A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TlV AND ENGLISH VERBAL SYSTEMS.

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled, ***A Comparative Analysis of Tiv and English Verbal Systems*** has been written by me and it is a record of my own research effort. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree.

All authorities are indicated in the footnotes and sources of information are duly acknowledged in the bibliographical notes to the study.

Signed: 

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis, ***A Comparative Analysis of Tiv and English Verbal Systems*** has been read and approved as satisfying the regulations governing the award of Degree of Master of Arts in English Language in the Department of English and Drama, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife ***JACINTA*** and ***CHILDREN*** - Kevin Stafford (Son), Lily, Linda, Fatima, Juliet and Keziah (Daughters).

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ABSTRACT

The study tries to establish the extent to which the English and Tiv languages differ in their realisational patterns. It also highlights areas of similarities to stress the view that there is something universal about natural languages.

Its first chapter treats the research problem which is an attempt at establishing whether or not a study of this nature has any practical and functional value. That is to say, it tries to determine whether or not the points at which the Tiv and English verbal systems differ, could be a source of difficulty to the Tiv learners of the former. It is also discusses the aims and objectives of the study, its relevance, scope and limitations, basic assumptions, research procedure and definition of concepts.

The second chapter is a review of relevant and related literature on the Tiv verbal system with particular emphasis on the noun-verb symbiosis. It identifies eight verb classes for the Tiv language on the basis of tone and syllabic number and highlights the inextricable relationship the Tiv verb has with its eleven noun classes.

The third chapter looks at the morphological structure of the English verb in terms of its inflectional suffixes and points out the absence of these allomorphic variants in the Tiv verbal system.

The fourth chapter is a comparative analysis of the Tiv and English verbal systems from the point of view of their semantic structures.

The fifth chapter is a summary and conclusion of the study. It also points out the very significant promise the study holds for the development of linguistic science on the one hand and the teaching and learning of English language on the other.

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Chapter 1

Background to the Problem

Detailed investigative studies have revealed that languages of the world differ in varying degrees from one another. The differences notwithstanding, there are "numerous and far-reaching ways in which languages are alike" (Chafe, 1975:6). This study therefore undertakes a comparative analysis of the English and Tiv verbal systems with a view to establishing the extent to which these two languages differ and, simultaneously, to highlight similarities if any.

1.1 *Statement of the Problem*

Although the present work does not have a contrastive analysis as its thrust, it is pertinent to point out that the English verb, viewed against the background of its tense, aspect, voice, modal auxiliaries, finite and non-finiteness, complementation etc. would likely pose some learning difficulties to its Tiv learners. The first problem which this research effort attempts to address, therefore, is to find out if a comparative study of Tiv and English verbal systems has any practical and functional value. In other words, the study tries to highlight the points at which the English and Tiv verbal systems differ and to determine whether or not such differences could enable the linguist to anticipate problems likely to be faced by Tiv learners of the English language. This view is in consonance with that expressed by Le Page (1964: 80) - a view which sees the linguist as one:

> ***who researches into indigenous languages, describes them, prepares contrastive studies, forecasts difficulties likely to be encountered by learners, guides in the preparation of teaching materials which pay special attention to these difficulties and help make effective use of teachers.***

The study draws its inspiration from the above quotation. Its functional and practical significance therefore derives from the potential it has for helping to improve the quality of teaching and learning of English language in Nigeria.

It can therefore, hardly be considered out of place. This is moreso if it is realised that students' performances in General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.) and other English language related examinations have, over the years, been anything but satisfactory.

The need for a research effort of this kind says Oyetunde (1983), is also "more urgent in the light of incessant general public outcry against the falling standard of English among Nigerian students". Not left out in this persistent outcry are the teachers and public examiners whose complaints about language inabilities of our students deserve serious attention. Also commenting on this continuous fall in the standard of English in our Secondary Schools, Sofenwa (1977) in Oyetunde (1983:2), has this to say:

> ***The general impression is that, by and large, the standard of spoken and written English among the current generation of Nigerian students is lower than it was perhaps twenty years ago.***

The Chief Examiner's report for West African Examination Council (WAEC) English for 1979 also deplored this unimpressive performance of our students in English language examinations as follows:

> ***Every year for the past few years, the performance has tended to be worse than the previous years, but this year, there has been a decline in general and there is certainly grave cause for concern about the standard of English teaching and learning in our schools.***

This poor performance of our students in English language examinations has continued unabated. So many reasons ranging from "social acceptability of English, negative attitude of students to poor supportive milieu" says Oyetunde (1983), have been advanced to explain this inexorable incidence of mass failures in English language. But what, he continues, seem to be crucially overlooked, are the learning difficulties which second language learners experience. Confirming this, Rivers as quoted by Oyetunde (1983:3) says:

> ***The major difficulties for the language learner are to be found at those points where the foreign language differs radically from the native language.***

The present study therefore tries to highlight such difficulties as might be triggered by the fundamental differences which exist between English and Tiv verbal configurations.

The second problem to which the study seeks to suggest solutions is to find out if the question of an appropriate orthography of Tiv could be answered via a comparative analysis of the verbal systems of the two languages. There is, at the moment, a serious debate as to what constitutes the standard Tiv orthography. The only variety which seems to be acceptable to most Tiv speakers is the one used in the Tiv version of the Holy Bible as translated by the Bible Society of Nigeria.

This, however, has limitations because the absence of tone markings makes it difficult for readers to readily make out semantic distinctions between homographic words. Getting the correct pronunciation of such words is also difficult because such distinctions could only be made through appropriate tonemic sequences. For example, the word "hụrà" which means "to weed" has a mid, low tonemic sequence. It can hardly be distinguished from "hùrà" which translates as "a rushing noise" when cited in isolation or even when used in sentences.

Tinuoye (1979:117) adds weight to this view when she says:

> ***Tone marking in most African languages serves important semantic functions particularly in disambiguating certain words that cannot be easily assigned meaning without accent marks.***

The tone marks of the Tiv language like those of its English counterpart do not signal semantic differences only; they are also concerned with changes in word classes. For example, "hụrà" with a mid, low tonemic sequence communicates a dynamic activity which in this case is "to weed". 'Weeding' is therefore a word which falls under the word class known as the verbs. 'Hùrà' with a low, low tonemic sequence on the other hand is an adjective qualifying the noun noise. Its being translated as "rushing noise" is therefore instructive.

The same situation, says Tinuoye (1979), obtains in the English language. The language, she points out, "marks this semantic difference with a shift of stress in the words concerned and usually the stress shift indicates a change in word class particularly from verb to noun. Here, verbs of two syllables are differentiated from nouns with a stress shift from the second to the first syllable as in:

Verb	*Noun*
Con'vict	***'Convict***
Con'duct	***'Conduct***
Pro'duce	***'Produce***
Trans'fer	***'transfer***
re'fund	***'refund***
dis'count	***'discount".***

In this study, therefore, the proper place of the tone has been underscored in order to help distinguish one meaning from the other in forms that are graphetically identical. This has been done against the background of the fact that tones are pivotal to the semantic and syntactic realisations in the Tiv language. An orthography which employs tone markings for ease of pronunciation and semantic distinctions, it is hoped, would help put some order to the on-going debate on the quest for a standard Tiv orthography.

Another problem which the study tries to address is to establish whether or not a comparative analysis of the verbal systems of the two languages would enable us to determine "the various morphological and syntactic processes each of them lends itself to and how" (Tinuoye, 1979:21). The thrust here is to determine what promises the study holds for the development of linguistic science on the one hand and the teaching and learning of English language on the other.

