix -tion. To take a Yoruba example, the

word ìjòkó:- 'seat' is a noun as it starts with the Yoruba nominalising prefix ì-. Secondly, the rules teach us that there is a flexibility in the application of grammatical rules in that, words may be transferred with or without the addition of affixes to a new grammatical class as in:

convict' - verb.

'convict - noun.

singsonged - verb.

An example in Yoruba is the derivation of the adjective gíga - 'that is tall' from the verb ga 'to be tall'.

Another important finding concerns the way the two languages combine morphemes to form words. While the English language makes use of affixation (both suffixation, prefixation and conversion - dealing with zero forms) in the formation of words, the Yoruba language uses prefixation and reduplication.

Also, where the English language makes a very productive use of inflections to mark tense, number, and case, the Yoruba language is never inflected.
The fact of Yoruba not being inflected is one of its peculiar characteristics as a language but this does not reduce its importance or usefulness for study.

Both the English and the Yoruba languages use derivational prefixes (i) to change the polarity of words for example:

unjust in English

àìmọ́ in Yoruba,
'not clean'

(ii) to indicate motion as in:

on-going

out-going

in-coming of English and the partially reduplicated:

lílọ 'act of going'

bíbọ̀ 'act of coming'

rínrìn 'act of walking'

sísáré 'act of running'

of Yoruba.

Derivational prefixes in English do not change the form-class of a word while they may do in Yoruba, for example, the reduplicative prefix gi- in gíga 'that is tall' changes the form class of ga from verb to adjective.

Unlike prefixes, derivational suffixes in English, frequently alter the word-class of the base. For example, the adjective kind, if the suffix -ness is added, becomes kindness which is an abstract noun.[3]

Another finding, worthy of note is the fact that tone marking in Yoruba serves important semantic functions particularly in disambiguating certain words, for example names[4], and words which without the accent marks cannot be easily assigned a meaning. The tone marking is, however, not concerned with a change in word-class, it only signals semantic differences. The English language, on the other hand, marks this semantic difference with a shift of stress in the words concerned and usually the stress shift indicates a change in word-class particularly from verb to noun. Here, verbs of two syllables are differentiated from nouns with a stress shift from the second to the first syllable, as in:

verb	noun
con'vict	'convict
con'duct	'conduct
pro'duce	'produce
trans'fer	'transfer
re'fund	'refund
dis'card	'discard
dis'count	'discount

Lastly, it is found out that although morphology exists as a separate field of linguistic study, it still

demonstrates a link with the other fields - phonology, syntax and semantics as they, together, constitute the 'grammar' of any language.

5.2. Inferences:

Having gone through the study, some readers may think that there is no point in contrasting the morphology of English and Yoruba since there is no genetic relationship between the languages and Yoruba does not exhibit as many complexities as English (particularly by way of inflection). Some may infer that Yoruba is the only Nigerian language that demonstrates any morphological feature that is note-worthy. Such assumptions, however, would be incorrect. As already pointed out, the choice of Yoruba was based on my familiarity with the language as a native speaker; the study is simply one in a series of contrastive works between English and Nigerian languages and must be regarded as such.

Some of the important conclusions to be drawn here are first, that where English makes exhaustive use of inflectional and derivational suffixes in its morphology, it is seen that Yoruba has no such morphological process. In reduplication, for example:-

(a) Partial reduplication as in.

fẹ̀rẹ̀gẹ̀dẹ̀	fẹ̀rẹ̀gẹ̀dẹ̀dẹ̀
bùrùkùtù	bùrùkùtùtù
bìrìkìtì	bìrìkìtìtì

(b) Full reduplication as in:

pani	panipani
tanni	tannitanni

the reduplicated morphemes are suffixed to the root morpheme. This is, however, different from the inflectional and derivational suffixes of the English language. Suffixation in Yoruba reduplication is a separate process of word formation like the process of compounding. The absence of both inflectional and derivational suffixes in Yoruba only make Yoruba a less synthetic language than English. Also, where English derives adverbs from verbs, Yoruba does not have a systematic way of doing this; rather, it derives adjectives from verbs by the process of reduplication. Really, while in English the derivation of one form-class from another is pervasive, for example verbs can be derived from nouns, adjectives etc. for example:

(i)	nouns	verbs
	author	authorize
	character	characterize
(ii)	verbs	adjectives
	beautify	beautiful

This process is very limited in Yoruba - where the only productive form class derivation is confined to the derivation of adjectives from verbs.

