

**A Comparative Morphological Analysis of Lamnsó and the
English Compound Words**

By

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DECLARATION

I, WIRYEN FLORENCE NDZE hereby declare that this thesis is my personal Work. All other works consulted have been duly acknowledged by the references.

Student's Name

Signature

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis titled; ‘A Comparative Morphological Analysis of Lamnsó and English Compound Words’ by Wiryen, Florence Ndze meets the regulations governing the award of a Master of Arts Degree in the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and it is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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DEDICATION

This Work is dedicated to the Holy Spirit, who is the Supreme Author of this Work.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

To God be the Glory for without him, the successful completion of this work wouldn't have been possible. The Almighty God has really stood by me and has turned my night to day.

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Abstract

A morphological analysis is crucial for language structures and patterns to be understood. The growing need for linguistic analysis has triggered a lot of research and analysis of natural languages. Lamnsó Linguists are waking up to this call and this Research titled A Comparative Morphological Analysis of Lamnsó and English Compound Words is one of such efforts. The researcher was motivated by the fact that Lamnsó is still very understudied and underdeveloped. Also the Lamnsó lexicon by Karl Grebe does not have compound words and this can make one to feel that Lamnsó is void of compound words. In this regard, the compound words were carefully put together by the researcher while at the same time describing and explaining the morphological structures and patterns. This whole idea was geared towards realizing or coming up with a systematic morphological data that could develop, document, and preserve the language, and thus rescue it from dying out. This Lamnsó data is compared with that of the English language to bring out similarities and differences. The English language data was gathered from both primary and secondary sources while the lamnsó data is framed based on Lamnsó that is spoken in Bui Division, in the North West Region of Cameroon. The morphological analysis also incorporates syntactic, semantic, and Pragmatic elements. The Lamnsó patterns and structures fit into the universal criteria and this has enabled a comparative study of this magnitude to be successfully carried out on this two language systems. The English compound types are endocentric, exocentric, copulative, and appositional while the Lamnsó types are linked, composed, Juxtaposed, and the phrasal compounds. Lamnsó compound realization involves the compounding of two lexemes which may or may not be independent and also via reduplication. The Lamnsó orthography used in this work is taken from Grebe (2008). This work has been able to identify, examine, classify, and analyse lamnsó compound words. The study has established and proven the functions of the Lamnsó compounds as compound nouns, compound verbs, compound adjectives, adverbs, etc. Hence, they are meaningful lexical elements and can have their own dictionary entries.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. 0. Introduction

This chapter is the opening chapter which introduces the research and it encompasses the following; the linguistic background to the study, the geographical background to the study, the statement of the research problem, the research questions, the aims and objectives of the study, the justification of the study, the significance of the study, the scope and delimitation, and the definition of terms used in the work.

1.1. Linguistic Background to the Study.

In describing any language, these four facets are considered: Morphology, Syntax, Phonology, and Semantics. Morphology as a branch of Linguistics seeks to identify, analyse and describe the morphemes, and other linguistic units such as roots, affixes, parts of speech etc of a given language. According to Malmkjaer (1991: 422), “the term morphology has been used by linguists for over a century, although opinions have varied as to precise definitions of the subject-area and its scope.”

A word and a sentence are considered to be at the centre of linguistic analysis. These two units form the basis of different writing systems in various languages of the world. Syal and Jindal (2001:59). This idea was first propounded by the traditional grammarians as evident from their earlier studies carried out on the classical languages (Greek and Latin). Morphology as a level of linguistic analysis takes its root from traditional grammar which portrays the classical languages as having ‘rich’ inflectional patterns.

In spite of the fact that the word is instrumental to any morphological/linguistic analysis, it has so far eluded a standard definition Matthews, (1974: 3). Morphological analysis according

to Haspelmath (2002: 89) is “the breaking up of words into parts and establishing rules that govern the co-occurrence of these parts.” For example, the words cat and cats are closely related but separated by the plural morpheme /s/. This plural morpheme is bound to nouns because it does not make meaning on its own. Similarly, rat is to rat catcher as dish is to dish washer in one sense. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns, or regularities, in the way he/she forms words from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. Malmkjaer (1991: 423). Lamnsó which is one of the indigenous languages of Cameroon also lends self to easy morphological analysis and the following examples of compound words are a demonstration of this. The Lamnsó compound word ‘*mfookinómelu*’ (borrower drinker wine) i.e. (a drunkard who drinks on credit). This word can be morphologically analysed by breaking it down into its constituent morphemes as ‘*mfoo* + *kinó* + *melu*.’ The root word here is ‘*melu*’ (wine), the morpheme ‘*kinó*’ (drinker) is a stem as well as a root because there is a word called ‘*kinómelu*’ (drinker wine) i.e. (drunkard) and ‘*mfoo*’ (borrower) is the modifying morpheme here. This definition does not however emphasise on the internal structures of words. Some morphological theorists play down on the word but others see the word as an important unit. That is why Allerton, (1979: 47) defines morphology as “the description of morphemes and their patterns of occurrence within the word.”

As demonstrated in the above morphological analysis, there is an intercourse between Morphology, Phonology, Syntax, and Semantics. This implies that the mental lexicon of a native speaker is composed of phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic information. The native speaker of any language knows how to use language in conformity with the rules governing such use at all levels.

1.2. Geographical Background to the Study

Lamsó is one of the indigenous languages in Cameroon and it is spoken by the Nsó people, also known as the Bansó people. It is also spoken by friends and well wishers from within and outside the country as seen in Grebe and Grebe, (1984). Cameroon is very rich in indigenous languages. Breton and Fohitung (1991: 11) say that there are 248 languages indentified in Cameroon. The present lamnso' alphabet in use was developed by a Canadian Linguist, Mr. Karl H. Grebe in 1984 and later revised in 2008, Grebe, (2008:7) (See Appendix 1). According to Trudell (2004:3), "Lamnso' has about 250,000 native speakers within the homeland and many others in the Diaspora. But presently, this number can be to the nearest 800,000 homeland speakers with many others in the Diaspora (Wiryen, Upcoming). Lamnso' is spoken in the greater part of Bui Division, which is 150 km away from Bamenda, the Capital of the North West Region of the Republic of Cameroon. It is spoken in three out of the five Sub Divisions that make up Bui Division. These three Sub Divisions are: Kumbo, Jakiriand Mbvæn Sub Divisions. It is also spoken in Nigeria, specifically in the Sarduana Local Government Area of Taraba State. Lamnso' according to Welmers (1973: 159), belongs to the Ring subgroup which is subsumed under the Grassfield branch of the Southern Bantoid languages. According to him, Kom, Oku, Aghem, Babanki and Noni are other Cameroonian languages that belong to the same subgroup as Lamnso'. Stallcup (1980) cited in Grebe (1984:2) further divides Western Grassfield languages into four subgroups: Ring, MENCHUM, WIDIKUM, and MADANI-NJEN. He further says that Lamnso' belongs to the Ring Subgroup. As observed in Grebe, (1984: 1), Lamnso' does not have prominent dialectal variations. The languages commonly referred to as Bantu are also classified as Southern Bantoid languages. They are considered to be Narrow Bantu, whereas Lamnso' and other Grassfield languages are non-Bantu (or Wide Bantu). Greenberg's

classification of African languages provides a larger framework for placing Lamnsó in relation to other languages but it is subsumed under the Bantu label which covers hundreds of languages. Bantu is a member of the Bantoid branch which in turn is a member of the Benue-Congo group. Greenberg (1966).

1. 3. Statement of the Research Problem

Many indigenous or minority languages of the world and Africa in particular face a bleak future unless conscious effort is made to develop, maintain, and preserve them. They become endangered linguistic species and this is more so because they offer few advantages in terms of access and inclusion at a national level. UNESCO sources cited in Wurm (1996: 1) state that 3,000 of the roughly 6,000 world languages still spoken "are now endangered, seriously endangered or dying, with many other languages still viable already showing signs of being potentially endangered" . A language becomes endangered when its speakers are few or are adapting to an environment where the use of that language is no longer advantageous

The speech community comes face-to-face into contact with carriers of a more dominating culture who speak another language, and their own culture is overwhelmed and threatened by disintegration, with the mastery of the intrusive language offering administrative, educational, and economic advantages to the speakers of the language of the weaker culture. The case of Cameroon is compounded by the fact that Cameroon is a bilingual country with two official languages (French and English). These official languages are used for administration, education, and wider communication. Even though Pidgin is equally used for wider communication especially among the uneducated class or used to bridge the gap between the educated and the uneducated. Many Lamnsó indigenous speakers especially the middle age group, focus on these languages of global recognition and popular culture. Spolsky (2002:139).

On this note therefore, Lamnso' needs to be developed and preserved through conscious efforts as this one, in order to rescue and equally document it for future generations. According to Trudell (2004:26), “Lamnso' is not taught beyond the primary school level and this is due to lack of advanced/extensive pedagogic materials or existing literature.” This has necessitated this research which will establish and develop material on Lamnsó compound words that could be preserved and used as reference material for pedagogic purposes and language learning. It is also assumed that the differences arising from the compounding processes of the two languages (Lamnsó and English) may pose problems to the learners and a misrepresentation of forms. Finally, past works on Lamnsó have concentrated on Phonology and Syntax of the language. Thus there is a need for a morphological study to be conducted on the language.

1.4. Research Questions

This work will attempt to address the following questions:

- 1.) How do the Lamnso' compound words differ from the English compound words in their morphological structures and patterns?
- 2.) What is the extent of typological over – lap in the two languages under study?
- 3.) How does compounding morphemes behave in the two languages under study?
- 4.) What are the Semantic and Pragmatic meanings attached to the Lamnsó Words?

1.5. Aim and Objectives

- 1.) The work aims at comparing and contrasting morphologically the Lamnso' compound words with the English compound words.
- 2.) This study also aims at composing or establishing the Lamnsó compound words which will form the basis of our data that will be analysed to meet our target goal.
- 3.) To bring out the similarities and differences between the Lamnso'and the English compound words.
- 4.) To transliterate and translate the Lamnsó compounds for easy understanding and analysis.
- 5.) To prove that there is no absolute typology.

1.6. Justification for the Study

Indigenous languages are undoubtedly facing extinction or are becoming endangered because languages of global recognition like English, French, and Arabic languages for example have continuously maintained the status quo as the number of their non – native speakers keeps increasing. The language choices made by these non – native speakers reflect negatively on their own native languages and as such, their own native languages are de-relegated to the background and given a local status without prestige. In this quest to be part of the global village voices, and sometimes to exhibit some level of modernity, most educated parents keep mother-tongue out of their homes and sometimes one could find a language whose surviving speakers are the old aged group. In order to prevent such languages from dying out, academic research, development, and documentation are the only remedy. Although Lamnsó still has many

speakers, their communication habits of code-mixing and code-switching are gradually stripping the language of its original form and if heed is not taken to develop, document, and preserve the language, there will be no future references on this language. Furthermore, we have chosen to conduct a morphological study in order to balance up the research efforts since past works on lamnsó have concentrated on Phonology and Syntax. Also, the Lamnsó Lexicon by Grebe and Grebe (1984) has no entries for Lamnsó compound words as if to say that they do not exist while they do as evident from our self-generated Lamnsó data.

1.7. Significance of the Study

This study will form the basis for subsequent research works to be conducted on other morphological processes of Lamnsó'. This study will also serve as a Pedagogic Material to language teachers and linguists in general. It is also going to be of immense help to textbook writers and lamnsó learners. The fact that lamnsó is only taught in primary schools and in Lamnsó Literacy Centers is partly due to lack of advanced pedagogic materials and existing Lamnsó' literature. The materials in existence are mostly elementary and it is in this light that this research will contribute to the development of advanced pedagogic materials.

The Traditional leadership is not left out because most of their council meeting proceedings are usually done in Lamnsó and where the language is fully developed and preserved, their secretaries will have no limitations in their minutes writing in Lamnsó instead of writing in a foreign language to be later read and interpreted to the audience.

This study also contributes to national language development and its data will be useful in broadcasting or in media houses. The Culture of the Nso' people will also be preserved since language is inversely linked to the culture and cultural identity of the speakers.

Paulston (2000:29) recognises the impact of written mother tongue on the development and preservation of minority language communities noting that "for any linguistic minority . . . to have its own written language, it is a source of pride and prestige".

The study is also timely, since it is coming at a time that both the international and local authorities are calling for linguistic studies to be undertaken in all African languages. Some many and yet few efforts have been and are still being made on Lamnso' studies including that of the Researcher.

1.8. Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The main area of study is Morphology which is one of the four facets of linguistic analysis. However, this work does not cover all the morphological processes in its analysis and discussion but will focus on compounding as a process of word formation under Morphology.

The study does not cover the phonological elements of the compound words except in passing since the four levels have their intersecting points especially the elision of sounds during the compounding process which is very common in Lamnso' and in English. Also, it does not seek to exhaust all the various meanings attached to the various Lamso' words being analysed.

It is centered on Lamnso' that is spoken in Bui Division of the North West Region of Cameroon. In the same light, this work does not in any way focus on Comparative Linguistics or

Comparative Philology. Rather, it compares and contrasts the morphological differences and similarities between the English and Lamnso' compound words.

1. 9. Definition of Terms

1.9.1. Morphology: Crystal (2003: 300), sees it as “That branch of linguistic analysis which studies the structure or forms of words in different uses and constructions. It is the study of the smallest unit of a sentence which is the word” His view that the use of the morpheme construct is the primary tool used in studying the forms of words is employed in this work.

1.9.2. Compounding/Compound Words: Matthews (1974:82), sees it as a “process by which a compound lexeme is derived from two or more simpler lexemes.” Gimson (2001:28) posits that compound words are composed of more than one root morpheme but function grammatically and or semantically as a single word.” Syal and Jindal (2001:65) define Compound words as “consisting of two (or more) free stems which are independent words by themselves.”

1.9.3. Lexemes: According to Crystal (2003: 300), Lexemes are variant forms of the same Morpheme.

1.9.4. Lamnso': It is the language of the Nso' People. Nso' is the ethnic group. In this work, the term Lamnso' is used as such because it will amount to tautology if one says ‘the Lamnso' language.’

1.9.5. Contrastive analysis: Contrastive Analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Historically it has been used to establish language genealogies. Malmkjaer (1991: 341).

1.9.6. National Language: Tabi-Manga (2000: 21), defines national language as “a minority, African language especially in Cameroon”. In other cases, the term is used to refer to the official language of a country. Bamgbose (1991:18). In this work, the former definition will be adopted because Lamnso' is classified in Cameroon as a national language unlike the case in Nigeria. Echu (2003: 12), notes that the Cameroonian National Council for Cultural Affairs of (1974), has adopted the term 'national language' for all Cameroonian indigenous languages in an effort to "give the impression of equality in status and thus comfort their speakers".