1.2 *Aims and Objectives of the Study*

So many studies on the Tiv language have been carried out either from the point of view of the anthropologist or in some cases from the point of view

of the linguist. These studies, though very adequate in their respective rights, do not treat the verb system of Tiv in relation to its English counterpart. There is, for example, Eugene Rubingh's Sons of Tiv (1969) which is an anthropological record of Tiv cosmology, their traditional traits and culture. Others are, Tiv Dictionary with Grammar (1931) by Malharbe, Scholars Vocabulary: English-Tiv (1961) by Maher and Simplified Tiv Grammar (1961) by Guthrie. These publications are primers meant for beginners. They are, therefore, not necessarily perfect reference texts for serious academic discourse. There are also, taxonomic works such as Greenberg's Introduction to the Classification of African Languages (1954), The Languages of Africa (1963), Bantu and its Closest Relatives (1974). Other works include, Bernard Heine's Typology of African Languages (1976) and Leo Sibomana's Is Tiv a Bantu Language (1982). The studies, as their titles suggest, have perspectives that are different from what this work sets out to achieve.

The present study analyses the structural differences that exist between the verbal systems of Tiv and English languages with a view to providing our curriculum planners with information about the points at which such differences could be a source of difficulty in the learning of English as a second language. The objective of the work is therefore to help influence curriculum decisions that could materialise into the production of pedagogical materials that may be beneficial for effective teaching of English in our schools. Also for the same reason, it is expected that textbook writers would find the study most helpful because it could enable them to diagnose those areas that are likely to present difficulties to L_2 learners and, in consequence, prepare texts that will meet the needs of such learners. Areas, which in this regard, may not escape their attention, therefore, are tense, aspect, voice, complementation etc. whose realisations hardly have one-to-one correspondences with what obtains in the languages of Nigerian learners of English.

The study also has the potential for stimulating further research in this area of linguistics because it holds a lot of promise to students of "universal

grammar whose task it is to find out more about the common features of languages spoken by various people of the world" (Tinuoye, 1979: 71).

Finally, it will serve as the researcher's modest contribution to the study of African linguistics: an area which is full of challenges but which, at the moment, remains academically least investigated.

1.3 *Basic Assumptions*

The study is intended to lead us into one basic assumption about the verbal systems of Tiv and English languages. The assumption therefore is that since the verb occupies a central position in language, a comparative approach to its syntactic manifestations would quicken an understanding of the nature of the two languages being compared and that such knowledge gained through linguistic research would help improve the "efficiency of some practical tasks in which language is a central component" (Corder, 1974:5).

1.4 *Scope and Delimitations*

The study has been limited to a comparative analysis of tense, aspect, modal auxiliaries, voice, verb complementation, finite and non-finiteness and the semantic structure of the verb. These areas constitute the elements that have been compared and contrasted in the grammars of Tiv and English.

The study has also been undertaken at four levels of linguistic analysis (i.e. syntactic, morphological, semantic and phonological). Other word classes have not been treated except where it became absolutely necessary to do so by way of elucidation.

The analysis at the phonological level has been based purely on the potential the level has for conditioning the allomorphic distribution of past tense and third person singular morphemes only. Efforts have therefore been made to see if this situation holds good for the Tiv language as well.

1.5 *Research Procedure*

1.5.1 *Type of data*. The "standard" Tiv (that is to say, the variety of the language that is taught in schools, used in print and spoken by the educated Tiv), is the one whose verbal system has been compared and contrasted with the

verbal system of the English language. The choice of this variety has been predicated on the capacity it has for clarifying indeterminacies that were noticed in the course of discussions with informants. Indeterminacies, linguistic studies have shown, are always occasioned by localisms or regional dialects. The standard variety was therefore used as a yardstick against which the data collected from informants whose speeches were tinged with "localisms" or "idiolectal variants" were measured. The selection of the models for data collection has also been on the basis of the linguistic principles of "reliability and validity" (Tinuoye, 1979:17). Such principles include intuition, discussion with native speakers of Tiv language and reading relevant materials on data collection.

1.5.2 ***How the data were collected***. In line with the principles of "reliability and validity", two principal sources were used for data collection. They were, formal and informal sources.

The data collected from formal sources were by and large text-oriented, that is to say, they were extracted from relevant literature on the Tiv language. Particular attention was therefore paid to the different realisational patterns as they pertain to the different manifestations of tense, aspect, voice, complementation, modal auxiliaries, finite and non-finiteness as well as the semantic structure of the Tiv verb in relation to that of the English language. Source texts which we found very useful in this effort were, Principles of Tiv Grammar by R.C. Abraham (1940), African Language Structures by Welmers, E.Wm (1973), Language in Africa: An Introductory Survey by Gregersen E.A. (1977) and The Negro African Languages by Homburger, H (1949). Another source text which would have been of immense value to this study but which this researcher could not have access to, is Orban Nyiakura's Contrastive Analysis of Tiv and English Syntactic Patterns (1974). Going by its title, it was reasoned that the work could provide useful data for a comparative analysis of Tiv and English verbal systems.

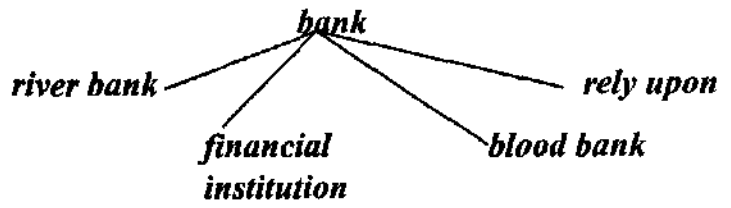
realisations are therefore expressed through this stratal organisation of language. Thus by coding one system into another, realisation signifies what the speaker does linguistically in order to mean (semantic system), to say (lexicogrammatical system), and what he can do (behaviour potential).

Realisation is of many types. They are:

[a] Simple realisation which refers to the linguistic phenomenon whereby a semantic concept is realised by a single lexical item. It is, in order words, a one-to-one lexical representation of the said semantic concept.

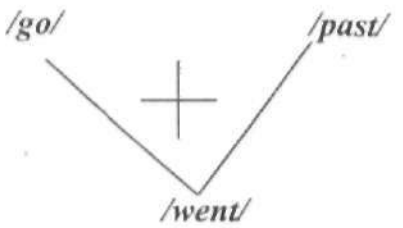
[b] A semantic concept may have more than one realisation in the lexicogrammar. In other words, its semantics may be realised by different lexical items or what is sometimes referred to as a one-to-many linguistic phenomenon where an element in the semantic system is realised by more than one element in the lexicogrammatical system. Under such circumstances, we have diversified realisation.

In diversification, the linguistic elements are said to be in "free variation in the grammatical system with one meaning realised by two or more forms" (Ibid:1979). The situation can be illustrated with the standard British English word 'bank' which is realised semantically as 'river bank', 'financial institution', 'blood-bank' and 'rely upon' respectively. It is here represented diagramatically as:



Its semantic realisation is therefore clearly of the diversified type.

[c] Neutralisation: This is the opposite of diversification. It is a linguistic phenomenon whereby different semantic concepts are realised by one lexical item. For example:



The semantic concepts 'go' + 'past' are therefore neutralised as 'went'.