To some extent, the study helps in determining word classes in Yoruba particularly if one considers (i) the change of class involved in partially reduplicated words like ga (verb) - giga (adjective), (ii) the change of form class involved when prefixes, for example, ì, à etc. are added to verb: (phrases) to form nouns as in:

verb	noun
joko 'to sit'	ìjoko 'seat'
kọ̀wé 'to write'	ìkọ̀wé 'pen'
kọ̀wé 'to write'	akọ̀wé 'secretary'
pẹja 'to fish'	apẹja 'fisherman'

According to the findings, the English language makes more syntactic use of its morphology. This is seen in the use of various markers to denote number, tense, aspect, gender, concord and even case. The Yoruba language however, makes productive use of semantics in its morphology. This is evidenced in the wider semantic range of the agentive preffix _oni-_ covering both the 'seller/owner of' and at times 'the one who prepares' the item.[6] There is also the semantic significance of calqueing, naming, reduplication and the other processes in Yoruba.

5.3. As the study is contrastive in nature (although not for the purpose of pedagogy) one can state that the English language has played the vital role of a base language whose morphological processes are used to dig out the morphological processes of the Yoruba language both for the purposes of comparison and contrast. The English language is seen to be more synthetic a language than Yoruba due to its inflectional nature. Yoruba, on the other hand, is an isolating language with some agglutinative features particularly common in the realm of names. In spite of the fact that the study is pursued for its academic value, it will serve a useful

function in pedagogy. The textbook writers will be able to diagnose areas that are likely to present difficulties to the Yoruba learners of English (for example the various inflectional endings; the derivational suffixes, the fact that there cannot always be one-to-one translational equivalence from one language to the other, etc.), and write English textbooks that will meet the needs of learners of the languages.

Besides, I believe this work in Yoruba morphology will be an eye-opener to future Yoruba linguists especially those who may be interested in the area of morphology. It will serve as a base for further research. The study will also contribute in no small measure to facilitating more research into the syntax, phonology and semantics of the Yoruba language. It is true that works already exist on some of these fields of linguistic study in Yoruba, but some controversial issues may be resolved if the morphological processes mentioned in the previous chapters are carefully studied. For example, whether words are to be classified according to functions distribution, etc.

Finally, I would like to say that the research has justified the choice of the descriptive, formal, scientific and taxonomic (or analytic) model as the morphological level is not accorded recognition in TG. Really, in spite of the various models of grammatical description that exist, one can conclude from this study that the one best suited to morphology is the analytic model because it deals with word rather than sentence analysis.

I would like to add that there should be more meaningful, intensive and extensive research conducted on this field in other Nigerian languages as well. That further research in the other areas of linguistic study should also be carried on with more vigour in all the Nigerian languages. This will help in creating a standard for the languages and also the languages will be accorded recognition and wider currency like the other major languages of the world particularly English, French and German.

As stated in the introduction, there is an urgent need for more research between English and the Nigerian languages and the present study should be considered as an integral part of a larger programme that will stimulate further research in linguistics.

FOOTNOTES

1. As the present study, though contrastive, is not for its pedagogic value, hierarchies of difficulties for learners will not be dealt with, although mention may be made of its usefulness to pedagogy especially in the case of Yoruba students of English.

2. Derivational morphology helps us to recognize from the on-set, to which form-class a particular word belongs. This is through the use of its various suffixes treated above.

3. The Yoruba language has no suffixes that can equate the English derivational or inflectional suffixes. in this category

4. See Chapter one Section 1.1. Pp. 4 - 6.

5. See Chapter three above.

6. See Chapter four above.

7. I realise the importance of 'hierachies of difficulty' in contrastive studies but I do not go into it in the present study because the study is purely theoretical. It is not for pedagogic purpose although pedagogy may also benefit from it.

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