1.9.7. The Language Community: It not only incorporates the attributes of the speech community but also includes the geographical and cultural components. The Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights (1998:23) cited in Trudell (2004:89), defines a language community as: “Any human society established historically in a particular territorial space . . . which identifies itself as a people and has developed a common language as a natural means of communication and cultural cohesion among its members.” The term is distinguished from that of speech community in Cooper (1989) and Kramsch (1998 ed.) in that, it includes not only shared knowledge of a linguistic code, but also a culturally and geographically defined self-identification. Nevertheless, the term *language community* is used throughout this study as an alternative term to *speech community*.

1.9.7. Homeland: This is used in this study to refer to the geographical area that is rightfully occupied by the Nso' people and ruled traditionally by their traditional ruler called the ‘Fon’ (King). Lamnso' is widely spoken in this area and the Nso' culture is widely practiced as well.

1.9.8. The Grassfield: This is the name given by early colonial explorers to the territory now called the Northwest Region. This area then was a large expanse of land covered with high grass.

Yuka, (2004:3)

1.9.9. Indigenous: This term, as used in this work, refers both to its historical definition (as original peoples) and its political definition (that of an ethnic minority group. Nettle and Romaine (2000: 45).

1.9.10. Eclecticism

This is used in language teaching to mean a reaction against the profusion of rival approaches and methodologies, and their frequent dogmatism. It holds that no single one is adequate, but many contain valuable insights. The practitioner should therefore select the best from each. Eclecticism's strength is recognition of diversity, its weakness a tendency to vagueness and lack of principle. Johnson & Johnson (1999: 104). It is worth mentioning at this juncture that this work has used the eclectic approach too.

1.9.11 Objectivity: This term has various meanings and shades of meanings. In one sense, all research should strive for objectivity, meaning that one's study is open to criticism and one's evidence withstands scrutiny Phillips (1990:35). Bernstein (1983:8) defines objectivity as the basic conviction that there is or there must be some permanent, a-historical matrix or framework to which we can ultimately appeal in determining the nature of rationality, knowledge, truth, reality, goodness, or rightness. In the research process itself, and in this one to be precise, objectivity is considered a fundamental characteristic.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of Literature. We have raised some issues or criticisms which we consider to be scholarly and not personal. Therefore, the purpose is not to discredit anyone but to contribute in our own little way to scholarship.

2.1. Typology

Different languages of the world have different structures. According to the Wikipedia, consulted in (Dec. 2013), "[Morphological typology](#) is a way of classifying languages according to the ways by which morphemes they are used." This springs from the analysis that uses only isolated morphemes through:

- a.) The [agglutinative](#) languages ("stuck-together")
- b.) The [fusional languages](#) that use [bound morphemes](#) ([affixes](#)),
- c.) The [polysynthetic](#) languages, which compresses many separate morphemes into single words.

According to Aronoff and Fundeman, (2005:171), "typology has to do with a scale 'from the 'analytical' to the 'synthetic' languages which encode the degree to which the individual meaningful elements in a language are expressed separately." We agree with them here because the scale will enable one get the dominant typological feature for each language. This is because typological classification of languages does not mean that one language can absolutely fit into one typology. For example, Lamnso' can be seen to be 'agglutinating'; 'fissional'; as well as

‘polysynthetic’. In the same light, English is partly ‘agglutinating’ and partly ‘fissional’ or ‘semi – inflecting’ with respect to some words that defer segmentation like ‘lice’, ‘mice’, ‘men’, ‘women’ etc. as seen in Lyons, (1969:129). It is clear that in most languages, if not all, words can be related to each other by rules (grammars). For example, in English the words ‘rat’ and ‘rats’ are closely related but differentiated only by the plural morpheme /s/which is bound to nouns especially count nouns and compound nouns.

Similarly, these other ones are subordinate to the ones mentioned above because they are not autonomous.

1. The Word – order typology: This includes studies of the order of words or constituents within the noun phrase and of whether a language has prepositions. To demonstrate this, a typical English phrase has a determiner + a noun e.g. The book, while in Lamnso' it is the reverse i.e. noun + the determiner e.g. (ɲwà' wò') (book the). The word order has changed but the meaning remains the same as ‘the book’. We also have the following with brief explanations:

2. The Verb Object Bonding (VOB): ‘O’ the object is tightly bound to the verb than the subject.

3. The Animated First Principle (AFP) : This states that in basic transitive clauses, the NP which is most animated, will precede others.

4. Gramatical typology: This considers the sentence word order e.g. SOV; SVOCA; SVO etc.

5. The Theme First Principle (TFP)

2.2. Compounding as a Word Formation Process: There is a distinction between two kinds of morphological word formation processes: Akmajian (2000) Derivation and Compounding.

Compounding is a process of word formation that involves combining complete word forms into a single compound form; 'bridegroom' is therefore a compound word, because both 'bride' and 'groom' are complete word forms in their own right before the compounding process has been applied and they are subsequently treated as one form. According to Syal & Jindal (2001: 65), and Gimson (2001: 28), compounding is seen "as a process of word formation which is composed of more than one root morpheme that functions grammatically and semantically as a single word". They equally see compounding as a productive morphological process. The above definition is the reason why we see such words as 'five star general' or 'penalty shoot outs' being classified as compound words and not otherwise. Our point of contention with Syal and Jindal's ideology is where they went further to say "compound morphemes are independent words by themselves." Words like shepherd, scapegoat, landscape, drunkard, and dullard etc. are compound words but shep which is a morpheme + herd to give us shepherd is not a word. The same argument goes for scape and ard in the other examples which are not also independent words but without them, the compound word which they are a part of will not be complete. So the question here is must the morpheme be an independent word by itself? These exemplified morphemes are just grammatical but not semantic words.

Their idea is slightly different from Matthews (1991: 84) who does not see compounding as a word formation process but rather as "a lexical process which only resembles word formation." Matthews's idea is not convincing but rather confusing. If compounding is not a word formation process, then how can there be separate entries for compound words in a dictionary like The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2008), and how are they realised? His definition of Compounding which sees Compounding as "a process by which a compound lexeme is derived from two or more simpler lexemes" Matthews (1974:82) can further leave a question

mark (?) in one's mind as to what he means by 'simpler lexemes' when words like 'Attorney general' have entries which classify them as compound words in the same Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2008). What about compounds with one of the lexemes already compounded like 'Cocktail party' and the ones mentioned above? Cocktail is already a compound lexeme made up of 'cock' + 'tail'. Furthermore, he argues that 'cockroach' should not be considered as a compound lexeme because it originates from a Spanish loan word known as 'cucaracha' but the same dictionary (ibid) presents it as a compound lexeme. Though American English calls it 'roach' and therefore considers it as a simple word, we cannot deny the fact that 'roach' is a product of clipping from the word 'cockroach'. He did not go further to tell us the meaning of 'cucaracha' Furthermore, the main thrust of modern linguistics is 'describing language as it is and not otherwise'. However, this is not to say that etymology is irrelevant to Linguistic studies. Lamnsó' does not have sufficient documented materials or literatures; but we believe that our knowledge of linguistics and spoken Lamnsó can enable us to develop reliable data that can be preserved for future use by describing the language as we see it.

On the other hand, the compounding process of some words leads to some alterations that are worth noting. This is pointed out by Bopp (1974) cited in (Hall 1992: 85) that:

Words entering into conjunction with others are liable to great alterations or contractions in order that the compound might have the appearance of a single word. Languages manifest a constant effort to connect heterogeneous materials in such a manner as to offer to the ear or eye one perfect whole, like a statue executed by a skillful artist that wears the appearance of a figure hewn out of one piece of marble.

The above statement explains why Lamnsó words like '*ɲgaàɲ*' N (person) N + '*bìr*' Adj (angry) Adj cannot become '*ɲgaàɲbìr*' but will instead become '*ɲgaàvìbì*' (someone/person who is

angry) (an angry person). You can observe that there are some alterations /ŋ/ have been removed and /vi/ introduced before 'bir' which has also elided /r/.

2.2.1. Types of Compounds

The English compounds have been studied by various scholars like Matthews, (1974, 1991) McCarthy (1991:317) and Bauer (1978:30-40), Di – Scullo (1987), Akmajian et al (2000), Murthy (2008), and James (2008). We borrowed freely from their works but we have adopted the works of Bauer and McCarthy which divide compounds into four semantic types namely:

Endocentric, Exocentric, Appositional and Copulative otherwise known as dvanda.

2.2.2. Endocentric Compounds: According to McCarthy, a compound is said to be endocentric if the second element is grammatically a headword and the first element is a modifier. For example, landlord, wrist-watch, traffic light etc. In other words, endocentric compounds are hyponyms of the headword.

2.2.3. Exocentric Compounds

Exocentric compounds have their semantic heads 'outside' the compound as indicated by the prefix (exo) and they name something by specifying some features. McCarthy pointed out that in a situation wherein hyponymy does not exist as in scapegoat, which is a kind of person and not a goat, the compound is exocentric. He gave further examples like pick-pocket, pot-belly, lazy-bones etc. Their meanings cannot be exclusively derived from their constituent parts.

2.2.5. Appositive Compounds

Bauer (1983) and McCarthy (1991) have identified another class of compounds to be appositive. The hyponym is by- directional as in radio-cassette which is a kind of radio and/or a kind of cassette player. They argue that this kind of compound is a noun-head.

2.2.6. Copulative or dvanda Compounds

The last category of compound words identified by Bauer and McCarthy (ibid) is the copulative or dvanda compounds. Here, the compound elements' name separate entities neither of which might seem to be the grammatical head-word. In other words, copulative or dvanda compounds have two heads instead of only one. Examples include slatter walker, Austin-Rover etc.

Furthermore McCarthy also identified some sub categories like Affix and String Compounds.

Affix compounds according to him have more than one stem plus an affix as in the word green-eyed (having green eyes), dark-haired, (having dark hair) etc. Haspelmath (2002: 89) also subscribes to this idea. The other sub category identified above is the string compound in which more than two words are strung together to form compounds like First class citizen, Five star hotel etc. We will also like to state here that we will be making use of Affix and String compounding methods in compiling our Lamnsó data. The position of these scholars on compound words is very true but it is worth noting that the compound head can be located on either positions in both English and Lamnsó compound words depending on the context or the intended meaning.

2.3. Morphological Concepts and Processes

Morphemes are smallest morphological meaningful units that play a central role in morphological analysis and (Haspelmath, 2002:17) calls them “morphological atoms.” They are

usually minimal units that cannot be further sub-divided into meaningful units. Syal and Jindal, (2001:59). Syal and Jindal (ibid) further say that “a morpheme is a short segment of language that meets the following criteria:

- a) It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.
- b) It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
- c) It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

There are different types of morphemes: the ‘free’ morpheme which can either be a ‘root’ or ‘stem’ and the bound morpheme which cannot stand on its own as an independent word. It must be attached to a free morpheme or a free form to make meaning (Syal and Jindal, 2001: 62).

Below is a tree diagram showing the morphological analysis of the word *kinsùmriwún* (person who prides his body) i.e. (a proud person): Affix ‘ki’ + ‘n’ + base ‘sum’ + ‘ri’ + affix ‘wún’

2.4.Morphology and Phonology (Mophophonemics)

The inter-relatedness between phonology, morphology, and syntax is such that the phonological behaviour reveals details about the underlying structures of affixes and the point at which they attach to their bases. The sound pronunciations also change depending on the morphological environment and all these have to follow the syntactic rules. The simplest type of variation in form of morphemes relates to phonological conditioning which is seen in the English plural forms of compound nouns. Although orthographically such forms as wildcats, and sea-horses are related to their corresponding singular forms merely by the addition of the ‘s’, phonologically they are /waiɪdkæts/, and /si:h]: ziz/. The plural morpheme may either be the voiceless sibilant

/s/, or the voiced sibilant /z/ preceded by the neutral vowel. (A sibilant is [Coronal] and [+stident] in Chomsky and Halle's notation cited in Akinson (1989: 129). According to Matthews (1991 : 149), "Morphophonemics can sometimes operate in the absence of a specific context." This is where we contend with Matthews because if the morphophonemic changes reflect the phonological structure of the language; then it follows that the morphophonemic process is language specific which serves as 'a specific context'. There must be a context before a morpheme can change since it depends on its neighbouring sounds to change its form. The following illustrations in Lamnso' will throw more light on what we are saying here. The word '*kitu'ur*' (ear) is a compound word from '*kitu*' (head) (a noun) + '*yurí*' (hearing/listening) (a verb); in the course of compounding the two morphemes, the letters (*y* and *í*) have been elided and an apostrophe /' / is introduced to separate the two /u/s coming together in '*kitu'ur*'. Such graphical symbols as /' ' 'ê/ are common in Lamnsó and they play a crucial role in the pronunciation and meanings of words. For example '*baámé*' (embrace), and '*baamè*' (to be careful/to be watchful). The word classes of any language are also determined by these four facets and this explains why we have: the phonological word, the grammatical or morphosyntactic word, content word, and the function word. Although the word is so fundamental to linguistic analysis, linguists have not been able to come up with a standard definition for the word (Aronoff and Fundeman 2005:33; Palmer 1971:51). Prasad (2008:61-62) have given us a discussion with English Language examples on the application of morphophonemic rules. This gives us a better understanding of what morphophonemics is unlike Matthews (1991) that uses Greek to illustrate this phenomenon and leaves the reader in a state of confusion. Their discussion is as follows:

2.4.1. The Plural Morpheme

1. If a noun ends in a voiceless sound except /s/, /f/, /t /, the plural morpheme at the end is uttered as /s/, e.g. Cats /kæts/, Peaks /pi:ks/, Caps /kæps/, roofs /ru:fs/.
2. If a noun ends in a voiced sound except /z/, / /, or /d /, the plural morpheme is uttered as /z/ e.g.cows /kauz/, beds /bedz/, homes /həʊmz/.
3. If a noun ends in /s/, /f /, /z/, /t /, or /d /, the plural morpheme is read as /iz/, e.g. languages /læŋgwi→iz/, horses /h]:siz/, brushes /brʌʃiz/, prizes /praiziz/. Exceptions to these rules according to Prasad (2008 : 6) are:

1. Consonants at the end of the base are changed before the application of the plural morpheme, e.g. Bath /ba:θ/, baths /ba:ðz/, Path /pa:θ/, paths /pa:ðz/.

Half /ha:f/, halves /ha:vz/, Knife /naif/, knives /naivz/.

House /haus/, houses /hauziz/.

2. Plural nouns are formed by changing the vowels;

e.g. Foot /fu:t/, Feet /fi:t/, Mouse /maus/, Mice, /mais/

3. Some compounds do not change in their plural forms; e.g. aircraft.

4. Some nouns whether compounded or not, have their plural forms with the addition of /en/ or /n/ with or without a change in the base; e.g. Ox - Oxen, (Oxen-farming) Child – Children (children’s home).