[d] Zero realisation: Here, we have a semantic concept in the semantic system but there is no corresponding lexical item for its realisation. For example, the sentence

Where	did	you	go?	has
locative	auxiliary	subject	predicate	

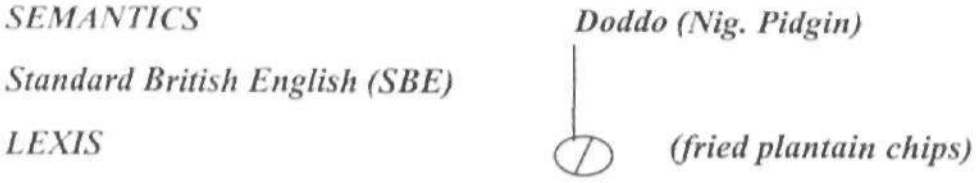
the following Tiv equivalent:

Ka han nyen u za which translates literally as:

where	yesterday	you	go?
Locative	adjunct	subject	predicate

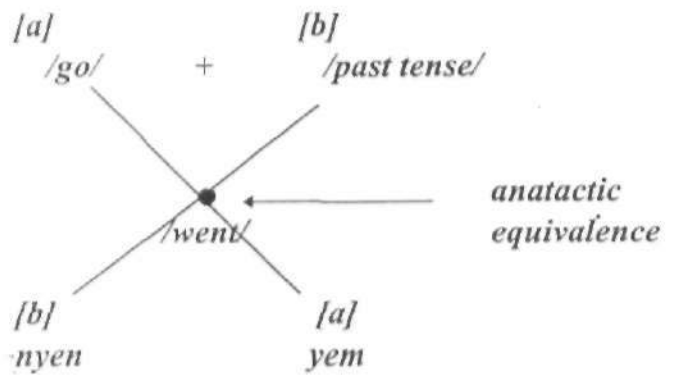
It is clear from the structure of the last sentence that the auxiliary verb 'did' is absent. This, however, does not mean the semantic concept 'did' does not exist in the language. It does exist except that the Tiv language does not have a lexical item for its realisation. Situations like this are therefore known as zero equivalence or zero realisation for short.

[e] Empty realisation: This is the reverse of zero realisation. It refers to a situation where there is a lexical item realising a concept whose semantic interpretation does not exist in the language with which an L_1 is being compared. For example, the Nigerian pidgin word "doddo" does not have its English equivalent on one-to-one basis. That is to say, the English language does not have such a concept in its semantic system. Its meaning can therefore be represented in paraphrase as "fried plantain chips". The situation in realisational terms can be illustrated as follows:



It is paraphrased because of the absence of a single lexical item with which the semantic concept can be realised. Realisation of the semantic concept "doddo" therefore has an empty equivalence in the English language.

[f] Anataxis or Anatactic equivalence: This is a situation whereby the grammar of one of the languages being compared is adjusted in conformity with the syntactic norm of the target language which in this case is the language with which it is being compared. For example, the verb 'go' rendered in its past tense form, has neutralised realisation as could be seen below:



It is however realised anatactically in the Tiv language as the above illustration clearly shows.

The concept of realisation as the foregoing discussion has shown, is very useful for the present work. Much use has therefore been made of it to explain the different manifestations of the verb in the two languages that have been compared using the four linguistic levels as the pivot of analysis. In other words, the realisational concept has been employed in our analysis of the English tense, aspect, modal auxiliaries etc. in relation to its Tiv counterpart at the levels of syntax and morphology.

At the phonological level, the study has looked at the allomorphic distribution of past tense morphemes and considered "what factors condition the choice of one allomorph rather than the other" (Brown and Miller, 1992:176).

tense morpheme expressed variously as /d/, /t/ and /id/ and the third person singular morpheme also expressed in various ways as /s/, /z/ and /iz/ have been explored. The research effort has also tried to determine whether or not these patterns of allomorphic distribution of the past tense and third person singular morphemes remain constant for the Tiv verb as they do for the English verb. The concept of realisation is therefore the pivot of our comparative study of English and Tiv verbal systems.

Chapter 2

2.1 *The Tiv Verbal System*

Learning a language in the words of Frank Palmer (1965:3), "is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language". It also means familiarising oneself with the patterns and structures of the verb bearing in mind that the verbal systems of languages the world over, differ considerably. This view, however, does not ignore the possibility of similarities which are bound to exist where languages are known to have been related historically.

The verbal patterns of languages "differ in two ways, first of all formally, in the way linguistic material is organised and secondly in the type of information carried" (Ibid). The Tiv verb appears to have been neatly cast into the above pattern. Its symbiotic relationship with its noun counterpart shows how linguistic material is organised in the language. Secondly, the type of information carried by Tiv verbal forms is, most of the time, made manifest through the tone. The tones of the language, says Abraham (1940), "are one of its most important features and are used in words having identical forms to distinguish one meaning from another". Understanding the Tiv verb therefore means understanding the tonal system of the language for the tones are pivotal to syntactic and semantic realisations in the language.

Tones, by and large, occupy a very significant position in the study of African linguistics. Westermann (1930) in Abraham (1940: 1), acknowledges this significance as follows:

> ***In no section of African linguistics has progress been greater or of higher consequence during the last decade than in the studies of tone and sound. The results achieved have turned out to be a most helpful assistance in the learning of languages…. No vocabulary or grammar however modest in size or aim, is of any real usefulness unless it gives an exact description of sound and tones.***

The relevance of tone to African linguistics as the above suggests, is self-explanatory. Abraham (1940) has identified three main tones. They are the high tone which in this study will be represented as / ' /, the low tone which carries the symbol / ` / and the mid tone which is here represented as / • /. The language also has two types of glide - the upward glide which is represented as / ^ / while the reverse / v / is the symbol for the downward glide. There is complete absence of diphthongs. Words like áívé meaning 'furs' have three different syllables and are realised in that manner.

The tonemic sequence is therefore high, high, high. The "vowels of the language are half long i.e. mid-way between long and short". Consequently, "lenthening and shortening as it is the case in English does not exist". It is however possible to repeat a vowel as in the words 'hìì' meaning 'start' or 'begin' with a low, low tonemic sequence and 'hòò' meaning 'putrified', 'pùù' (criticised) all of which have the same tonemic sequence - low, low. The three distinct tones of the language are hereby illustrated as follows:

- ***hụrà*** - ***to weed (mid, low)***
- ***hùrà*** - ***a rushing noise (low, low)***
- ***ká*** - ***it is (high)***
- ***yèm*** - ***went (low)***

As for the glides we have them as follows:

- ***kev*** - ***seek (downward glide)***
- ***haa*** - ***pour (downward glide)***
- ***bɐr*** - ***pond (upward glide)***
- ***hough*** - ***yam beetle etc. (upward glide)***

The tones of Tiv language are also used to puzzle out semantic distinctions between homographic words as could be seen below:

- ***súré*** - ***farm (high, high)***
- ***súrè*** - ***shilling (high, low)***
- ***sùrè*** - ***no longer hot (low, low)***

Tones also perform syntactic functions. This would be seen presently in the study.

2.2 ***The Noun-Verb Symbiosis***

As already stated elsewhere in this work, there is an inextricable relationship between the Tiv verb and its noun counterpart. Thus to understand the syntactic function of the verb in Tiv sentences, one has to necessarily understand the syntactic character of the noun as well. In this section, therefore, a brief discussion of the noun vis-a-vis its verb counterpart will be made in order to give the reader a clear picture of what we mean by the term "noun-verb symbiosis".

There are, according to Abraham (1940), eleven noun classes in Tiv all of which are inextricably bound up with the verbs. The first being the "ngùn class" comprises singular nouns of the consonant - initial type. Its verb counterpart is the 'ngù' which is the verb 'BE'. A good majority of the nouns in this class denote persons though non-personal nouns like monkey, horse or even inanimates like pond, cornplatform, etc. belong to this class. Consequently we have constructions like:

[a]	***bàgù ngùn***	-	***here is the red monkey***
[b]	***John ngùn***	-	***here you would find John or simply, John is here.***
[c]	***bẹr ngùn***	-	***here is the pond***

Nouns of this class take "the copulative concordial morpheme" 'ngù' which as we have noted above combines as a copulative verb. The following sentences illustrate the situation clearer:

-	***John ngù vaan***	-	***John is crying***
-	**nyìnyà ngù yàn toho**	-	**the horse is feeding on grass**
-	****ngù vạn***	-	***he is coming.***

The last example is particularly significant because 'ngù' combines syntactically as a subject pronoun 'he' and a finite form of the copula 'is'. Perhaps this might explain why Welmers (1973) has referred to 'ngù' as a

"concordial copula" since it ensures the agreement between the NP and the VP as the above illustrations have clearly shown. Put differently, 'ngù' is used copulatively as a third person singular verb and a noun at the same time. The one cannot do without the other. Herein lies the basis for the symbiotic relationship which exists between the noun and the verb in Tiv language.

The consonant-initial characteristic typical of nouns of this class is not a water-tight linguistic phenomenon. There are instances when vowel-initial nouns collocate easily with the copulative verbs as in the following:

[a] *àanyàm ngù héén* - *the leopard is here*

[b] *akwá (akwa) ngù sháá lá* - *the fish dam is over there*

The second class of the Tiv noun is the "ngìn" class which nearly always has the bound morpheme / ì / prefixed to the stem as follows:

(a) *ìnyàm ngìn* - *This is the animal*

(b) *ìnyòn ngìn* - *This is the bird.*

Like its 'ngùn' counterpart, ngìn has a copulative form which is represented here as 'ngi'. It is therefore found in constructions such as:

(a) *ìnyàm ngì vàn* - *the animal is coming.*

(b) *ìnyòn ngì púrùgh* - *the bird is flying.*

Nouns which belong to this class are singular nouns while 'ngì' as the above illustrations clearly indicate, functions syntactically as a concordial morpheme as well.

The third class which is referred to as the "ngín" class comprises singular nouns with the morpheme / í / prefixed to their stems. Unlike the ngìn class of nouns, the tone of ngín class is a high. The prefixed morpheme also carries a high tone. The class also has plural nouns in its fold. Examples are:

[a] *íjí ngín* - *Here is the egg.*

[b] *íhínga ngín* - *Here is the nose.*

[c] **ínyón ngín* - *Here are the birds.*

[d] **ínyám ngín* - *Here are the animals.*

[e] **íkón ngín* - *Here are the trees.*

The basic difference between nouns of this class and those in the second class is that of tone. Here, both the nouns and the copulative morpheme 'ngín' are realised in high tone. The reverse was the case with nouns of the second class which were essentially singular nouns.

The fourth class is the "ngún" class which differs from "ngùn" of the first class also on the basis of tone. It comprises singular nouns which begin with consonant sounds. They include di-syllabic words like tóhó (grass), súré (farm) etc. Also found in this group are di-syllabic words whose tonemic sequence is high, mid as in wúna (granary), and mono-syllabic words with mid tones e.g. úsu (fire), kwa (leaf), mon (neck) etc. Pluralisation of nouns of this class is realised by prefixing the morpheme / i / to the stem as in íka (leaves), íkón (trees). In the past the morpheme /é/ was used as a singular prefix for these nouns e.g.

- *étóhó* - *grass*
- *éwúna* - *granary*
- *ekwa* - *leaf.*

This is seldom heard these days. Welmers (1973:209) confirms this when he says the "archaic prefix did and does occur in the speech of the elderly" but has nevertheless ceased to exist in the speech of the modern speakers of the language.

The fifth class of the Tiv noun is the "kun class". It has as its members, singular nouns of the consonant-initial type which end in a velaric plosive /gh/ phonetically represented as [ɣ]. Examples are:

- *wégh* - *hand, arm*
- *námégh* - *thigh*
- *wáségh* - *temple.*

We therefore have constructions involving these nouns as in the following:

- *wégh kun* - *this is the hand*
- *námégh kun* - *this is the thigh*
- *wáségh kun* - *this is the temple*

Archaic prefixation is also manifest with these nouns e.g. éwégh, énámégh etc. This has currency mostly with the elderly.

The kịn class is the sixth class of Tiv nouns. It comprises singular nouns which begin with the vowel /i/ realised in a high tone with a velaric plosive ending. Examples are:

- *ícígh kịn* - *Here is the medicine or this is the medicine*

It would be noticed from the foregoing that classes 1-6 are by and large, nouns whose semantics connotes singular sense. References have, however, been made to plural forms at various points for expository reasons. The noun classes 7-11 which would be discussed now are essentially plural nouns. They include the "mbụn" class which deals specifically with collective or abstract nouns. Such nouns nearly always end in the voiced fricative /v/ which Abraham (1940) describes as a "mobile sound". A very good example of nouns of this class is "ángév" meaning illness. It is found in constructions such as "ángév mbụn" - this illness. The copulative morpheme here is 'mbú' as in "ángév mbú dzán wén yọl". "He is being tormented by ill-health".

The "mbịn" class which is the eight class comprises plural nouns which have the sound /i/ prefixed to their stems. They are generally realised in high tones. They also end in the mobile sound /v/ as could be seen in the following:

- *ítyóv mbịn* - *These are the heads*

Its copulative equivalent is 'mbí' as in "íkyáv mbí yụhàn mó" - Literally translated as "this load is being heavy to me" - this load is heavy.

The nineth class - the "ngán" class comprises plurals and collectives which begin with the vowel /á/. These too are realised in high tones as in:

áji - *eggs*

áji ngán - *here are the eggs.*

The copulative equivalent is ngá - 'are' as in "áji ngá vịhìn" - "the eggs are getting spoiled or the eggs are going bad".

The "mán" class which is the tenth deals with plural and collective or non-count nouns. Examples are:

ḿngérém mán - ***here is the water***

ḿkúrem mán - ***here is the oil***

Its copulative equivalent is "má" as in "ḿngérém má hạàǹ - the water is pouring....."

The last class is what Abraham calls the "mbạ̀n" class. It is a class of plural nouns. They sometimes carry the plural prefix /ù/ as in ***ùtọ̀r mbạ̀n*** - here are the chiefs. Used copulatively, it may be represented as: ***ùtọ̀r mbá vạ̀ǹ*** - the ***chiefs are coming.***

In some instances, the nouns of this class take the particle 'mbá'. It is prefixed to the stem to signal pluralisation as in "mbá-iv́ mbạ̀n mbá vạ̀ǹ - these thieves are coming". Pluralisation of nouns of the class is also realised through the suffixation of the mobile /v/ as in the following:

- ***kásév mbạ̀n - Here are the women***
- ***ónóv mbạ̀n - Here are the children (wan - child is the singular form)***

The elaborate classification of these nouns into eleven classes with their copulative equivalents is by all standards valid. This classification has also proved beyond doubt the symbiosis of the noun and the verb.

Welmers (1973:206) however observes that Abraham "rather than using nominal affixes to identify class", uses "a concordial morpheme for each class". This, he further states, "appears in a concordial copula" which, as has been observed elsewhere, combines as a subject and copula. Perhaps this is what he is referring to as "concordial copula". In other words, all the defining morphemes used for the purpose of placing the Tiv nouns in their various classes are copulative concordial morphemes. It is these morphemes Abraham uses to identify noun classes instead of the normal affixes which most Bantu languages employ for the purpose of identifying noun classes. Such concordial morphemes only differ in tones as the foregoing discussion has clearly shown. They however function also, as demonstratives when used in structures like ***bàgù ngùn - here is the red monkey.***

2.3 *The Tiv Verb and its Classes*

The classification of the Tiv verb into eight classes by Roy Abraham (1940), has been undertaken in purely synchronic terms. It has therefore not been cast in the familiar or classical moulds of English, Latin, Greek nor French grammatical structures. Rather, it is premised on the type into which each verb falls. This classification is simple. It also depends almost entirely "on the tones and number of syllables of the past tense". There are, for example, types A-C verbs which are realised in low tones, D-H verbs which are mostly di-dyllabic in character, mono-syllabic verbs and in some instances poly-syllabic verbs. In all, there are eight verb classes in the language. They are:

Type A verbs which Abraham says comprises di-syllabic verbs and in some cases tri-syllabic verbs which end in vowel sounds. Their tonemic sequence is always low, low. They include:

kìmbì - ***paid***

Two syllables

màà - ***built***

Kèngèsè - ***chewed***

Three syllables

Yèvèsè - ***ran***

The verbs kìmbì, màà and kèngèsè are transitive verbs while yèvèsè is intransitive. Example of their transitive usages are:

	[a]	***Sé***	***mbá mạàn***	***iyough***	***- we are building a house***
		subject	***verb***	***object***	
	[b]	***bùá***	***kèngèsè***	***tóhó***	***- the cow chewed the cud***
		Subject	***Verb***	***object***	
but	****[c]***	***John***	***yèvèsè***		***- John ran (intransitive)***
		Subject	***Predicate***		
	[d]	***Shade***	***vàà***		***- Shade wept (intransitive)***
		Subject	***Predicate***		

Sentences [c] and [d] are examples of intransitive usage in the language. Unlike in English language where transitive verbs constitute one class of verbs and intransitive verbs constitute another, the Tiv verbs of the A class are identified on the basis of tone, vowel endings and syllabic number. This explains why transitive and intransitive verbs have been classified under one group.

There are, also, type B class of verbs which are characterised as low tone and in most cases di-syllabic verbs. They differ from type A verbs only because of their endings which are consonant sounds. Examples are:

- ***rùmùn*** - ***agreed***
- ***tìmbìr*** - ***delayed***
- ***ngòhòr*** - ***received***
- ***ndòòr*** - ***shook down (e.g. fruits)***

Type C comprises mono-syllabic verbs with consonant-final sounds. They include:

- ***kàv*** - ***understood***
- ***yèm*** - ***went***
- ***ngbàgh*** - ***roasted.***

They are mostly intransitive verbs. The following illustrative sentences explain the situation better:

- ***ḿ kàv*** - ***I understood/I understand***
- ***nyén ḿ yèm Sokoto -I went to Sokoto yesterday***

The verb 'ngbagh' however is used transitively as in: ***á́ ngbàgh nyàm - he roasted the meat.***

Type D verbs have the tonemic sequence mid, low. They are mostly di-syllabic. They include:

- ***nụmbè*** - ***played***
- ***sọmbò*** - ***snapped***

They are realised either transitively or intransitively in syntactic structures as follows:

- *Ada ngù nụmbèn - Ada is playing*

- *John sọmbò àgà la- John has snapped the walking stick.*

Type E comprises any one-syllabic verb realised with a downward glide as in the following:

- *kọr - seized*
- *kẹr - sought, looked for*
- *tov - investigated.*

They are found in structures like:

- *á kọr ìvó - he caught a goat*
- *á kẹr kwàsé kpà á dzùà á mò gá - he looked for a woman to marry but he could not get any.*

Type E verbs as the above illustrations have shown, are transitive verbs.

Type **F** verbs differ from **E** only in terms of syllabic number. They are mostly di-syllabic verbs but are realised with mid, low tones. Examples are:

- *ndohòr - it is cold*
- *ngbọghòm - approached*

Type G consists of verbs which have three syllables as in:

/ko/ /ngo/ /so/ kọngòsò - narrowed

/gba/ /nge/ /se/ gbangèsè - widened etc.

Type **H** which is the last class consists mainly of mono-syllabic verbs as in the following:

á vạ - he came

á mạ - he drank

á sẹ - he laughed etc.

They are mostly intransitive verbs. There is, however, the tendency to realise them with high tone as in:

á vá - he came
á má - he drank
á sé - he laughed

The synchronic state of the language seems to favour the mid tone - the high being seemingly outdated or at best dialectal. It is also worthy of mention that the verbal system of the Tiv language is unique and hence the unique treatment accorded it by Abraham (1940). The approach is considered valid and thus adequate because any attempt at casting the Tiv verbal system into the classical mould by way of analysis would yield very little or no results. It is for this reason that we are in total agreement with Abraham over his revolutionary handling of the Tiv verb: an approach which flays the tendency to "uncritically impose the classical grammatical categories and terminologies in structures to which they are foreign" (Welmers, 1973:383). It is, also, an approach which seems to be under-scoring the need "to bring the era of linguistic imperialism to an end, and make a more consistent effort to capture what is really going on in African languages" (Ibid:383).

2.4 *The Present tense and its Realisation in Tiv Verbal System*

To the Tiv, the present tense denotes an act still in progress. Their present tense is therefore not the type the English know and use as in 'John goes to school'. Put differently, the present tense in Tiv language has to do more with the continuous action than with the most familiar distinctions which the English make: distinctions such as simple present, present perfect and their related aspectual nuances. It would however amount to oversimplification to outrightly dismiss the existence of these distinctions in Tiv but it is also worth pointing out that the said distinctions (assuming they exist in the language), do not have as much syntactic significance in Tiv as does the 'continuous'. Realisation of the present tense in the verbal system of the language is therefore done via the copula 'ngù' which, as Abraham (1940) puts it, is placed before 'the continuous' as in "ngù ẹreǹ" which means "he is doing". This translates literally as, "he is in the act of doing something". The continuative sense in this construction is introduced by the verbal form 'ẹreǹ' which means 'doing'. It has the progressive aspect as its concomitant.

Its presence in Tiv syntactic structures is made manifest both in the present and past tenses as in the illustrative sentences below:

- ***Ada ngù vaàn*** - ***Ada is crying***
- ***Ada nyén lù vaàn*** - ***Ada was crying yesterday.***

As the above clearly shows, the -ing verbal inflection is formed by suffixing the morpheme [n] to the stem e.g. vaa + n = vaàn. Details of its morphosyntactic behaviour will be discussed in subsequent sections of the study. For now, it would suffice to state that almost every Tiv verb is realised in a 'continuous tense' through the suffixation of [n] while the resultant form has, in most cases, a mid low tonemic sequence. Examples are as represented hereunder:

- ***ngù ngbaghèn*** - ***he/she is roasting .....***
- ***ngù kaàn*** - ***he/she is frying .....***
- ***ngù koròn*** - ***he/she is sewing etc.***

Even mono-syllabic verbs are realised in the same way eg:

ngù maàn - ***He is drinking***

Homographic { ***ngù gbaàn*** - ***he is carving .....*** / ***ngù gbaàn*** - ***he is falling*** }

ngù vaàn - ***he is coming***

One interesting and perhaps peculiar character of the present continuous tense in the verb system of the language is that it can be effectively realised without the copula as in the following:

- ***ḿ nèngè à ìor vaàn*** - ***I saw people coming***
- ***ḿ kàv uń yaàn kwàghyan*** - ***I suddenly saw him eating***

Reference in each case, is to the past i.e. progressive past even though the statement is made momentarily.

The 'continuous' is also realised with 'mbá' - the copulative form of the mban noun class as in "mbá gbìdeè uń" - he is being beaten. This smacks of a passive construction though the passive voice doesn't seem to have much prominence in the verbal system of the language.

With stative verbs like "tired", the 'continuous' is hardly used. A sentence like 'ngù vọròn' - 'he is getting tired' does not mean a progressive activity. It only connotes a state. It cannot therefore be translated as 'he is tiring'.

The 'continuous' is also realised with an object pronoun coming after the -ing verbal form as in the following:

- ***ngù kimbìn wé*** - ***he is paying you***
- ***íwá ngí yàn ì*** - ***the dogs are eating it (i.e. the meat)***
- ***Musa ngù yàn á*** - ***Musa is eating them (i.e. the eggs)***

Although the simple present doesn't seem to have much prominence in the verbal system of the language, the 'habituative' seems to function effectively in its place as could be seen in the examples below:

- ***ẹrèn tóm*** - ***he works (perhaps most of the time)***
- ***dúgh*** - ***he goes out often***
- ***léé yough*** - ***he plants yams always***
- ***zé mákéránta*** - ***he goes to school always.***

In all these examples, the emphasis seems to be on the habituative activity and not on the tense. This explains why the present simple tense is said to be less prominent in the language.