Lamnso' examples include ‘wán’ (child) and ‘wónlèè’ which means (children) in the general sense. But when making reference to children of particular parents or family, specific children are known as ‘wón’. This can be further seen in different compound examples like: ‘wónntó’ (children + palace). It means (royal children) i.e. (princes and princesses). On the

other hand, there is also ‘*wónlèé’ntó*’ (children +palace) but in this case, they are affiliated to the palace because of the services they render to the ‘*Fon*’ (King) especially in the area of security, income generation, and stewardship. In other words, they are a generation of slaves who earned their respect and palace recognition from fighting victoriously and defending the ‘*fondom*’ (kingdom) when it was prone to constant attacks from enemy clans and Jihadists. Furthermore, we also have ‘*wanlèéɣwa*’ (child of book) i.e. (a pupil or a student) and ‘*wónlèéɣwa*’ which means (children of book) i.e. (pupils or students) depending on the context in which it is used.

2.4.2. The Genitive Morpheme

In the case of genitive morphemes, the same morphophonemic rules, as for the plural morphemes, are followed, but there are some exceptions to these rules, for example:

(I) If the proper noun ends in /iz/ or as zero, e.g.

Dickens, Dickens'(s) /dikins/ or /dikinziz/

Forbes, Forbes'(s) /f]:biz/ or /f]:biziz/

(II) In some cases the genitive suffix has a zero realization: (i) In a number of fixed expressions, e.g. For Jesus' sake, For goodness' sake.

(III) In Greek names of more than one syllables, e.g. Sophocles' plays, Socrates' disciple, Androcles' friend, Euridides' tragedies.

(IV), If the plural nouns end in /s/, the genitive suffix is realized as zero: e.g. Boys' hostel, Teachers' quarters, Employees' union, Officers' mess.

2.5. Morphology and Syntax

The interplay between morphology and syntax is known as Morphosyntactics. While it is true that morphological structures follow syntactic rules, some scholars have observed that: “The conventional distinction between morphology and syntax is not clear, just like that between grammar and lexis where there is no clear cut difference; and it varies somewhat in scope from one language to another.” Simpson J. (2011:558). According to Chomsky (1957: 32) “syntax is the grammatical sequences of morphemes of a language.” In other words, he does not see Morphology as a separate field of study from grammar. However there are still many scholars like Matthews (1991) who see Morphology as a separate field of study which only intersects with other areas of linguistic analysis. Lees (1960) cited in Malmkjaer (1991: 434) is a key document that demonstrates the relationship between Morphology and Transformational generative grammar. He uses the approach that attempts to explain word formation processes in terms of syntactic transformations. If Morphology were not a separate field of study, this work wouldn't have come into being. A compound such as (manservant) is seen to incorporate the sentence ‘The servant is a man’. In his view, this sentence by transformation generates the compound. We agree with Lees and disagree with the former whose view is highly problematic, especially when confronted with the idiosyncrasies of derived and compound words. The syntax of a language at some point of the derivation, determines the order of the free lexical morpheme. For example some lamnsó words (especially verbs) that begin with the letters /k/, /b/, /s/, /j/, /w/ etc. must observe syntactic rules while combining to form compound nouns like ‘*kpu*’ (to die) +

'*ki*' (enclitic) becomes '*kimkpú*' (a dead thing). *Ki* + '*bom*' (to build) becomes '*kimbom*' (a construction project). *Ki* + '*wìy*' (to come) becomes '*Kìggwìy*' (a stranger) etc.

The apparent infixes /m/, /n/, and /ŋg/ are bound morphemes which must be brought in without which the meaning of the word cannot be the same. Syntactically, their positions in such words cannot be changed or disregarded. For instance, '*ki* + '*wìy*' (to come) without the double cluster consonant /ŋg/ as seen in the above example becomes '*kiwìy*' (a come together/a gathering). '*kiwìy*', if used in isolation, cannot make much meaning on its own because it acts like a modifier in words like '*kiwìy ke kpú*' (death celebration) which indeed, brings both family members and friends together. This analysis may not go down well with Spenser (1991: 47) who argues that:

An important difference between inflection and word formation is that inflected word forms of lexemes are organized into paradigms which are defined by the requirements of syntactic rules, whereas the rules of word formation are not restricted by any corresponding requirements of syntax. Inflection is therefore said to be relevant to syntax, and word formation is not
.....and it concerns itself with inflection and paradigms, but not with word formation or compounding.

This might be true of the English language but not with Lamnsó. Apart from signifying the morpho-syntactic relations existing between the verbs and the arguments, they indicate subject-verb agreement, case marking as well as other grammatical relations that exist among clausal elements McGarrity and Botne, (2002).

2.6. The Morphological Theory Models

There are three principal approaches to morphological models; these are:

- 1.) Morpheme-based morphology, which makes use of an [Item-and-Arrangement](#) approach (IA).
- 2.) Lexeme-based morphology, which normally makes use of an [Item-and-Process](#) approach (IP).
- 3.) Word-based morphology, which normally makes use of a [Word-and-Paradigm](#) approach (WP).

Morpheme-based morphology was pioneered by Bloomfield 1933 and (Hockett 1947/1954). Bloomfield sees the morpheme as “the minimal forms with meaning, but which itself is not meaning.” While Hockett thinks that “morphemes are meaningful elements and not form elements.” This accounts for why we have chosen Hockett’s 1954 model in this work.

2.6.1. Item and Arrangement: This is propounded in Hockett’s (1954) as one of the analytical models of morphological description. To him, “there is a plural morpheme, with the [allomorphs](#) (-s, -en, -ren) etc. Hockett (1954), views the plural morpheme” and the /s/ morpheme as two different things. His IA (Item and Arrangement) breaks down words into their component morphemes in a linear way and in their syntactic order. This theory is explicit and simple as it analyses the internal structures of word segments in a sequence employing an economic method of analysis. IA is suitable for words that use affixes i.e. agglutinating languages.

2.6.2. Lexeme-based Morphology or Item and Process

Lexeme-based morphology is what (Hockett 1954) calls ([Item and Process](#)) IP. A root or base word is analysed as undergoing successive processes of internal change. Primarily, IP provides

the 'basic phonological components' instead of analyzing word forms as a set of morphemes arranged in sequence, a word form is said to be the result of applying rules that alter a word form or stem in order to produce a new one. For example, 'sing' can be analysed as: SING [PRESENT] = SANG [PAST TENSE]. Mathews (1997:267) is an exponent of Hockett's IP who later modified the model with his 'operand concept' for example 'laugh', 'derivand' 'laughed' and 'formative' 'ed' of 'laughed'. An inflectional rule takes a stem, changes it as it is required by the rule and outputs a word form. A derivational rule takes a stem, changes it to its own requirements, and outputs a derived stem; a compounding rule takes word forms, and similarly outputs a compound stem. Still, this IP model appears complex and cumbersome. Furthermore, it is suitable for inflectional languages like English but not suitable for Lamnsó because of its dominantly agglutinating typology.

2.6.3. Word-based Morphology or Word and Paradigm

Mathews (1997:263) further attests to the fact that in the (WP) model, words that have the same form are arranged systematically according to their grammatical features. For example, The words 'talk' and 'look' can be grouped together under the same 'paradigm' because they are all verbs and having the same forms of grammatical inflections in terms of number, person, and tense as in (talk, talks, talking, and talked). This model has, however, been criticized because it focuses on word forms and lists them out without any explicit analysis. Furthermore, WP is workable in inflectional languages like English in the above example but not with languages that typically agglutinating like Lamnsó. Lastly, WP does not give us the opportunity to analyse the internal structures of words which is of great interest to the morphologist.

Most of these models are analytical types with the exception of the synthetic type brought forth in Haspelmath (2002). In the analytical model, words are broken down into morphemic components with the use of formal principles or methodologies. The synthetic model identifies words with similar morphological structures (or morphological atoms) in a paradigmatic relation and tries to assemble them together as belonging to the same morphological class and this is based on grammatical and semantic criteria. This synthetic model is the opposite of the analytical model. The notable morphological model by Nida (1949) suggested six principles for identifying the morphemes of a language using the comparison and isolation methods. He talks about forms with:

- i. Common semantic distinctiveness.
- ii. Similar phonemic features.

This model focuses on external structures which is a shortcoming because the internal structures enable us to understand the morphemic details of words. For example, the Lamnsó word ‘ηgaálah’ means (owner of house) i.e. (landlord/landlady); ‘ηgaáshiv’ means (owner/custodian of medicine) (a herbalist). On the other hand, we also have ‘ηgaámbuùné’ which means (someone who sleeps) i.e. (a sleeper), ‘ηgaácej’ (which means someone who dances) i.e. (a dancer). The first two examples signify ownership/custodianship while the second two are doers of certain actions. The word ‘ηgaá’ in the four words is phonemically similar but it has two different meanings and performs two different functions. This signifies that Nida’s model can lead to wrong identification of morphemes in some words. Crystal (2003: 300) suggests "the use of the morpheme construct as the primary tool used in studying the forms of words." Secondly, he puts forth six different principles which do not operate as a single formal methodology with a general

application. This can only lead to taxonomy of different types of morphemes appearing in a superficial manner.

2.7. Theoretical Framework

The Theoretical Framework of this study can be described in terms of two principal aspects: the methodological approach which framed the data collection, and the discursive framework which guided interpretation of the data.

After gathering the data, a rigorous interpretation which involved both (comparing and contrasting) of both English and Lamsó compounds words was done. A translation approach is employed in the analysis alongside the eclectic approach. The translation is first done at word for word level or what Newmark (1985) refers to as transliteration and finally at the semantic level in order to give the English reader an unambiguous meaning of the Lamnsó words. In doing so, the cultural parameters surrounding the meanings of some words were not ignored. ‘Culturalism’ here refers to an intentional focus on the effects of social and cultural context on events or institutions. This is however not to say that the work took a subjective dimension because ‘objectivity’ is always paramount to any research work. May (2001:9); posits that “it is essential therefore that research outcomes not be influenced by the opinions of the researcher”. In keeping with this perspective, truth is sought via objective measures in this work as much as possible.

Compound words belong to the various classes of words i.e. compound nouns, compound adjectives, etc. Lamnsó compound words take affixal morphemes which can be identified and

segmented in a linear order. For example, the Lamnsó word ‘*ɲgaàlimnyuy*’ (worker of God’s work) i.e. (A man of God/Clergyman) is a compound noun with the following affixes: ‘*ɲgaà + lim + nyuy*’. In the same vein, the Lamnsó compound adjective ‘*kidardór*’ (a tall and slim person) can be analysed into three affixes as follows: ‘*ki + dar + dór*’.

The Item and Arrangement (IA) Model by Hockett (1954) is a pertinent theory in morphological analysis of Lamnsó compound words. This tool of analysis lays emphasis on the primacy of explicit morphological analysis of the internal structure of words in a syntactic order. This model of analysis i.e. IA is used in this work as our analytic tool and the data will be generated for the Lamnsó Compound Words. This pattern of concatenative morphological analysis will be followed. The term concatenative morphology is associated with the IA pattern of morphological surgery which constructs or analyses words by the linear addition of morphemes, using the concatenated symbol (+) Aronoff and Fundeman, (2005: 236). The above cited examples in Lamnsó can be analysed as ‘*ki + dar + dór*’ and ‘*ɲgaà + lim + nyuy*’.

Furthermore, Lamnsó words are usually embedded with semantic, morphological, and syntactic information. Lamnsó speakers especially the native speakers use Lamnsó words that are morphologically well structured in conformity with the Lamnsó morphological rules that govern word formation. The speakers also ensure that the words are syntactically related to other words in the correct order of expression. In the same vein, these expressions can be identified and categorized into various Lamnsó grammatical units such as the sentence, the clause, the group, the word, and the morpheme. This therefore suggests that these grammatical units can be described in hierarchical order in accordance with Halliday (1985).

Similarly, the translation theory propounded by Catford (1965), and later emphasized by Newmark (1981) as used by the researcher is a theory that integrates Halliday's concepts of hierarchy, and grammatical units. These concepts give room to 'ranked bound' or 'unbound translation' types. A ranked-bound is that which is limited to 'the word and the morpheme' units; while the unbound type shifts freely from the sentence down to the morpheme or even below and above the grammatical units. The Lamnsó data in this study has been translated using this theory for the benefit of all our readers. The first translated versions are what (Newmark 1981) refers to as "word for word" translation while the final versions are what he calls "semantic" translation which goes with sense and meaning. He further suggests that "word for word" translation helps you to recognize the empty equivalence involved in translating data from the Source Language (SL) to the Target Language (TL). All our translations are put in brackets () while all our Lamnsó data or Source Language data are put in single quotes ' ' and italics. This study also makes use of the standard and latest lamnsó orthography for our spellings put forward by (Grebe; 1984) see Appendix 1.

2.8. Bilingualism: Bilingualism in Cameroon can be considered at the level of the society and of the individuals. Societal bilingualism is obvious because Cameroon is officially a Bilingual Country with English and French as the official languages. Both the National Language Policy and the Educational Policy in Cameroon promote bilingualism and multilingualism. On the other hand, individual bilingualism is seen in some speakers who express themselves in Lamnsó and the English Language or Lamnsó and Pidgin, as the case may be. This may be at the simultaneous or sequential basis. However, monolingualism can be seen among some very old folks and children under-school age that live in rural areas.

2.8.1. Multilingualism: This is also very common owing to the bilingual nature of the country with two official Languages (English and French). It is also commonplace to find multi-lingual speakers who can speak all three languages (Lamnso', French, and English). Lamnso' is a means by which all sons and daughters of Nso' cooperate and identify with each other as a form of cultural heritage and identity. The language choices they make always depend on their interlocutor/s. It is also worth mentioning here that code-switching/code-mixing are very common.

2.9. Language Acquisition: The demographic concentration of Lamnso' speakers within the language community, continues to facilitate what Fishman (1991:374) calls "intergenerational mother-tongue transmission" in which the language continues to be passed on from parent to child as a mother tongue. The effortless manner in which the human mind acquires language is partly explained by Chomsky (1956) when he says; "the mind automatically presumes that the language has certain properties and varies within narrow limits; hence, it does not have to bother with exploring all the possibilities for language, but can exclude most of them in advance."

Language acquisition then builds on the pre-existing properties of the human language faculty (LAD). These principles are imposed upon the grammar; the parameter settings are derived from the child's language experience. This theory is known as INNATISM. This Chomskyan theory emphasizes that language is a property of the mind rather than as a social behaviour. His primary goal of linguistics is to establish what an individual human mind knows i.e. 'linguistic competence.' Chomsky lays more emphasis on grammar rather than on language. But one may ask "if grammar can exist out of language or without a medium?" i.e. the environment.'

The Behaviourists believe that the environment stimulates the child and the response is seen in the output he/she produces with the re-enforcement of the parents. B. F. Skinner in his 'Operand Conditioning' portrayed that "when a given act is followed closely by a reinforcer, the

organism tends to increase the frequency of the act under the same or similar conditions”. But the language data that children are exposed to is not always what they come to know and speak. The type of knowledge that forms linguistic competence could not be acquired from the actual sentences they hear. This is called by Johnson & Johnson (1999: 39) “the poverty-of-the-stimulus argument.” It is claimed that language acquisition must take place on the basis of positive evidence of sentences that the child hears rather than from negative evidence of parents’ corrections or from forms that do not occur or from social interaction, imitation, and so on. This is partly because such negative evidence is not found to occur on any large scale with children. Another reason is that children do not make the right mistakes or adults know the right information to supply them with. According to Johnson & Johnson (1999: 39), “the type of information used in principles and parameters theory could not be extracted from the language evidence they hear”. Lamnsó parents usually discuss with their children in what may be referred to as ‘child vocabulary’. For example, the word ‘*víykir*’ means (food) but parents and caregivers always say ‘*yíyi*’ when talking to children about food, but the child grows up to be saying the right thing. So, behaviourism is not complete in itself.