The Tiv also have the 'completive' which should not be mistaken for the present perfect tense because it lays emphasis on the present effect of action. Example:

- ***á yạ kwàghyạn*** - ***he has eaten food (and is therefore full or at least not about to eat again)***
- ***á vọr*** - ***he is tired (and is therefore tired now)***

It would appear as if the above examples yield themselves semantically to the English concept of "the present perfect". This is nevertheless not the case because the action refers to an immediate situation as in the first example above. Secondly, the present effect may have to do with the totality of experience as in:

- ***ḿ yạ yúwé mkùré*** - ***I have eaten palm oil stew***

"at one time or often but not necessarily recently and at the moment I may be - and am starved for some" (Welmers, 1973: 351). The first distinction is what is referred to as the 'completive' while the second is 'experiential'.

There are, also consecutive verbal constructions which refer to "actions after the first in a sequential series" (Welmers, 1973: 364). This could be interpreted to mean that a consecutive verbal action manifests an intensive relationship with the first action in a verbal construction. It may therefore be "used after any construction referring to the first action; in itself, the consecutive has no reference to time, aspect or mode - the reference to the first verb applies throughout the sequence" (Ibid: 364).

Example:

- ***á yàr ér un á dzà èr tom - he's gone to his farm to work.***

In some constructions, a subject pronoun is required with the consecutive even if the two or more actions are performed by the same subject. Example:

á nyòr kèn yough mán á wùhè húndá - he's gone in and (he) has shut the door.

Also in the verbal system of the language, there are serial constructions in which "the actions or situations seem to be more closely related". Here, it is impossible to introduce a new subject; at best the same subject is repeated in the second phrase as in:

á èsè yough màn shì á óó ákóndó kpàà - he has swept the house and he has washed the clothes as well.

There are, nevertheless, some constructions which do not have the same subject repeated. Example:

Ú fa ù ngérén màn òron? - Can you read and write?

All these and perhaps many others not here illustrated, represent the different ways in which the Tiv realise the present tense in their verbal system.

2.5 *The Past Tense*

Whereas the English verb has morphological inflections to indicate all shades of the past tense viz the simple past (did) and the past perfect (done), the Tiv verb has one inflectional form 'lù' which stands for both. In other words, the language has a neutralised concept for the simple past and past perfect. Thus in the sentence 'Ada nyén lù vaàn' - Ada was crying yesterday the past is realised by the presence of 'lù' while vaàn indicates the aspect of the verb - i.e. progressive aspect. The Tiv like the English have the ability for clear-cut distinctions between finite and non-finite verbs and their auxiliaries. Consequently, 'lù' can in some situations function as a finite form of the verb '**BE**' as could be seen in the above illustration and in some cases as a finite form of the verb '**HAVE**' where 'have' is used as a full verb and not as an auxiliary. Example:

Dam lù á mato. 'Dam had a car'.

Here 'lù' is used in the perfective sense albeit as a full verb 'have'. It is therefore a finite verbal form.

'Lù' also functions as a past tense form of the copulative verb to introduce the sense 'not yet'. The following illustrative sentences explain the situation better:

- ***ikyáren lù á dúwè gá - examination results had not yet been released.***
- ***ádúgári á lú à hidè gá - the police had not yet returned.***

Also in the language, 'lù' provides the past tense for the verb 'ká' which is often used to express a wish. Example:

(a) kàm á pè mèmén - I want to rest

(b) lùm á pè mèmén - I had wanted to rest or I wanted to have some rest.

The language also has continuative constructions which refer to continuous actions that had taken place in the past as in:

nyén lù ẹrèn tóm - he was working yesterday.

This sentence lends itself to a semantic interpretation that is clearly indicative of a continuous action which, incompletive though, took place in the past. Like its present tense counterpart, the -ing verbal form, in this case "ẹrèn" is used in the above construction to express the continuative sense which has the past progressive as its concomitant.

2.6 The Future Tense

Mbiti (1969: 159) is of the view that "the linear concept of time with past, present and future, stretching from infinity to infinity, is foreign to African thinking, in which the dominant factor is a virtual absence of the future". Time, he further states, "is a composition of events, and since the future events have not occurred, the future as a necessary linear component of time is virtually absent. Such is either potential time with certainty of its eventual realisation or no time lying beyond the conceptual horizon of the people" (Welmers, 1973:352). The assertion as Welmers (1973) has rightly observed, seems to have been premised more on "philosophical" than on linguistic consideration. The future is not absent in some African languages for evidence as to its existence in Tiv and Jukun clearly abounds. The Tiv language for example refers to an action that will, can or may take place in the future. When a Tiv man says 'I will do it' and fails to live up to what he says, it is not because his understanding of the idea conveyed by 'will' is "linguistically ambiguous". His failure to keep a promise is simply a moral fault. It is also not "difficult to pinpoint the reference of a given construction as focusing on potentiality or futurity" in Tiv language: a situation which Welmers (1973) claims, is difficult to realise in most African languages.

It is quite true that the English language has two ways of referring to the future - the 'will' future and the 'going to' future. The former generally refers to an action that is incidental to a broader purpose and most often an action just decided on. The latter refers to a more predetermined action. The distinctions, it must be acknowledged, are quite subtle nay tenuous but it is hardly true that

such cannot be expressed in other languages. The Tiv for example, can express in future tense how they would undertake a predetermined line of action such as going to the market to buy some corn for the evening meal and to sell some wood carvings on realising that they have some ready for sale.

The English also have the tendency to beat their chests as to their ability to use the present to express the future but this feat too, is not their exclusive preserve. The future in the present can be easily realised in Tiv language as in the sentence "ngù yemèn kpér" - he is going tomorrow.

Unlike Welmers (1973), Abraham (19406: 42-46) seems to have a far better grasp of what the future tense situation in most African languages is. He identifies the definite and indefinite future and defines the former as that aspect of the future tense which states the time the future action will take place. In other words, the context in which the definite future tense is realised is therefore indicative of "such definite time". The indefinite future on the other hand refers to a future action whose time of occurrence is not specified. Perhaps this categorisation will be taken as being similar to what (Palmer, 1965; Welmers, 1973) refer to as the 'near' and 'remote' future: the one refers to an action expected to take place within a time lag of about a day or so, the other refers to an action expected to take place later. The word 'later' seems open-ended because it does not specify the exact time the action is expected to take place or occur. It is therefore similar to Abraham's indefinite future. As for the 'near' future, the similarity is self-explanatory for the time within which an action is expected to occur is clearly specified.

Thus in his treatment of the definite future tense, Abraham (1940) makes use of the auxiliaries 'Will' and 'Shall' pointing out their inextricable relationship with the subject prŏnouns that accompany them. Put it the other way, the auxiliaries 'Will' and 'Shall' are realised via single morphemes which combine morphosyntactically as auxiliaries and subject pronouns. They include:

Mé *I shall*

Wé/ú - *you will (singular)*

Uná/uné - *he/she/it will - all referring to the nouns of the ngùn class.*

Sé - *we shall*

Né - *you will (plural)*

Vé - *they will - referring to all nouns of the mbạ̀n class*

The morphosyntactic shapes of these auxiliaries therefore lend credence to our claim regarding the noun-verb symbiosis. The auxiliaries are also realised in syntactic structures as follows:

[a] *kpér mé bẹ́e tóm wám*

I shall finish my work tomorrow.