The Cognitivist theory sees the child's mind as already wired with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) whose actions are triggered by the environment. The fact that language evidence comes from outside demonstrates how principles are instantiated. It triggers particular parameter settings. Above all, it provides the vocabulary in all its complexity (Johnson & Johnson: *ibid*). To them, “All the child needs to acquire language is exposure to a sample of sentences that provide the data on which knowledge of language can be built. Nothing else is, in principle, necessary for acquisition. Thus, the prime evidence for the linguist that something has been acquired is that it forms part of competence; there is no requirement to follow the actual

stages of acquisition by a child if clearly something is known.” A crucial early insight spelled out by David McNeil (1966) cited in Johnson & Johnson (*ibid*) was the independent grammars assumption that children should be treated in their own right not as deficient adult speakers.

2.10. Language and Culture: The relationship between language and culture is undeniably profound. Whether language actually predisposes its speakers to see the world in a certain way Sapir (1929:207), or language is itself a reflection of culture. The role of language in mediating and defining social relations is crucial. Kramsch (1998:77) notes that “Language is the most sensitive indicator of the relationship between an individual and a given social group.” The nature of the language-culture connection is however not unchanging. In examining the relationship between language, ethnicity and national identity, May (2001) points out that the correspondence between language and ethnicity is not inevitable. Nevertheless, language is a significant feature of ethnic identity.

2.11. Language development

One of the consequences as well as the causes - of a language's minority status is the limited domains in which it is used in society. The term language development, as used in this study, describes ‘the extent to which a given language can be used, and also the processes by which the uses of that language are broadened.’ Specific language development activities according to Trudell (2004:104), include “development of orthography, a body of literature, and vocabulary for Language planning.” This involves both status planning i.e. (allocating given functions to a language) and corpus planning (standardising or reforming language use). Cooper (1989:33) adds a third aspect of language planning, namely “acquisition planning” which aims at increasing the number of users of a language. To him, “language teaching, and broadening the range of uses to which a language may be put, can have a positive impact on the number of its users”.

2.12. BORROWING

Linguistic borrowing occurs when linguistic elements from one language are incorporated into another language. This is most obvious in the area of vocabulary. Such words may come and disappear with little or no consequences. According to Malmkjaer (1991: 207), “The borrowing language may incorporate some cultural item or idea and the name along with it from some external source.” The social context in which linguistic borrowings occurs have often been referred to as the *substratum*, *adstratum*, and *superstratum*. Lamnsó has a lot of borrowed vocabulary especially in the area of science and technology. Words like television, telephone, computer do not have corresponding lexemes in Lamnsó. You may hear some ‘colloquial term’ like ‘*kilei ke baráh*’ (mirror of white man) i.e. (a white man’s mirror). It could be used to refer to either a television or a computer. For telephone, you hear of ‘*tigni tigni*’ an onomatopoeic word coined from a popular ring tune.

When words are borrowed, they are generally made to conform to the sound patterns of the borrowing language. Malmkjaer (1991: ibid). Lamnsó words like: ‘*wapita*’ is borrowed from the English word hospital. ‘*shikuur*’ is borrowed from the English word school and ‘*nanar*’(pineapple) borrowed from the French word ananas. The above borrowed lexemes have old lamnsó entries as ‘*lah shív baráh*’ (home medicine white man) i.e. (white man’s medical home) which is known as a hospital in English. We equally have ‘*lav ñwá*’ (house book) i.e (book house) for school. Presently, it is only the old generation that still uses these words, while the middle aged and the young people code-mix and use hospital and school in their original English forms while speaking Lamnsó.

2.13. Reviewed Lamnsó Works

We went through some few works on Lamnsó studies carried out by both foreigners and indigenous speakers. We didn't come across any work that has attempted to study the Lamnsó Morphology but we cannot conclude that this work is the first of its kind. We only considered sub topics or aspects of such works that have to do with our topic. We looked at Grebe Karl, (1984) '*The Domain of Noun Tone Rules in Lamnsó*' where we discovered that he over-generalized some issues like saying that: "Lamnsó nouns consist of monosyllabic roots with an optional prefix which is a grammatical morpheme marking number: singular versus plural" (Grebe 1984: 7) He exemplifies this with '*ki + kun*' '*kikun*' (bed) and '*Vi + kun*' '*vikun*' (beds) and a host of others. What of nouns like '*gwàgwà*' (duck) and '*agwàgwà*' (ducks) and all other noun roots formed from duplication; what of '*bvéráŋgi*' (blanket) '*abvéráŋgi*' (blankets). These are just a few examples and there are many others which stand against Grebe's (1984) claim because these examples are obviously not monosyllabic roots. Furthermore, he only talks about prefixes and fails to discuss suffixes while there is a handful of Lamnsó noun roots that get their plurals by suffixation. For example '*lav*' (house), '*lavsi*' (houses) '*káv*' (singular) (wealth/price), '*kávsi*' (plural) (much wealth/prices). He also fails to talk about compound noun roots which can take both prefixes and suffixes in their plural forms. For example, '*ŋgaà*' (owner) + '*nyám*' (animal) '*ŋgaànyám*' (owner of animal) (animal owner). The plural of this word is '*aŋgaà*' (owners) + '*nyámsi*' (animals) '*aŋgaànyámsi*' (owners of animals) (animal owners). The morphology of Lamnsó is a very complex one, For example the English plural morpheme /s/ can regularly fit into words like boy- boys, husband – husbands. But in Lamnsó boy is '*wàndò lumin*' (a child who is a man) and boys is '*won veé vilum*' (Children who are men); while (husband) is '*lùm*' and (husbands) is '*alùm*'. (Grebe 1984:11) also states that "there is no etymology for the word '*kitu'ur*' (ear) and that how it came into being cannot be explained. This

is however a misleading statement and this could be blamed on his not being a native speaker.

The word ‘*kitu’ur*’ (ear) is a compound word that is made up of ‘*kitu*’ (head) + ‘*yurí*’ (hearing/listening). In the course of compounding the two morphemes, the letters /y and í/ have been elided and an apostrophe /’/ is introduced to separate the two /u/s coming together in ‘*kitu’ur*’ (a head device used for hearing/listening).

Grebe in his book, ‘*How to Read and write Lamnsó; (2008)*’ has mistranslated so many words in his Lamnsó word list as shown below: He uses a wrong word ‘*Ji sùm*’ to mean (edge of a farm) whereas it is ‘*biíy sum*’ which means (edge of a farm, a boundary, or a furrow).

He translates ‘*Keɲ*’ as (to Pick) which is incorrect because when ‘*Keɲ*’ is used as a verb it means to (harvest/cut) as in ‘*keɲ nyóo*’ (to harvest vegetable), ‘*keɲ vikwiíy*’ (to cut grass) and not (to pick) as seen in (Grebe 2008: 95). (To pick) in Lamnsó is ‘*bóɲri or táyri*’.

He translates ‘*mbàr*’ as (soup) instead of (soup made with cocoyam leaves). If ‘*mbàr*’ is soup then what is ‘*nyóo*’ (soup)? *Nyóo* is the general name for soup but ‘*mbàr*’ is a specific type of soup made from cocoyam leaves.

The word ‘*ɲár*’, to him, means (to be proud) whereas it means (to clown or to be too playful).

‘*ɲa*’ to him means still means (to be proud) but it means (to be pompous or to live a rough life style).

‘*Vibi*’ to him means (evil) but in the real sense, it means (malice or an ‘out of hand situation) and (evil) is ‘*virim*’ but he refers to ‘*virim*’ as (witchcraft) whose correct term is ‘*sám*’; even though (witchcraft) connotes evil *virim* is evil.

‘*Viféti*’ to him means (balance of money) whereas it means (contributions).

‘wiv’ to him is (to beat) but its correct meaning is (to flogg) and (to beat) is ‘tàm’ in Lamnsó.

‘Yàŋ’ to him is (to cook poorly) instead of (to parboil). It is used when something is poorly cooked but that is a ‘connotative meaning’ and not the meaning of the word.

In spite of the errors or mistakes noted in the text under consideration, we have equally benefitted immensely from his work especially in the area of word spellings in Lamnsò.

Yuka (2008: 2) in his ‘Lamnsó Verbal Extensions’ though dealing with verbs did not recognize the fact that there are also Lamnsó compound verbs “all Lamnsó verbs are monosyllabic and can be categorised under simple and complex verbs.” This claim is not true of transitive verbs like ‘*kum nshùm*’ (drumming); ‘*kum shuu*’ (chatting) and so on. Such verbs cannot pass the intending message if they are not compounded. ‘*kum*’ if used in isolation means (touch). He doesn’t even mention the fact that compound verbs exist in the language. He says;

Lamnsó verbs can easily be divided into two major groups: The simple verbs and the complex verbs. Morphologically, the simple verbs consist only of the verbal base. The complex verbs consist of the verbal base and an extension. The base and its affix are grammatically and phonologically interdependent. The verb has generally been treated as a unitary component ignoring the smaller morphological units existing within complex verbs. We demonstrate in 1 below that the verbal complex can be subjected to further morphological analysis (i.e., the base form + an extension).

He uses so many examples to demonstrate this but we are going to pick few of them to prove that they could still be modified. The second and underlined extensions are not mentioned in Yuka’s work. He makes it sound as though the first extensions are the only ones that the verbs can take.

'Lem' (to wound/injure yourself) '*lemkir*' past participle (Many people having been wounded/injured). It can still be extended as '*lemkiri*' (present participle) (Many people are being wounded/injured).

'Kav' (making/getting money) '*kavnin*' (bargaining). He failed to demonstrate that '*kavnini*' (buying and selling) (present participle) is an extension of '*kavnin*' which in his opinion is the only extension.

2.14. Other Relevant Works on Compounding

Mustapha (2003:132) *Compound Typology in Nigerian English* cited in Gumel (2008:31-32) discusses the issue of compound headedness. In his work he echoes Williams (1981:248) in his proposed rule called the 'Right Hand Rule' (RHR) which asserts that "in Morphology the head of a morphologically complex structure is defined as the right hand member of the structure, e.g. teapot, airport, milk teeth, bedroom, etc" He goes further to say that what is obtainable in Nigerian English (NigE) is the Left hand Rule (LHR) in words like pole wire, seat cover, key holder etc are examples. Gumel (2008:31) however criticises Mustapha by saying that this view had earlier been propounded by Asher (1994).

However, Mustapha is upheld By Gumel (ibid) for his idea of (Transparent and Opaque) compounds. According to Mustapha, "a transparent compound is that whose meaning is some what predictable based on its structural patterns" For example, bride price, bean cake, head tie etc. He further describes opaque compounds as "those whose meaning can hardly be predicted" For example, long leg, public dog, etc. Gumel (ibid) asserts that "the head of a compound can be established on either the left or right hand side depending on the type of compound." This assertion is equally applauded in this work and well exploited.

CHAPTER THREE

3. 0. METHODOLOGY

This study obtained its data from both primary and secondary sources. The primary source was that of self introspection which was indispensable owing to the fact that the researcher is a native speaker of Lamnsó and equally has the expertise and linguistic skills to research on the morphology of Lamnsó especially in the process of compounding. It was also an iterative process with other lamnsó speakers. This study has to do with rigorous brainstorming by the researcher because we didn't come across any preserved data on lamnsó compound words. We had to originally compose the data that is used in the work for analysis.

On the other hand, secondary sources made use of materials drawn from existing documents, published and unpublished materials, books, and dictionaries. Libraries were also of tremendous importance to us; electronic libraries and internet sources were not left out.

The following steps were taken to present and analyse the data:

1. The formal description of both the English and lamnsó compound words was discussed.
2. The various categories of compound formation processes in both languages were discussed. This includes their syntactic functions, their types, as well as their formation patterns.
3. A taxonomical and descriptive analysis was carried out on the presented data and this helped in bringing out the similarities and differences.

3.1. The Descriptive Model

This model was first propounded by Nida (1949). This descriptive model assesses the morphological distinctiveness of compound words in the two languages being compared. This model explores the aspects of compound formation in these languages and reveals the compound types, syntactic functions and their formation patterns.

3.2. The Taxonomic Model.

This model presents language features according to their components and what needs to be described. This model is pioneered by Banathy (1969) and later by Craystal (2003). The items in the inventory are identified in order to establish which of the items are similar or different. It is assumed that what is similar will constitute language universals and common characteristics in the two languages.

3.3. The English Language Data

The data exhibiting compound words in the English language was taken from works of Scholars like Bauer (1978), Matthews (1974 & 1991), McCarthy (1991), Murphy (2007), Akmajian et al (2008), Di-Scuillo (1987), and The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2008). The researcher drew freely from their works that have to do with compounding and other Departmental Research works like Gumel (2008).

3.4. Data Analysis

The English language data was analysed based mostly on what Scholars have already said about such compound words but we chipped in our own contributions at some points where we deemed necessary.

The Lamnsó data did not exist, so the researcher had to set up one and by so doing, transliteration and translation was done in order to carry our readers along. All words are grouped under their various word classes, broken down into their various morphemes, described and well explained but this is not to say that it is exhaustive in itself. A lot still has to be done in this area or in the Morphology of Lamnsó as a whole. The meanings of all the words are given either semantically or pragmatically.

Both languages are compared with regards to their compound types, classification, identification principles, plural formation, case marking, conjugation, gender etc. Their characteristics revealed in these areas show their meeting and departure points.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the data on English and Lamnsó compound words and their compounding processes. The descriptive model of Nida (1949 and 1976) is used to describe the data which is further classified into different word classes. The behavior of the compound morphemes and the structural patterns of the two languages are compared. Furthermore, the semantic and pragmatic meanings of the Lamnsó words are explained in English for easy understanding of our audience.

4.1. Formation of English Compounds

English Compound formation has rules which vary from one language to the other. A compound word in one language can be one of the following when translated into another language:

- i. A simple word.
- ii. A compound word.
- iii. A complex word.
- iv. A sentence.
- v. A very long word.

The meaning of the compound may be very different from the meanings of its components in isolation. For example, *scare* + *crow* in *scarecrow* in which the former means ‘a sudden feeling of fear’ and the latter ‘a large shiny blackbird with a loud cry’ or ‘the loud sound a cock makes’. Meanwhile, the word *scarecrow* means ‘an object in the shape of a person that a farmer puts in a field to frighten birds away’. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* : 2008).

4.2. Semantic Classification of Compounds

According to the *Free Encyclopedia (the Wikipedia)*, there are four types of semantic compounds:

- endocentric
- exocentric
- copulative /dvanda and the appositional

4.2.1. Endocentric Compounds: They consist of a head that is the categorical part that contains the basic meaning of the whole compound and a modifier, which restricts the meaning. For example, the English compound ‘*doghouse*’, where *house* is the head and *dog* is the modifier, it is understood as a house intended for a dog. Endocentric compounds tend to be of the same part of speech or word class as their head, as in the above example where *dog* + *house* are all nouns. More examples are shown on table 1 below:

4.2.2. Exocentric Compounds: Exocentric compounds, on the other hand, are those whose lexical category or meaning is not determined from the head. It has its semantic head outside the compound. They are hyponyms of some unexpressed semantic head for example, a person, a plant, or an animal. That is, one cannot infer the meaning from its constituent parts. For example,

the English compound '*white-collar*' is neither a kind of collar nor a white thing (the collar's colour is just a metaphor for socio-economic status). '*Figurehead*' is not a type of head but a leader or ruler without real power to take pertinent decisions. In an exocentric compound, the word class is determined lexically, disregarding the class of the constituents. For example, '*a must-have*' is not a verb but a noun. The meaning of this type of compound can be glossed as "(one) whose B is A", where B is the second element of the compound and A the first.

The terms endocentric and exocentric have been so used by Linguists to describe compounds. These two terms, according to Aronoff and Fudeman (2005), are related at the levels of motivation and compositionality.

4. 2. 3. Copulative compounds: These are compounds which have two semantic heads. For example, '*Maidservant*' in which *maid* is the same as *a servant* and '*servant*' is the same as a *maid*. That is, A + B denote 'the sum' of what A and B are denoting.

4. 2. 4. Appositional compounds: These refer to lexemes that have two (contrary) attributes which classify the compound. For example, *sleepwalk* and *bitter-sweet*. The meaning of each lexeme stands on its own. That is A and B provide different descriptions for the same referent.

4.3. Table 1 Endocentric and Exocentric Compounds

Endocentric Compounds	Exocentric Compounds
Sky + Scraper = Skyscraper	Scape + Goat = Scapegoat
Ball + Game = Ballgame	White + Collar = White-collar
Blue + Bird = Bluebird	Back Fire = Backfire
Dark + Room = Darkroom	Scare + Crow = Scarecrow
Sail + Boat = Sailboat	Pick + Pocket = Pickpocket

4.4. Formal Classification of Compounds

Formal classification has to do with the positioning of the words that is (the most common order of constituents where each class of word is modified by adjectives, verbs, adverb, preposition, nouns, etc.) This varies from one language to the other as we shall see in the two languages understudy in this work. Compounds function as Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverb.

These compounds are formed by composing one of the following together:

Noun + Noun

Adjective + Noun

Verb + Noun

Gerund + Noun

Adverb or (Preposition) + Noun

Verb + Adverb

Adverb + Verb

Adverb +Noun

Phrasal verb + Preposition

Preposition + Noun

Preposition + Adjective

Adjective + Adjective

Verb + Adjective

Noun + Adjective

Examples are given in the tables below.

4.4.1. Table 2 Examples of Compound Nouns formed from Noun + Noun:

Noun +	Noun	New Word
Sun	beam	Sunbeam
Hand	maid	Handmaid
Air	Craft	Aircraft
Dog	House	Doghouse

Story	Line	Storyline
Back	Space	Backspace
Wall	Paper	Wallpaper
Fire	Fox	Firefox
Home	Page	Homepage

4.4.2. Table 3 Examples of Compound Nouns formed from Adjectives + Nouns:

Adjective +	Noun	New Word
Mid	Wife	Midwife
Short	Hand	Shorthand
Short	List	Shortlist
Back	Fire	Backfire
Fore	Man	Foreman
Soft	Ware	Software
Double	Cross	Double-cross

4.4.3. Table 4 Examples of Compound Nouns formed from Verb + Noun

Verb	Noun	New Word
Cut	Throat	Cutthroat
Spend	Thrift	Spendthrift
Pick	Pocket	Pickpocket
Play	Ground	Playground

4.4.4. Table 5 Examples of Compound Nouns formed from Gerund+ Noun

Gerund +	Noun	New Word
Running	Mate	Running-mate
Sailing	Vessel	Sailing -vessel
Stepping	Stone	Stepping-stone
Spelling	Bee	Spelling-bee
Walking	Stick	Walking-stick
Visiting	Hour	Visiting-hour

Noun + Gerund

Breast	Feeding	Breastfeeding
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Finger	Pointing	Finger pointing
Name	Calling	Name-calling

4.4.5. Table 6 Examples of Compound Nouns formed from Preposition + Noun

(Preposition) +	Noun	New Word
In	Mate	Inmate
Down	Fall	Downfall
Off	Spring	Offspring
Under	World	Underworld
In	Law	In-law
After	Noon	Afternoon

4.4.6. Table 7 Examples of Compound Adjectives formed from Noun + Adjective:

NOUN +	ADJECTIVE	NEW WORD
Home	Grown	Homegrown
Snow	White	Snow-white
Desk	Top	Desktop

Sky	Blue	Sky-blue
Lap	Top	Laptop
Home	Sick	Homesick

4.4.7. Table 8 Examples of Compound Adjectives formed from adjective + adjective:

ADJECTIVE +	ADJECTIVE	NEW WORD
Dull	Grey	Dull Grey
Red	Hot	Red-hot
Blue	Black	Blue-black
Dark	Blue	Dark-blue
Lemon	Green	Lemon green

4.4.8. Table 9 Examples of Compound Adjectives formed from Preposition + participles.

Preposition +	Participles	New Word
In	Born	Inborn
Out	Standing	Outstanding
Ever	Lasting	Everlasting

Ever	living	ever living
Down	Trodden	Downtrodden

4.5. Compound Verbs: A compound verb is usually composed of the following; a preposition + a verb or vice versa, an adverb + a verb, an adjective + verb, a noun + verb, and a preposition + noun although other combinations may also exist. From a morphological point of view, some compound verbs are difficult to analyse because several derivations are possible. The word *blacklist* for instance, might be analysed as an adjective + a verb or as an adjective + a noun that becomes a verb through zero derivation. Most compound verbs originally have the collective meaning of both components, but some of them later gain additional meanings that may supersede the original, emergent sense. Sometimes, the resultant meanings are seemingly barely related to the original contributors.

4.5.1. Table 10 Examples of Compounds Verbs formed from Noun + verb:

Noun +	Verb	New Word
Back	Bite	Back-bite
Ear	mark	Earmark
Type	Write	Type-write
Trouble	shoot	Troubleshoot
Brain	Drain	Brain drain

4.5.2. Table 11 Examples of Verbs formed from Preposition + verb:

Preposition +	Verb	New Word
Under	Take	Undertake
Over	Throw	Overthrow
Fore	Tell	Foretell
Down	Load	Download
Out	Line	Outline

4.5.3. Table 12 Examples of Verbs formed from verb + preposition:

Verb +	Preposition	New Word
Plug	In	Plug-in
Log	On	Log-on
Log	Out	Log-out

4.5.4. Table 13 Examples of Verbs formed from adjective + verbs:

Adjective	Verb	New Word
Short	List	Shortlist
Black	List	Blacklist
White	Wash	Whitewash

4.6. Table 14 Examples of Adverbs formed from Adverb + preposition:

Adverb	preposition	New Word
Where	By	Whereby
Where	In	Wherein
Where	upon	Whereupon
How	Ever	However

4.7. Plural Formation in English Compounds

- (I) The First Word in the Compound changes to plural while the Second Word does not.

Examples are shown below:

Ladies in Waiting

Men in Uniform

Prisoners of Conscience

Brothers in-law

Passers-by

Women of Faith

Reasons why

- (II) The Second Word in the compound changes to Plural while the first word remains the same:

Ex – Soldiers

By –laws

Best-friends

Head-masters

Female – Attorneys

Camp- Fires

- (III) Both first and second words change to plural form:

Men-killers

Visitors Cards

Patients Records

Drivers Licenses

Oxen-farmers

4.7.1. Hyphenated compound modifiers

It is always advisable to consult the dictionary to determine whether a compound modifier should be hyphenated or not. Hyphens in some words die out when such usage becomes common. Hyphens are also unnecessary where there is no ambiguity, or where the modifiers are regularly used. Look at the following examples:

small scale industry: an industry producing small scales

small-scale industry: an industry producing any product on a small-scale.

Capitalisation or the title case could also help to clarify what hyphens could do like in these examples:

old English Scholar: an old person who is English and a [Scholar](#), or an old scholar who studies [English](#)
Old English scholar: a scholar of [Old English](#)

Hyphenated compound modifiers occur at different instances:

i) Where an adjective is preceding a noun, and when this phrase in turn is preceding another noun. [Round table](#) → round-table conference, four wheels → [four-wheel drive](#)

ii.) Where a verb is preceding an adjective or an adverb:

Feel good → feel-good factor

Buy now, pay later → buy-now pay-later purchase

iii.) Yet, others are created with an original verb preceding a [preposition](#).

Stick on → stick-on label

Stand by → stand-by vehicle

The following compound modifiers are always hyphenated when they are not written as one word:

- i.) An adjective preceding a noun to which /-d/ or /-ed/ has been added as a [past-participle](#) construction, used before a noun: ‘first-class citizen’ or ‘a middle-aged man’.
- ii.) A noun, adjective, or adverb preceding a [present participle](#). For example, a long-lasting relationship, and a far-reaching decision.
- iii.) When using numbers, whether spelled or not: ‘five-sided [polygon](#)’, ‘21st-century scholar’, ‘10th-storey building’, etc.
- iv.) A numeral with the affix (-fold) has a hyphen as in ‘10-fold’ but when written in words, it takes a solid construction ‘tenfold’.
- v.) Numbers, when written in words or not, with an additional ‘-odd’: sixteen-odd, 70-odd.
- vi.) Compound modifiers with ‘high- or low’: ‘high-level discussion’, ‘low-price homes’.
- vii.) Colours in compounds like for example. ‘a dark-blue pair of trousers’.
- viii.) Fractions used as modifiers are hyphenated: for example. ‘five-eighths inches’, but if the [numerator](#) or [denominator](#) are already hyphenated, the fraction itself does not take a hyphen: example ‘a thirty-three thousandth part’.
- ix.) Comparatives and superlatives in compound adjectives also take hyphens: example ‘the highest-placed competitor’ or ‘a short-term loan’.

However, a construction with ‘most’ is not hyphenated: for example ‘the most respected member’.

x.) Compounds including two geographical modifiers are hyphenated: for example, ‘African-American’.

The following compound modifiers are not normally hyphenated: i) those compounds without any ambiguity: for example, ‘a Sunday morning walk’.

ii) Left-hand components of a compound modifier that end in /-ly/ and that modify right-hand components that are past participles ending in /-ed/: for example, ‘a highly debated answer’, or ‘a greatly improved scheme’.

iii) Compound modifiers that include [comparatives](#) and [superlatives](#) with (more, most, less or least): e.g. ‘a more recent development’, or ‘the ‘most reputable member’.

When using a group of compound nouns, there are special rules. When multiple compound nouns with the same ‘head’ are used together, there will be a conjunction, with hyphens and commas: e.g. ‘the third- and fourth-grade teachers met with the parents’ or ‘we don’t see many 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children around here’.

4.8.Lamnsó Compound Words

A compound word in Lamnsó may be defined as “a word with two or more independent words with or without an affix whose meaning is non-compositional.”(Wiryen: Upcoming) They function as Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs and Adverbs. Some of the compounds are phonologically marked whereas others are phonologically unmarked.

4.8.1. Lamnsó Phonologically Marked Compounds

These are seen where one or all the morphemes in a compound word have the same spelling with another entirely different morpheme/s. In such instances, phonological marking helps to differentiate the words with the use of accents. In the examples below, the /M/ stands for phonologically marked and /UM/ stands for phonologically unmarked¹) ‘*Bám lav*’ (Back of house), = (Space behind the house/ a toilet) M.

1) ‘*Bam lav*’ (hill of house), = (A house that you have to climb a hill before getting there) UM.

2) ‘*Cú nyùý*’ (spitting god), = (The act of despising idolatry) M.

2) ‘*Cu Nyùý*’ (Offering to God), = (Church Offertory or the act of serving God) UM.

3) ‘*ɣkaa lá*’ (Cluster of houses), = (a City) M.

3) ‘*ɣka la*’ (A payment that is made as a settlement to a dispute) UM.

4.9. Types of Lamnsó Compound Words

We have named four types of Lamnsó compounds Words based on their components or way of formation. These types are adopted from Mustapha (2004) cited in Gumel (2008) in which he identified five types for Hausa Compound words, but we found four types suitable for the Lamnsó Compound words.

4.9.1. Composed Compounds: These compounds are composed from an action or from the function they perform. For example,

i) ‘*kimbébiy*’ (carrier of kola nuts) = ‘a donkey’. This animal carries assorted things but it was commonly used by our forefathers for carrying kola nuts to markets far and near even right to Yola and Kano markets in Nigeria. We also have:

ii) ‘*Nsaálav*’ (ground of house) = (the floor of a house). This was composed when mud floors were still the other of the day. But nowadays the word ‘*nsaálav*’ usually takes some ‘qualifier or

modifier' like *'nsaálav cemen'* or *'nsaálav ye wayin'* = (a cemented floor) or *'nsaálav tilesi'* = (a tiled floor). Also the word:

iii) *'Kitú ke lav'* (head of a house) = (a roof) is also a composed compound. These are just a few examples out of many composed compounds that exist in Lamnsó.

4.9.2. Juxtaposed Compounds: The words are simply brought together without any alterations. There are so many Lamnsó compounds that are juxtaposed together. This happens mostly when there is an analogical comparison of the words in question. For example:

A) *'ntoò ndzév'* (anus of river) = (a spring). The water springing out of the ground follows a particular vent and it is unstoppable just like when the human anus is experiencing diarrhea or dysentery. We also have:

B) *'ɲkfey kisoó'* = (a used up hoe that is no longer sharp). Now, *'ɲkfey'* means (a leper i.e. someone suffering from leprosy) but in this case it is an analogy to a hoe, *'ɲkfey + kisoó'*; a hoe that is no longer useful just like a leper who is isolated and is no longer considered useful to the society. Even if it were to be structural comparison, the fingers and toes of a leper are usually chopped off by the disease to look like a worn out hoe.

4.9.3. Phrasal Compounds: Phrasal compounds in Lamnsó are used figuratively as idioms or metaphors. Examples of phrasal compounds include the following:

i. *'shwá fer woj'* (knife make world) = (the knife of creation). The word *'shwá'* means knife, but when used in this way, it is no longer the ordinary knife used for cutting. It is used here to refer to the male reproductive organ which plays a crucial role in procreation and ensures continuity of the human race.

ii. ‘Wán ḡgvḡv wù ntèḡ’ (a chick that is lame) = (a chick that is handicapped). This is used to refer to someone who is precautious or someone who guards against trouble or doesn’t spend money carelessly. The word has nothing to do with a chick, but it is used metaphorically.

iii. ‘Wán ḡgvḡv ntàḡrì’ (a chick/chicken for sacrifice) = (Sacrificial chicken) or what is commonly known in English as (a scapegoat). This is used to refer to someone who suffers unjustly or who is a victim of circumstances.