[b] *dué lá mé bẹ̀e tóm wám*

I will finish my work in two days' time.

[c] *sé bẹ́e tóm wásé nyíạn*

We will finish our work today.

[d] *né vá kpér*

You (plural) will come tomorrow.

[e] *uná/uné vá dué lá*

he/she/it will come in two days time

[f] *vé á vá nyíạn*

They will come today.

In all these examples, the reference to the time of occurrence of action is specified, that is to say, reference to time is definite and hence the term definite future.

There are other auxiliaries which combine as subject pronouns but are used exclusively for non-personal nouns. They include: íẹ́, úẹ́, kú ẹ́, kí ẹ́, mbú ẹ́, mbí ẹ́ as in the following constructions:

[a] ***íví́ íẹ́ fá kú nyían***

many goats will be killed today.

[b] ***wúna ú ẹ hía kpér***

the granary will go up in flames tomorrow.

[c] ***kpér wégh ku ́ ẹ bệe***

the hand will heal tomorrow.

[d] ***ínyárégh ki ́ ẹ vá dué la ́***

money will be paid in two days time.

[e] ***ángév mbun̂ mbú ẹ bệe nyian***

this illness will be cured today

[f] ***iyouv̂ mbi ́ ẹ bệe kpér***

the yam tubers will be used up tomorrow.

[g] ***kpér wér ú ́ ẹ dụ̀è***

the moon will appear tomorrow.

The indefinite future is realised using the same subject pronouns and their corresponding auxiliaries as outlined above. Abraham (1940: 42) is however of the view that their realisation is effected either with a glide or a morphemic particle suffixed to the auxiliary. He illustrates this situation as:

[a] ***mé ẹ / mé ạ rùmùn màyángé ga ́***

I shall never agree.

[b] ***ká hanma shìghèn wé ạ vá?***

When would you come?

The examples are at variance with the synchronic usage which prefers -

- "mé rùmùn màyángé ga.́

Ká hańma shìghèn ú vá? to ***(a) and (b) above***. Constructions involving 'glides' are archaisms which seem to be the exclusive preserve of the elderly.

The indefinite future is also used to express "probability", "intention" and "about to". Examples are:

[a] ***hégén vé ẹ nyòr Gboko***

they probably may have arrived Gboko by now.

[b] ***aíngyé tóhó ú ẹ mèndè***

by now the grass must have sprouted.

[c] ***à làgh gá tòr ú nẹ lù mo^ughun dzéndé kpér***

the Chief may be travelling tomorrow.

The future tense is also realised in the Tiv verbal system using the conditional marker 'aluer' (if) or the time adjunct marker 'shighen' (when). The former refers to the indefinite or hypothetical future action while the latter refers to the definite future. The following illustrate the situation clearer:

[a] ***à lùèr á kìmbìr íín yó sé wùhè un***

If he steals again we will lock him up.

[b] ***mé á va yó mé nénge ẹ wè***

If I come I will see you.

Note that 'me a' is an alternant form of 'aluer'. It therefore has the same sense as 'if'. In other words, it is an allomorphic variant of 'aluer' (if)

* *[c]* ***Shìghèn ù ú va yó mé nénge ẹ wè.***

When you come, I will see you.

* *[d]* ***Shìghèn ù mé bee^ tóm kpér yó ú nénge ẹ mò***

When I finish work tomorrow, you will see me.

As all the above clearly illustrate (a) and (b) are examples of indefinite future actions while (c) and (d) are definite future actions.

Abraham (1940: 42-44) is of the view that the conditional markers 'aluer', 'ka' and 'ka er' (all meaning if) and the time adjunct 'shighen' (when) may be optionally employed in verbal constructions to express the future tense. This may be true to some extent. It is nevertheless the view of this research effort that the situation is not as watertight as he would want us to believe. The following examples explain it all:

[a] ***ká kwàsé là un à wá wúa shá nàsè yó á wàan^ átsám á dyaa^ tségh***

Whenever that woman is on the grinding stone, she indulges in obscene songs.

[b] ***àlùèr ángév mbun mbú ẹ bẹe hégén gá yó uń á kpe***

If his ill-health has not been cured up till now, he will certainly die.

The presence of these markers (i.e. if and when) is by no means optional as the above examples have clearly shown. The conditional marker (if) for example, introduces a condition upon which the semantics of the entire sentence is pegged. The patient's imminent death is likely to result from his inability to get curative remedy up to this stage. The time adjunct (when) apart from stating before hand what we should expect when the woman is on the grinding stone, tells us how her indulgence in such obscenities has become habitual. Nuances like this no doubt, make the character of the Tiv verb a very complex one.

Serialised verbal constructions are also captured in Tiv expressions of the definite future tense. This is made possible with the introduction of the connective "màn" (also known as the conjunctive morpheme) after the first clause. The complement particle 'yé' takes the sentence-final position as could be seen in the following examples:

[a] ***Sé lòò súré màn sé sạn ye***

We shall first plant the yam seeds and then mulch the heaps (i.e. yam heaps)

[b] ***mé yạ kwàghyạn màn mé hìdè ye.***

I shall eat food before I return or I shall return after eating

(Ibid:44).

[b] mé hìdè fám á lù ẹ gbà gá

I shall return before the raining season sets in.

All these are the various ways in which the Tiv express the future tense in their language.

2.7 The Mood System

Tiv has an elaborate mood system used in realising almost all shades of meanings one finds in the English mood system. The imperative mood for example, "is the same as the past without subject pronouns" (Abraham 1940: 28) The illustrations below explain the situation better:

sọmbò - ***snapped (past tense)***

sọmbò - ***snap (imperative).***

The two forms are indistinguishable because they have the same tonemic sequence. Their interpretation is therefore context-bound.

Welmers (1973) adds more flesh to this view when he asserts that "a verb root is initially identified as having mid tone on the basis of such forms as the singular imperative (where nothing precedes the verb). He further states:

> ***"In the past negative, all verb roots with mid tone appear with that tone unaltered; thus the past negative is also diagnostic for identifying the tone of a verb root as mid" (Ibid: 400).***

As the above suggests, the tonemic shape of a negative imperative with past tense implications is a determining factor for identifying the tone of a verb root as mid. The same appears to be the case even with affirmative constructions which have already been illustrated above using sọmbò as a past form of snap and sọmbò as an imperative form. The same also holds good for nụmbè (played) and nụmbè (play - the imperative), yẹvèsè (fled) and yẹvésè (flee - the imperative form). It however does not have an all-round application with the entire corpus of the Tiv verb because the sequence mid, low involves only verbs of the D, E and G classes. With verbs of the H class, a high tone is used for a singular imperative as in the following:

[a] *vá* - *come*

[b] *gbá mị* - *set to work*

[c] *dzá shín Makurdi* - *go to Makurdi (Abrahim, 1940: 28).*

The plural imperative realised with the post verbal particle 'nén' also carries a high tone as illustrated hereunder:

[a] *vá nén* - *come, all of you*

[b] *dé nén áyóósó* - *you (plural) stop chattering.*

With types A and C verbs, the imperative is realised either with low, high or an upward glide.

The following examples are instructive:

[a] *kìmbí* - *pay (type A)*

[b] *màá* - *build (type A)*

[c] *yem̂* - *go (type C)*

[d] *ngbagh̀* - *roast (type C)*

Type B verbs use low tone followed by a downward glide to realise the imperative. Examples are:

[a] *rùmụn* - *agree or say yes. (type B)*

[b] *ngòhọr* - *receive it or take it (type B).*

The illustrative sentences (a) and (b) above are also capable of being realised as plural imperatives using the post-verbal particle 'nén'. The plurality is introduced in the sentence by this particle - 'nén'. It may as well be called 'the plural particle'. Examples of its usage are:

[a] *rùmụn nén* - *say yes, you all, or say yes, all of you*

[b] *ngòhọr nén* - *receive ye or take it, all of you.*

With type F verbs, there exists a mid tone followed by a downward glide as in:

[a] *ụmbụr nén* - *remember, all of you*

[b] *ụmbụr* - *remember (singular)*

[c] *kpòrọm* - *come nearer*

[d] *kpòrọm nén* - *come nearer, all of you.*

As for the negative imperative, its realisation is effected with a pre-verbal particle called 'dé' which means 'stop'. The following examples explain it all:

[a] dé nén núm - stop fighting, all of you

[b] dé nén áyóóso - stop chattering, all of you.