4.9.4. Linked Compounds: They are formed by compounding two lexemes which are connected

by a linker. This linker can be a single letter that is determined by the phonological environment.

Also, the linkers act as class changing morphemes. For example, the Lamnsó word ‘*kimbinkir*’

(turn inside out) = (inside out) is made up of four morphemes. ‘*Bin*’ is the root which means (to turn). It has taken a prefix ‘*ki*’ which means (something) and this could be anything and a suffix

‘*kir*’ (an enclitic) that, according to McGarrity and Botne, (2002) “are common to all Niger-

Congo languages” or what Yuka, (2008:2) refers to as “an extension to the base form of a verb.”

‘*Bin*’, which is a simple verb in this example, becomes a complex one ‘*binkir*’. An ‘*m*’ is further introduced before ‘*bin*’ as a syntactic rule that takes place whenever ‘*ki*’ is be put before some

words that begin with the consonant sounds like: /b/, /j/, /t/, /g/ etc. Letter ‘*m*’, in the above

example is a grammatical word. Here are more illustrations: ‘*ki*’ + ‘*bùn*’ + ‘*fon*’ = ‘*Kimbùnfon*’,

which means (greetings to the royal leader who is called the Fon usually done in a group or an

entourage), ‘*ki*’ + *bì* + *nin* = *Kimbi’nin* (imitation). *Ki* + ‘*seḡ*’ (to display) becomes

‘*kinseḡ*’ (a war dance)

Ki + ‘*jà*’ (to shiver) becomes ‘*kinjà*’ (a fever)

Ki + ‘*wìy*’ (to come) becomes ‘*kingwìy*’ (a stranger)

It should be noted that the letter ‘m’ in the above example is the only letter that comes before all the consonant letters stated above. Different letters attract variant sounds like: /n/, /ŋ/, and even double consonant clusters like /ŋg/, /ŋj/ etc. (See also 2.5).

These morphemes are: the ‘free’ morpheme which can either be a ‘root’ or a ‘stem’ and the ‘bound’ morpheme which cannot stand on its own as an independent word. It must be attached to a free morpheme or a free form to make meaning (Syal and Jindal, 2001: 62).

4.10. Lamnsó Compound Nouns: The Lamnsó compound nouns are so many and in most cases one of its components is a noun which comes together with another word class. This could be a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an enclitic, assuming either 1st or 2nd position as demonstrated below: However this is not to say that it is a rule because there are other compound nouns that none of their components is a noun.

4.10.1. Lamnsó Compound Nouns formed from a Noun + a Noun

i. ‘*Shuù* N + *Lav*’ N = ‘*Shuùlav*’ N (Mouth + House) = (a door). A door here is seen as, or is compared to the mouth which allows food and water into the stomach. The door too is seen as an opening in a building that allows people in and out of it.

ii. ‘*Shuù* N + *Faáy*’ N = ‘*Shuùfaáy*’ N (Mouthpiece + Sub Clan) = (Ruler of a Sub Clan). He is the ruler of his subjects and therefore their mouthpiece that relays their problems to the Fon (King). The ‘*Shuùfaáys*’ usually have semi-autonomous powers over the ‘*Faáys*’ (Compound Heads) and they are well respected in their areas of jurisdiction.

iii. ‘*Ntoò* N + *Ndzèv*’ N = ‘*Ntoòndzèv*’ (Anus of a River) = (a Spring). The spot where water gushes out or oozes out of the ground is said to be the anus of a stream or a river. This analogy

explains why Dysentery is known as ‘*Ntoòmbùn*’ in Lamnsó and Diarrhea is known as ‘*Ntoòbvəm*’.

4.10.2. Lamnsó Compound Nouns formed from a Verb + a Noun

In Lamnsó, when most Verbs are compounded with a Noun to form a compound Noun, a Consonant letter mostly an ‘M’ or an ‘N’ and sometimes enclitics like ‘*Ki*’ will prefix the Consonant letter in front of the verb or the modifier in the final analysis as demonstrated below.

i. ‘*Shìy V + lav N*’ = ‘*Nshìylav*’ (wait + House) = (a Palace Servant/Steward)

ii. ‘*Shìy V + Lá N*’ = ‘*Nshìylá*’ (Guard + Compound) = (a Gateman or Watchman).

iii. ‘*Su V + Lá N*’ = ‘*Nsulá*’ (Wash + Compound) = (a Cleaner)

iii. ‘*Fuy V + Táv N*’ = ‘*Mfuy Táv*’ (Thatch + Hut) = (a Hut Thatcher)

iv. ‘*Bóm’ V + Nyuy N*’ = ‘*Mbóm Nyuy*’ (Create + God)

= (God Created or God’s Creature).

v. ‘*Káj V + Nyám N*’ = ‘*Kinkájnyám*’ (Fry + Meat) = (Meat fryer).

vi. ‘*Shaa V + Dzəə N*’ = ‘*Nshaadzəə*’ (Pass + Road) = (Passerby)

The above illustrations do not however suggest that there are no other verbs that compound directly with the nouns without modifications. For example, the Lamnsó word ‘*Sham V + Mendzən N*’ = ‘*Sham Mendzən*’ = (Take + Pity) = (Have Compassion or an Act of Forgiveness).

4.10.3. Lamnsó Compound Nouns formed from an Adjective + a Noun

Such words vary according to the purpose they are serving and their degree. They can quantify, indicate number, compare, or reveal details or quality of what is being talked about.

The following examples suggest quantity: ‘*Shi*’ stands for (small) while ‘*Me*’ stands for much.

i. ‘*Shi*’ Adj. + ‘*Ndzə̀v*’ N = (Small/Little Water) while ‘*Me*’ Adj. + ‘*Ndzə̀v*’ =

(Much Water or Water in the general sense). We also have:

ii. ‘*Shi/Me*’ Adj. + ‘*Njàaŋ*’ N ‘*Shinjaàŋ*’ (Small Castor Oil). ‘*Menjàaŋ*’ (Much Castor Oil, or Unmeasured amount of Castor Oil).

iii. ‘*Shi/Me*’ Adj. + ‘*ŋgvə̀r*’ N ‘*Shiŋgvə̀r*’ (Small Palm Oil) and ‘*Meŋgvə̀r*’ (Much Palm Oil).

On the other hand, the adjectives demonstrated above, when used in other contexts, will represent number or singular and plural as shown below:

i. ‘*Shi*’ + ‘*Lu*’ ‘*Shilu*’ = (One Keg of Palmwine) ‘*Me + Lu*’ ‘*Melu*’ (More than one keg)

ii. ‘*Shi*’ + ‘*Njàr*’ ‘*Shinjaàr*’ = (One small bird) ‘*Me + Njàr*’ ‘*Menjaàr*’ = (Many small birds)

iii. ‘*Shi*’ + ‘*Jiy*’ ‘*Shijiy*’ = (One Star) ‘*Me + Jiy*’ ‘*Mejiy*’ = (Many Stars).

4.10.4. Lamnsó Compound Nouns formed from the Enclitic ‘*ŋgaà*’ + a Noun

The enclitic ‘*ŋgaà*’ can be used in different contexts to mean one of the following: (someone who..., Owner of..., Custodian of ..., or it could be an undisclosed referent, mimicry, an insult, etc.). The following examples are just few out of many:

i. ‘*ŋgaà + Mbàm*’ N ‘*ŋgaàmbàm*’ (Owner of Money) = (a rich man).

- ii. *‘ηγαὰ + Shív N’ ‘ηγαὰshív’* (Owner of Medicine) = (a herbalist).
- iii. *‘ηγαὰ+ Nshiy’ ‘ηγαὰnshiy’* (Someone who Guards) = (Shepherd, Herdsman, Night Watch, Gate man, Forest Guard, Vigilante, Farm Guard etc.)
- iv. *‘ηγαὰ + Kpú’ ‘ηγαὰkpú’* (someone who is dead). This is used while talking about a deceased person, especially one whose passing was very painful or very tragic.
- v. *‘ηγαὰ + Vəy’ ‘ηγαὰvəy’* (someone who did something good or bad). This used to refer to someone who is the subject of a discussion known to the speakers but they whose identitythe discussants do not want to reveal to a third party.
- vi. *‘ηγαὰ + Ru’ ‘ηγαὰ Ru’*(Someone who owns a palm forest or a tenant/Custodian of a palm forest who taps wine from and takes care of it but he is not the owner.)

4.10.5. Lamnsó Compound Nouns formed from the Enclitic ‘ηγαὰ’ + a Verb

- i. *‘ηγαὰ + yov’ ‘ηγαὰ yov’* (Someone who sings) = (a Singer).
- ii. *‘ηγαὰ + lim’ ‘ηγαὰlim’* (Some who does a particular type of work). The meaning depends on the context in which it is used. It could mean (a hired labourer, a mason, a plumber, a maid, etc.)
- iii. *‘ηγαὰ + yún’ ‘ηγαὰyún’* (Someone who buys) = (a buyer).
- iv. *‘ηγαὰ + ceŋ’ ‘ηγαὰ ceŋ’* (Someone who dances) = (a dancer).
- v. *‘ηγαὰ + duŋri’ ‘ηγαὰ-duŋri’* (Someone who teaches or shows you something) = (a teacher or an instructor).

4.10.6. Compound Nouns formed from the Enclitic ‘*ηgaà*’ + an Adjective

- i. ‘*ηgaà + fiír*’ ‘*ηgaà-fiír*’ (someone who is clever) = (a clever person). But it could also be used in the negative sense to mean someone who is cunning or crafty.
- ii. ‘*ηgaà + goó*’ ‘*ηgaà-goó*’ (someone who is selfish) = (a selfish person).
- iii. ‘*ηgaà + gon*’ ‘*ηgaàgon*’ (someone who is often ill/sick) = (a sickly person).
- iv. ‘*ηgaà + vibiy*’ ‘*ηgaà-vibiy*’ (someone who is always angry) = (an angry person).
- v. ‘*ηgaà + baà*’ ‘*ηgaàbaà*’ (someone who is mad) = (a madman/woman).

4.10.7. Lamnsó Compound Adjectives

The Lamnsó Compound adjectives are often used just like nouns but they describe: - a person’s actions/qualities, - a thing, - a concept, or a situation. The meaning may be direct or figurative as we shall see from the sub-sections treated below:

4.10.8. Lamnsó Compound Adjectives formed from a Verb + a Preposition

- i. ‘*Ghàn V + Yuf* Prep.’ ‘*Ghànyuf*’ = (Walk + Up and Down/About) = (a Prostitute or an irresponsible man who moves about with nothing to show for his movements)
- ii. ‘*Li V + Mbìy* Prep.’ ‘*Kilimbìy*’ = (Take + First position) = (Outstanding performer in any field or a group leader).
- iii. ‘*Du V + Bàm* Prep.’ ‘*Dubàm*’ = (Go + Behind) = (Someone who retrogresses in life)
- iv. ‘*Wiy V + Bàm* Prep.’ ‘*Wiybàm*’ = (Come + Back) = (Someone who is last).

4.10.9. Lamnsó Compound Adjectives formed from a Verb + a Noun

i. ‘*Shaa V + ngàm N*’ = ‘*Shaanngàm*’ (Pass + Week) = (a fake product). This name is derived from the fact that fake goods are not durable; in other words, they last for relatively a week. It is thus referred to as something that is short-lived and lasts just for a week and before long, you are back to the market for another one.

We also have compound adjectives that during their formation there is a presiding preposition before the noun as seen below:

- i. ‘*Naá V ghaa Prep.Lav N*’ (Cook beside house) = (Cooking beside the house). This is used to refer to a type of prostitute who rents a single room beside the road and cooks outside her room. She uses the aroma from her foods to seduce or entice men who pass by. The wayward ones who accept her food, end up in bed with her or are simply hypnotized and their pockets are emptied.
- ii. ‘*Neem fó nkuùr*’ (Lie down in the evening) = (someone who goes to bed very early because he doesn’t work hard within the days). This is used to refer to someone who is lazy and irresponsible. Such a person goes to bed early while those who worked hard in the day are still returning home or are still cooking their evening meals.

4.10.10. Lamnsó Compound Adjectives formed from an Adjective + a Noun

- i. ‘*Ghá Adj. + Ntav N*’ ‘*Ghántav*’ (Tough + Strong person) = (a very strong /brave person who is always unbeatable).
- ii. ‘*Ghá N + Tú*’ N ‘*Ghátú*’ (Tough + Head) = (a very stubborn/heady person).

4.10.11. Lamnsó Compound Adjectives formed from a Noun+ a Noun

iii. 'Kiwó N + Ntòḡ N' 'Kiwòntòḡ' (Hand on Anus) = (a very stingy person).

iv. 'Kiwó N + Sḗlà N' 'Kiwósḗlà' (Hand in Pants) = (a very lazy person).

4.11. Lamnsó Compound Verbs

Lamnsó Compound Verbs are used to describe the subject's actions or they may describe the actions of someone close or related to the bearer as is the case with some Lamnsó names.

4.11.1 Verbs formed from a Verb + a Verb as mostly seen in some Lamnsó Names

i. 'Lum V + Fersi V' 'Lumfersi' (bite and blow) = someone who hurts you cunningly while pretending to be good or harmless.

ii. 'Yen V + adu V' 'Yenadu' (See and Go) = someone who lost a parent at birth or soon after he/she was born. The parent barely saw the baby and then kicked the bucket. It is mostly used for children whose mothers passed on in the process of giving birth to them.

iii. 'Lem V + Lo V' 'Lemlo' (Keep and Leave) = someone who was born during the death of a grandparent. The presence of Parents gives their children some protection and reassurance. When they pass on, it is as though their shield has been taken away. They can then name their own child as 'Lemlo' lamenting the fact that they have been left alone by their loved one.

iv. 'Lo V + Mai V' 'Lomai' (Leave and Finish) = Name given to a child who was born into a family that has lost many of its members. It is like saying: "please death has finished your family. So try to stay alive".

4.11.2. Verbs formed from a Verb + a Noun

- i. *'Li + Kici'* = *'Likici'* (Take + Stick) = (A controversial attitude) = an attitude whereby someone always disagrees with others and incites quarrels.
- ii. *'Li + Kitsé'* (Take + inheritance) = the act of inheriting a particular character or attitude from one's parent/s.
- iii. *'Nye + Nsəé'* (Excrete + Soot) = the habit of speaking vulgar language to others which is disrespectful attitude.

4.11.3. Verbs formed from a Verb + Preposition

- i. *'Ka' áy'* (to light up).
- ii. *'ḡá' ár'* (to tilt up).
- iii. *'Ya' áy'* (to jump over/cross over).
- iv. *'Mvə' ém'* (to open up).
- v. *'Dze' ém'* (to sit down).
- vi. *'Sé' ér'* (to take down).

4.12. Lamnsó Compound Adverbs

Most Lamnsó compound Adverbs are derived from the duplication of verbs, adverbs or adjectives as seen below:

- i. *'Sí' Sí'* (hesitantly/ hesitatingly).

- ii. ‘*Jíj Jíj*’ (Hungrily).
- iii. ‘*Jívi Jívi*’ (Sluggishly).
- iv. ‘*Nsaánsaá*’ (Openly or transparently).
- v. ‘*Cér Cé*’ (Quickly)
- vi. ‘*Jum Jum*’ (Chasingly).
- vii. ‘*Ntéjntéj*’ (again and again).

4.12.1. Compound Adverbs formed from Adverbs + Pronouns

- i. ‘*Ku* Adv. + *Mo* Pronoun.’ ‘*Kumo*’ (But me).
- ii. ‘*Si* Adv. + *Ver* Pronoun.’ ‘*Siver*’ (Just we/us).
- iii. ‘*Ku* Adv. + *Wò* Pronoun.’ ‘*Kuwò*’ (But you).
- iv. *Si* Adv. + *áwune* Pronoun.’ ‘*Siáwune*’ (Just them).

4.13. Compounds Nouns Formed By Reduplication

Lamnsó compound Nouns formed via the Reduplication process consist of two lexemes which look the same. Nevertheless, the two words may phonologically look the same but their semantic meanings vary. This is true of the following examples with the exception of (ii) which is an onomatopoeic word derived from the sound produced while eating sugar cane:

- i. ‘*Wán wán*’ (Child of a Child) = (a Grand child). N
- ii. ‘*ḡwáḡwáḡ*’ (Sugar cane). N

iii. ‘*Yaáyá*’ (Old woman). N

iv. ‘*Taátá*’ (Old man). N

v. ‘*Kam V Kam N*’ (stingy the stinginess) = (a Stingy person). The first word here is an adjective talking about the person’s attitude and the second word, though lexically similar, is a noun representing the concept of selfishness.

vi. ‘*Tartar*’ (Father of Father) = (Paternal Grandfather).N

vii. ‘*Tan Tan*’ (Lack the poverty) = (Someone who is so much in lack) i.e. poor to the core.

Actually, this word is supposed to be ‘*Tan V + Kitan N*’ but what you have is ‘*Tan*’, while ‘*Ki*’ is clipped off as a convention.

viii. ‘*Ntúntúy*’ (A digging digger) = (a jigger: A parasite that enters into human feet and bodies of animals especially pigs from dusty and dirty environments).

4.14. Compound Adjectives formed from Reduplication Most compound adjectives formed by reduplication are meant to show the degree, attitude and to present the dominant features of what is being talked about.

i. ‘*Shùmshúm*’ (To be nervous or restless) Attitude.

ii. ‘*Juj Juj*’ (Very fine/beautiful) Degree.

iii. ‘*Taj Taj*’ (Very tough) Degree.

iv. ‘*Fúm Fúm*’ (A conspicuous Forehead).Dominance

v. *'Bvem Bvem'* (A protruding stomach). Especially as seen in children suffering from malnutrition.

vi. *'Vighvêr Vighvêr'* (Bony meat/skinny person). A look at these last three examples shows that Nouns are reduplicated to become adjectives since they are not used as nouns in such contexts but as adjectives.

4.15. Compound Verbs formed from Reduplication

They also look like products of reduplication but their verbs are actually being attached to their cognate objects.

i. *'Fer fer'* (Doing V the Doing N) (To be doing a good job in your field).

ii. *'Ker ker'* (Bird N hunting N).

iii. *'Ceŋ ceŋ'* (Dancing V a Dance N)

iv. *'Jwím Jwím'* (hunting V the hunt N) i.e. (Go hunting).

v. *'yov yov'* (singing V a song N).

It worth noting here that, the compound verbs above are formed by compounding a verb and a noun though they are lexically the same but they mean different things when used in different contexts. The lexical structures are the same but their semantic structures are not the same.

4.16. Reduplicated Personal Pronouns

Reduplicated Personal Pronouns are used to lay emphasis and stress on what is being talked about.

- i. ‘*Mómò*’ (I myself).
- ii. ‘*Wówò*’ (You yourself).
- iii. ‘*Wúnwun*’ (He himself/she herself).

Grebe (2008:71) cites them as “Emphatic Personal Subject Pronouns” that have dissimilar tone patterns as you can see in the above examples.

4.17. Lamnsó Compound Pronouns

They are written as separate words as seen below:

- i. ‘*Vèr wun*’ (Me and Him/her) = (We, speaker + another person).
- ii ‘*Vèr áwune*’ (Me and them). = (We, speaker + other people).
- iii. ‘*Vèn wun*’ (You and him/her). = (They, two persons – the speaker).
- iv. ‘*Vèn áwune*’ (You and them). = (They, many people but - the speaker).
- v. ‘*Vèsən áwune*’ (We and them). = (We, many people + the speaker).
- vi. ‘*Wùn wun*’ (he and he/ She and she). = (They, two people – the speaker).
- vii. ‘*Wùn áwune*’ (He/she and them). (They, many people – the speaker).

4.18. Frozen Reduplicated Compound Nouns

This type of compounds do not lend themselves to easy analysis. The components do not reveal anything about the word they are representing. Their etymology cannot be traced easily.

Such words include:

- i. *'Nywèmnyem'* (a type of grasshopper).
- ii. *'Kfàrkfàr'* (a creeping grass).
- iii. *'Mbòṣmbòṣ'* (an antelope).
- iv. *'Nteémnteém'* (A destructive caterpillar that can eat up all the leaves from a tree).
- v. *'Mbaṣ-mbaṣ'* (a small house or a hut).
- vi. *'Naṣ Naṣ'* (an Indian Bamboo).

4.19. Phrasal Compounds in Lamnsó

Phrasal compounds in Lamnsó are mostly nouns as seen in the following examples:

- i. *'Kiwiy ke kpú'* (Coming together + 'ke' + Death) = (Death Celebration).
- ii. *'Kinsham ke kpú'* (Condoling + 'ke' + Death) = (Condolence Visit/Message).
- iii. *'Kilòṣ ke taamin ki'* (Neck + 'ke' Hanging) = (Sore throat).
- iv. *'Bvem ye báyini'* (Stomach + 'ye' Aching) = (Stomach ache).
- v. *'Kitú ke bumin ki'* (Head + 'ke' + aching + 'ki') = (Headache).

Apart from these phrasal compound nouns, there are also question-like compounds which are mostly idiomatic. We have examples such as the one given below:

i) ‘*Yar à yii ka?*’ (Leave it and be doing what?). Used to refer to something that you are doing without passion for it or without having a sufficient reward from it, but you can’t quit because you don’t have a choice.

4.20. Plural Formation in Lamnsó Compound Words

The Lamnsó plural morpheme can be a prefix, a suffix, a replacive, or an enclitic between the two words being pluralized. The plural morphemes are: A, Me, Vi, i, Si, and se. On the other hand, some words are pluralized by leaving out the first word. The following are some examples:

4.20.1. The First Word in the Compound changes to plural while the Second Word does not.

i) ‘*Nshaa-dzəḙ*’ (Passer-by) = ‘*Anshaa-dzəḙ*’ (Passers-by).

ii) ‘*ḡgaàceḡ*’ (A dancer) = ‘*Aḡgaàceḡ*’ (Dancers).

iii) ‘*ḡgaàgon*’ (a sickly person) = ‘*Aḡgaàgon*’ (sickly persons).

iv) ‘*ḡgaà-vibiy*’ (an angry person) = ‘*Aḡgaà-vibiy*’ (Angry persons).

iv) ‘*Mfi’shuu*’ (a boaster) = ‘*Amfi’shuu*’ (boasters).

4.20.2. Both the first and second Words in the compound change to indicate Plural:

i) ‘*Kúr-kitàv*’ (Man in Uniform) = ‘*AKúr-vitàv*’ (Men in Uniforms)

ii) ‘*ḡgaà-shilu*’ (Owner of one keg of palmwine) = ‘*Aḡgaà-melu*’ (Owners of more than one keg of palmwine).

iii) ‘*Nkóm-kitú*’ (a barber) = ‘*Ankóm-yítú*’ (barbers).

iv) ‘*Nshìylah*’ (a watchman) = ‘*Anshìy-lahsì*’ (watchmen).

v) ‘*Nshìynà*’ (herdsman) = ‘*Anshìy-anà*’ (herdsmen).

vi) ‘*Mfi’shuulav*’ (a door measurement) = ‘*Mfi’sè shuu sè lav*’ (door measurements).

4.20.3. Some words that have a plural version when used in another context tend to remain in singular form, while the plural indicator is their modifier or qualifier. For example:

i. ‘*Wir*’ (person) is singular while ‘*Wirì*’ (persons/people) is plural. But in a compound word like ‘*MangoṅWir*’ (a crowd of people), it is ‘*Mangoṅ*’ that is indicating plurality.

ii. ‘*Wir mensuùṅ*’ (everybody), the plural indicator is the qualifier ‘*mensuùṅ*’, while ‘*wir*’ is used as if it were singular just like in English where everybody is not written as everybodies even though the word is collective.

iii. We also have ‘*Lav Nyùy*’ (house of God) = (Church) and ‘*Lav se Nyùy*’ (houses of God) = (Churches). This word ‘*lav*’ (house) when used in isolation, has its plural as ‘*lavsi*’ (houses), but in this context it is not the same.

4.20.4. Some words, especially those compounds that combine person + action/status, tend to replace person ‘*wir*’ with ‘*vee*’ which is an enclitic, whereas ‘*wiri*’ is the plural of ‘*wir*’ when used in isolation. For example:

i. ‘*Wirshàṅ*’ (Prisoner) = ‘*Vee-shàṅi*’ (Prisoners).

ii. ‘*Wirlim*’ (Worker) = ‘*Vee-limi*’ (Workers).

iii. ‘*Wir-nàmà*’ (tobacco/marijuana smoker) = ‘*Vee-nàmà*’ a’ (Smokers).

4.20.5. We equally have irregular plural forms in words like:

i. ‘*Wán wo lumin*’ (A child who is a man) = (a boy) Singular.

‘*Wón ve Vilum*’ (Children who are men) = (Boys) Plural.

ii. ‘*Wán wo wíy*’ (A child who is a woman) = (a girl) Singular.

‘*Wón ve Vikíy*’ (Children who are women) = (Girls) Plural.

iii. ‘*Wánlè ḡgòn*’ (A young lady) Singular.

‘*Wónlè ḡgòn*’ (Young ladies) Plural.

N.B. The English sex indicator (Male/Female) does not have such an equivalent in Lamnsó. What we have is ‘*wíy/lumin*’ = (woman/man) or their plural forms as the case may be. Something like (Female Toilet) in English will be written as ‘*ḡkúy Vikíy*’ which literally means (Women’s Toilet) and so on.

4.20. DISCUSSION

4.20.1. Table 14: Tabular Morphological Comparison of English and Lamnsó Compound

Words

	ENGLISH	LAMNSÓ
1. Definition	Can be defined as a word made up of two or more morphemes which may be independent words, affixes or formed from clipping two words and compounding their products together.	Can be defined as a word with two or more independent words with or without an affix or an enclitic without a compositional meaning or from the duplication of one word.
2. Criteria for Identification.	Identified based on its meaning i.e. Semantics, and Form is its constituents.	Based on its meaning and what it is composed of.
3. Principles	The English compounding process follows or operates on certain principles.	The Lamnsó compounding process also follows its principles.
4. Plural Formation	English plural morphemes have allomorphs which are determined by the Phonological environment.	Lamnsó plurals are also rule-governed but are not straightforward. The plural morphemes do not have allomorphs
5. Reduplication	English does not have reduplicated compounds. It only has rhyming	Lamnsó has a lot of compounds formed by reduplication as

	compounds like crisscross, ring road, ding dong, zig-zag, etc.	already discussed above.
6. Frozen Compounds	There are some compound words that are not easily analyzable and as such they are said to be frozen. Examples are words like <i>shepherd,matador, matron, etc.</i>	Lamnsó also has a lot of frozen compounds. Examples involve words like ‘waàṅgáa’ (a rabbit), ‘nshèkùn’(a house rat), ‘mbvə̀njàṅ’ (a moth) etc.
7. Case Marking	Case marking in English is located in the main verb. Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) claims that case marking is covert (not realized by surface structure) in common nouns and overt (not phonologically expressed) in genitive and personal pronouns (he/him, she/her, they/them, we/us,). These are sensitive to case marking in their “nominative” and “accusative” roles.	Case Marking in Lamnsó seems to be limited to the “nominative” and the “accusative” in the surface structure of sentences. The verbals however do not have direct case marking. For example, ‘Wù yov yov və̀ e lav nyuy’. (He sings sing in house God.), = (He sings his song in the church). “Sings” here is overtly case-marked by the genitive “his”.
8. Conjugation	English verbs conjugate in different forms whether regular or	Lamnsó does not conjugate the verb as is the case in English but

	irregular with respect to the person and the tense. For example, I have, you have, he/she has etc.	the verb remains stable all along. For example, ‘ <i>M kọገ</i> ’, ‘ <i>à kọገ</i> ’, ‘ <i>wù kọገ</i> ’, ‘ <i>áwune kọገ</i> ’ ‘ <i>ves éṅ kọገ</i> ’, I love, you love, He loves, They love, We love.
9. Gender Marking	<p>Woman use Language differently from men. Fishman (1978) and Spender (1980) cited in Simpson (2011). They sound more polite than men. English is equally very sensitive to gender in its use of personal and possessive pronouns. English has well spelt out vocabulary for masculine and feminine nouns like Sultan/Sultana Dutch/Dutchess Lion/Lioness Tiger/Tigress.</p>	<p>Lamnsó is not sensitive to gender like English. Even English is less sensitive to gender than French whose nouns, verbs, and adjectives are very gender sensitive. The Nsó culture is very patriarchal and therefore Lamnsó does not have the pronoun <i>she</i>. Everything is generic. When you say ‘<i>wù</i>’ (He/she), ‘<i>wùn</i>,(Him/her)’ ‘<i>ven</i>’, (them)’ ‘<i>áwune</i>’ (they) etc. It is used for both male and female. Though there are separate terms for some sensitive positions like ‘<i>Taàwòገ</i>’ (Palace high priest) ‘<i>Yeèwòገ</i>’ (Palace high Priestess)</p>
Classification	English compounds are classified	Lamnsó compounds are the

	<p>under the endocentric, the exocentric, the copulative and appositional compounds.</p>	<p>composed, the juxtaposed, the linked, and the phrasal types. However, a critical look at all of them shows that they can still be classified under the endocentric and the exocentric types, but we chose to use Mustapha (2004)'s model of Hausa compound classification cited in Gumel (2008) because it gives more details and it is self-explanatory.</p>
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Detailed Comparism of the Compounding Processes of English and Lamnsó

1) A compound word in English can be defined as a word made up of two or more morphemes which may be independent words, affixes or formed from clipping two words and compounding their products together. A compound word in Lamnsó can be defined as a word with two or more independent words with or without an affix or an enclitic, a duplication of one word without a compositional meaning.

2) The criteria for identification of the English compounds are the semantic classification which includes the endocentric, exocentric, copulative /dvandva, appositional and the formal classification which has to do with the positioning of the words (i. e. the most common order of

constituents where each class of word is modified by adjectives, verbs, adverb, preposition, nouns, etc.) This second principle is found in both Lamnsó and the English Language but there are variations because the position of the word class when translating a Lamnsó word into English or vice versa. The following examples show what I am talking about ‘Su V + Lá N’ = ‘Nsulá’ (Wash + Compound) = (a Cleaner)

‘Fuy V + Táv N’ = ‘Mfuy Táv’ (Thatch + Hut) = (a Hut Thatcher. These examples are also known as link compounds. The word for word translation does not change the word classes but the semantic translation does.

3) There are principles guiding the English compounding process as well as the Lamnsó compounding process which also follows its principles. These principles help to checkmate how words are compounded together to form compound words. That is, everything is rule-governed and not just randomly done.

4) English plural morphemes have allomorphs which are determined by the Phonological environment e.g. /s/ whose allomorphs are /iz/, /s/, /z/ and /ed/ whose allomorphs are /t/, /d/, and /id/ etc. Lamnsó plurals are also rule-governed but are not straight-forward. The plural morphemes do not have allomorphs but can come as a prefix, suffix or within the word to be pluralized. Examples are ‘bàr’ sing. (Cup) = abàr plural (Cups).

‘kòŋ’ sing. (spear) ‘kòŋsi’ (spears) plural.

‘Nsaàlav’ sing. (floor) ‘Nsaà se lav’ plural (floors).

5) Lamnsó has a lot of compounds formed by reduplication as already demonstrated above.

On the other hand, English does not have reduplicated compounds. It only has rhyming compounds like crisscross, ring road, ding dong, zig-zag, hanky-panky, sing-song etc.

6) There are some compound words in both English and Lamnsó that are not easily analyzable and at such they are said to be frozen. Examples in English are words like shepherd, matador, matron, etc. Examples of frozen words in Lamnsó include words like ‘waàṅgáá’ (a rabbit), ‘nshèkùn’(a house rat), ‘mbvènjàṅ’ (a moth) etc.

7) Case marking in English is located in the main verb. Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) claims that case marking is covert (not realized by surface structure) in common nouns and overt (not phonologically expressed) in genitive and personal pronouns (he/him, she/her, they/them, we/us,). These are sensitive to case marking in their “nominative” and “accusative” roles. This is not the same in Lamnsó where case marking seems to be limited to the “nominative” and the “accusative” in the surface structure of sentences. The verbals however do not have direct case marking. For example, ‘Wù yov yov vè e lav nyuy’. (He sings sing his in house God.), (He sings his song in the church). “Sings” here is overtly case-marked by the genitive “his”.

8) English verbs conjugate in different forms whether regularly or irregularly with respect to the person and the tense. For example, I have, you have, he/she has etc. Lamnsó on the other hand does not conjugate the verb as is the case with English but the verb remains stable all along. For example, ‘M koṅi’, ‘à koṅi’, ‘wù koṅi’, ‘áwune koṅi’ ‘vesón koṅi’, (I love it), (you love it), (He loves it), (They love it), (We love it).

9) According to Simpson, (2011:331) “Linguists were keen to gather authentic data to explore and explain folk-linguistic beliefs that males and females speak and act differently (e.g. Fishman 1978; Spender 1980). But scholars in the field have sought to show that language “both in use and as a form of representation was a primary means of constructing gender differences, and at

times hierarchies and inequalities between men and women.” He also mentions (Wenger 2000) who posits that “today’s gender studies have integrated a concern to explore how people’s identities are constructed in gendered ways within localized ‘communities’”.

English is very sensitive to gender in its use of personal and possessive pronouns. There are equally well spelt out vocabulary for masculine and feminine like nouns like King/Queen

Dutch/Dutchess

Lion/Lioness

Tiger/Tigress. Lamnsó is limited in this area in the sense that it uses one name for the animal names mentioned above but the term in use will be qualified with ‘woman’ or man to differentiate.

On the other hand, Lamnsó is Patriarchal especially in administration because it is unheard of that a woman should be crowned a Fon (King) in Nsó land and therefore there is no female representation of a Fon. The title of a ‘Yaà’ (Queen mother) is just a subordinate office to the Fon. This patriarchal authority from inception by the Nsó man reflects itself in the vocabulary of the Language. Lamnsó does not have the pronoun she. Everything is generic. When you say ‘wù’ (He/she), ‘wùn, (Him/her)‘ven’, (them)‘ áwune’ (they) etc. It is used for both male and female. Though there are separate terms for some sensitive positions like ‘Taàwòṅ’ (Palace high priest) ‘Yeèwòṅ’ (Palace high Priestess).

Despite all these, English is not as sensitive to gender like French whose nouns, verbs, and adjectives are very gender sensitive with even the social class, age, and status, being reflected in forms of Language use.

10) The English compounds are classified under the endocentric, the exocentric, the copulative and appositional compounds while the Lamnsó compounds are the composed, the juxtaposed, the linked, and the phrasal types. However, a critical look at all of them shows that they can still be classified under the endocentric and the exocentric types, but we chose to use Mustapha (2004)'s model of Hausa compound classification cited in Gumel (2008) because it more detail and is self-explanatory.

11) Lamnó has phonologically marked compounds while English does not have phonologically marked compounds.

Summary of Meeting Points in the Two Languages

(1).The criteria used in identifying compounds in the two languages are the same. That is the semantic and the compositional criteria.

(2). The Compounding Processes in both languages are rule – governed and conventional.

(3). Words belonging to any part of speech and of any syntactic category can come together as members or morphemes in a compound in both languages.

(4). Both languages have plural formation procedures.

(5). All Compound Nouns in both languages are pluralized.

(6). Both languages have frozen compounds.

(7). Both languages are highly productive as far as compounding is concerned.

(8). Some English compounds are hyphenated as well as some Lamnsó compound words too.

Summary of Departing Points

(1). They have different ways of realizing their plurals. English plural morphemes come at the end of the word to be pluralized except in the case of replacives irregular forms like ox and oxen; while Lamnsó uses plural affixes or linkages.

(2). Lamnsó sometimes pluralizes its adjectives while English does not. Such an instance can be seen a word like ‘kimbàŋ ke kiŋgòm’= (a ripe plantain or banana) i.e. Singular.

‘Vimbàŋ ve Viŋgòm’= (ripe plantains or ripe bananas/a ripe bunch of plantains or a ripe bunch of bananas) i.e. Plural.

(3).English Plurals have straightforward rules unlike Lamnsó plurals that are some how complicated.

(4). Gender realization in English is done by imploring the use of the personal pronouns (he and she) while Lamnsó uses the generic pronoun ‘wù’ for both he/she.

(4). While English makes use of rhyming compounds, Lamnsó has a lot of reduplicated compounds. Though one may argue that a word like (goody goody) in English is a product of reduplication, it alone is insignificant and British English is yet to embrace it.

(5). Lamnsó has phrasal compounds while English does not have. Anderson (1985) is a clear evidence of this argument.

(6). Unlike the English language Lamnsó has phonologically marked compounds.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0.Introduction This chapter presents a brief summary of the work, a general conclusion, and recommendations. This research has probed into a morphological comparison of the English and Lamnsó compound words. By so doing, the typologies and variations found in their compounding processes are revealed. Similarly, the behavior of the compound morphemes and the structural patterns of the two languages are compared. Furthermore, the semantic and pragmatic meanings of the Lamnsó words are explained in English for easy understanding of our audience.

5.1. Summary

The opening chapter provides the motivation, aims and objectives, significance, and the justification of the study. This is then followed by a critical review of existing literature on Morphological Components with special attention to compounding. Data presentation used Nida's descriptive model. The in-depth analysis of the data is self revealing and the question of productivity in the two languages under study is uncontested. The research data was gathered from both primary and secondary sources. Self introspection was paramount to the collection of the Lamnsó data while the English language data was gathered from books and unpublished works consulted in both electronic and manual libraries. We equally benefited from Hockett's (1954) model of Item and Arrangement IA, while the data was compared taxonomically, objectively, and eclectically. In the course of the study, it was discovered that Lamnsó compound words have converging points as well as diverging areas with their English counterparts. The final results are backed by evidence found in the work.

Morphology as a level of linguistic analysis has been explored in the work and it has proven to be relevant as it incorporates compounding which was our pivotal area of focus. The rules surrounding the formation of the compound words were extensively discussed and this enabled us to classify the Lamnsó compound words into different categories and word classes. The recap of the similarities and differences is seen below:

- (1). The criteria used in identifying compounds in the two languages are the same. That is the semantic and the compositional criteria.
- (2). The Compounding Processes in both languages are rule – governed and conventional.
- (3). Words belonging to any part of speech and of any syntactic category, can come together as members or morphemes in a compound in both languages.
- (4). Both languages have plural formation procedures.
- (5). All Compound Nouns in both languages are pluralized.
- (6). Both languages have frozen compounds.
- (7). Both languages are highly productive as far as compounding is concerned.
- (8). They both use hyphens in some of their words.

The differences were observed in the following areas:

- (1). They have different ways of realizing their plurals. English plural morphemes come at the end of the word to be pluralized except in the case of replacives irregular forms like ox and oxen; while Lamnsó uses plural affixes or linkages.

(2). Lamnsó sometimes pluralizes its adjectives while English does not. Such an instance can be seen a word like ‘kimbàŋ ke kiŋgòm’= (a ripe plantain or banana) i.e. Singular.

‘Vimbàŋ ve Viŋgòm’= (ripe plantains or ripe bananas/a ripe bunch of plantains or a ripe bunch of bananas) i.e. Plural.

(3). Gender realization in English is done by imploring the use of the personal pronouns (he and she) while Lamnsó uses the generic pronoun ‘wù’ for both he/she.

(4). While English makes use of rhyming compounds, Lamnsó has a lot of reduplicated compounds. Though one may argue that a word like (goody goody) in English is a product of reduplication, it alone is insignificant and British English is yet to embrace it.

(5). Lamnsó has phrasal compounds while English does not have. Anderson (1985) is a clear evidence of this argument.

(6). Unlike the English language Lamnsó has phonologically marked compounds.

5.2. Conclusion

This study has revealed that both languages are highly productive as they both lend selves to the productive formation of compounds. There is an over-lap in their typology they are both agglutinating, and fussional or semi-inflecting. But added to these two typologies, Lamnsó is partly polysynthetic as well. These two languages also have a similar grammaticaltypology to an extent. This does not mean that they are 100% similar because their grammars still have some departure points as demonstrated in the following examples.

John plays fooball (SVO) ‘John (S) té (V) mbàŋ (O)’ (John plays footaball). (SVO). These verb

phrases are similarly expressed in both languages i.e. the subject followed by the verb and then the object, but the following example shows a difference.

//The newly constructed// building //by your right//. Here, this noun phrase has (a modifier, a noun, and a qualifier) in successive order. But this same noun phrase in Lamnsó will be in a different order.

‘//Lav //ye fiy ye yi dzə̀n //î wò kóy yìyì//’ Here, the noun has come first, followed by a qualifier, and a post qualifier. Also, the number of words in the Lamnsó noun phrase is ten as opposed to seven in the English noun phrase, thus resulting to what translators call “empty equivalence”. Also, the extensive Lamnsó data captures its patterns and structures with detailed descriptions and explanations that reveal both the semantic and pragmatic meanings attached to the words. Furthermore, compounding morphemes behave the same in both languages in the areas of assimilation and elision of sounds but hyphens do not come in between the Lamnsó morphemes as seen in some English compound words. The Descriptive model propounded by Nida, was fully exploited as it enabled us to fully meet our target though not without the taxonomy model. In this research too, the English language has played a pivotal role of a base language whose morphological processes especially in the area of compounding are used as a yardstick to establish the Lamnsó compounds. The English language has equally enabled us to discuss freely and extensively explain what we are buttressing or showcasing about Lamnsó without which we wouldn’t have gone this far. Although English has an upper hand as far as status and international recognition is concerned, we believe in the linguists’ ideology that “No language is more important than the other” and that is why we are striving towards developing documenting and preserving Lamnsó. By so doing, the rich cultural heritage of the Nsó people and their cultural identity has been preserved. Furthermore, compound words play the same role

as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs when used in syntactic constructions. Thus they are considered like lexical items in syntactic constructions and have their dictionary entries. Finally, this research has further confirmed that language universals truly exist but they operate differently in different languages.

5.3. Recommendations

The Intergovernmental Conference of Ministers calls for linguistic studies to be undertaken of all African languages, and for the formation of language policies which promote the preservation of African identity, pluralism and "cognitive preparation for facing the challenges of the next millennium" (Intergovernmental Conference of Ministers on Language Policy in Africa 1997). This call is timely because many Minority African languages are still facing extinction and therefore "individual linguists should see it as their responsibility to rescue or maintain these languages" Musau (2003:156) and Moyo (2003:27). National governments, international bodies, external aid agencies, academic bodies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are all seen as key actors. The crucial role of the minority language-speaking communities themselves is also recognised, although largely as recipients of language reforms. The fact that these communities are not typically influential, socially or politically, causes them to be seen as largely incapable rescuing their own languages Makoni and Meinhof (2003:6). On this note therefore, we recommend that more research should be carried out on Lamnsó either in the area of Morphology or any other level of linguistic analysis. Ours is a maiden morphological study and all future constructive criticisms and corrections will be appreciated. A lot is yet to be done in this very language and as already observed by Trudell (2004), "The survival of any minority language depends paradoxically on both its dynamism and stability". We urge linguists

especially the Lamnsó speaking linguists to research on the language in order to develop new vocabulary that can carry the 21st Century speakers along and by so doing, the language will be preserved and prevented from being swept away by Global village forces. Also the study of Lamnsó and other Cameroonian national languages should be incorporated in to the secondary school curriculum. Cameroon should learn from Nigeria's example where the study of one out of the three chosen national languages is a must to all secondary school students and it is still being debated if these local languages could be used as media of instruction. Lastly, the government of Cameroon should give research grants that could go a long way in motivating individual linguists to research on minority languages that could soon be at risk of extinction if nothing is done about them, and such studies will be a contribution to national development.

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Appendix 1

The Lamnsó Alphabet

*A, aa, b, bv, c, d, dz, e, ee, ə, əə, f, g, gb, gh, ghv, gv, h, í, íí,
j, k, kf, kp, l, m, mv, n, ŋ, ny, o, oo, p, r, s, sh, t, ts, u, uu, , v,
w, y, ‘*

Appendix 11

LamnsóVowels are: (*a, e, ə, i, o*)

Consonant clusters: *gw, jw, kw, ŋw, nyw, shw, mb, mf, mkp, mgb, ndz, nj, nsh, nc,*

nshw, nt, ŋg, ŋgw, ŋk, ŋkw.

Adapted from Grebe, (2008)