Realisation of affirmative constructions of the imperative type is possible with object pronouns as follows:

[a] kìmbím - pay me

[b] kìmbí se - pay us

[c] tàvér vé shímá - ginger them up

[d] màám yoụgh - build a house for me.

In the same vein, realisation of the imperative in the language, can be done with nouns used as objects as in:

[a] tsạr ìménger - light the lamp

[b] bụgh húndá - open the door

Also in the language, there is a group of plural imperatives whose realisation is by prefixation of the particle "né" to the verbal form as in the following examples:

[a] né ạ rùmùn yó dé nén áyóóso - please stop chattering (you Plural)

[b] né ạ rùmùn yó vá nén - please come along, all of you.

Africanists like Abraham (1940) class the above into imperatives but the mood expressed is not exactly imperative. It is subjunctive i.e. a request or an exhortation. It is what Welmers (1973) refers to as the 'hortative'. Examples of hortative primary constructions are:

[a] Let us pray - Sé èr nén msén

[b] Let's go to the playground - Sé dzà nén shá àgírìgì ù nyúmbé

*[c] *he should go out or let him go out - á dụwé*

The hortative differs slightly form the subjunctive because exhortation elicits an action of which the speaker himself partakes. In a subjunctive, a request or an

urge is made to the addressed person with a view to eliciting some reaction from him. The two differ markedly from the imperative because they do not express commands. They are considered similar because they express exhortation and thus elicit reaction from the person addressed.

The negative hortative of example (c) above would therefore be "he shouldn't go out" - "à dé dụwén gá". It is nevertheless true that in some of the Benue - Congo languages, some negative imperatives are expressed as negative hortatives as could be seen in the following expressions in Efik:

"kû dép mbòró ùsók mî - Don't buy bananas for me" (Welmers, 1973: 407)

The affirmative equivalent of the above is "è dép mbòrò è sók mî - buy (pl.) or "dép mbòrò sók mî - buy (sing.) /bananas for me (Ibid: 406). From the above illustrative sentences therefore, it becomes clear that 'negative hortatives when used without subject pronouns function as negative imperatives in Efik. The same appears to be the case in Tiv language as in the following sentences:

[a] yàmèm àyàbà - buy bananas for me (hortative)

[b] dé yàmén mó àyàbà gá - don't buy bananas for me (imperative)

The above notwithstanding, the distinction between hortative verbal constructions and imperative verbal constructions exists. Examples are:

[a] à vá á ìhó - Let him bring a knife (hortative) or he should bring a knife

****[b] vá á ìhó - bring a knife (imperative)***

[c] à dé vé á ìhó gá - he shouldn't bring a knife (negative hortative)

****[d] dé vé á ìhó gá - don't bring a knife (negative imperative)***

The subject pronoun 'à' has been left out in sentence (d) to realise the negative imperative just as in the same way as the example in Efik illustrated above. In (b), the imperative is realised without it - 'à'.

The Tiv verbal system also has what Abraham refers to as "verbs of wishing". They include 'sàr' and 'gbà' which he says are always "followed by

the imperative i.e. when 'you' is the person whose action is wished" (Abraham: 30). He gives the following examples to explain his case:

[a] Sàrem pè vá (which, synchronically, should have read - sàrem pè mà ú vé) - I want you to come. Literally, it may translate as "there is a desire to me, come" (Ibid).

[b] gbam pè vá nén (or gbam pè mà né vé) - I want you (plural) to come.

He appears to have erred here because to express a wish is not the same thing as to give a command. Consequently, verbs expressing wishes cannot be classed under imperatives. Rather, they could easily pass for subjunctives and are treated as such in this study. Welmers (1973: 398) appears to have used a far better term - 'desiderative' to describe such linguistic phenomena. He illustrates as follows:

[a] If only he would go out - sàrem pè mà á dúgh (desiderative positive)

[b] If only he wouldn't go out - sàrém pè mà á dúgh gá (desiderative negative)

Abraham's treatment of the subjunctive is essentially tonemic i.e. the subjunctive is "distinguished by the fact that all the subject pronouns have low tones" (Ibid: 30). He illustrates the situation as follows:

[a] ì vá - Let people come

[b] ì yírá un - Let him be called.

The analysis is quite impressive but as we have noted elsewhere in this study, the subjunctive can also be realised with the particle 'né' (see page 36) and also with "verbs of wishing" (see page 37). Realisation of the subjunctive should therefore not be taken as being predicated on tone alone.

It was, also, indicated elsewhere in this section of the study that the negative imperative is rendered by the particle 'dé' which is always followed by what Abraham (1940) terms as a "true habitual" while the negation particle 'gá' takes the sentence-final or terminal position. Examples are:

[a] dé nyér gá - don't enter

[b] dé ngòhól vé gá - don't receive them

[c] dé kérén mó gá - don't look for me.

What makes the verbs 'nyér', 'ngòhól' and 'kérén' 'true habituals' has not been explained by Abraham. He however treats the particles "dèn", "sàn" in the following sentences in a fashion that renders them allomorphic variants of 'dé'. Example:

dèn vé gá - don't come

sàn vé gá - don't come.

The particle "dé " can also easily collocate with the particles "sènà" and "dèn", "kèrà" etc. as in the following:

[a] dé sènà vé gá - don't come

[b] dèn vihín shímá gá - don't be angered

[c] dé kèrà dzé gá - don't go again.

These too could be taken as the variants of 'dé'. They help to reinforce the sense of negation expressed in the sentence. They therefore have allomorphic trappings because they are used in free variation with "dé".

Negation of subjunctive expressions is also on the same pattern as what obtains for the negative imperative. Examples are as follows:

[a] òr móm móm nàn à dé bèndén ụn wégh yòl gá - Let no one touch him

[b] ì dé vịhín wé gá - Please don't be offended

[c] à dé pìnị ú gá - Let him not ask you

[d] à dé né ụ gá - Let him not give you.

It would be noticed from the above that the subject pronouns which precede the negated verbs are realised in low tones. This tonemic distinction is important because it clearly reveals how the subjunctive and the imperative are differently realised in the verbal constructions of the language.

2.8 *The True Verbal Noun*

The verbal noun as defined in Webster's Encyclopaedic Unabridged Dictionary of English Language, is "a noun derived from a verb, especially by a process applicable to most or all verbs as, in English, the -ing form of 'eating is fun' or of 'smoking is forbidden" (page 1586). It is a bit difficult to attempt a syntactic definition of the True Verbal Noun in the verbal system of Tiv because of the seemingly indeterminate nature of its morphological shape which at the first glance, looks like a continuous verbal form such as found in constructions like:

[a] ngù vaan - he/she is crying

[b] ngù pinèn - he/she is asking.

In most continuous verbal forms, the tonemic sequence is mid, low. The above examples clearly confirm this. With True Verbal Nouns however, we have a low tone followed by a high as could be seen in the following:

[a] Gwaza yèm á bùá ù dzà kùraǹ - Gwaza has taken the cow to pasture.

[b] Mary fatyo ù èreǹ tóm gá - Mary is unable to work.

The underlined are True Verbal Nouns. The sequence low, high is possible only with verbs whose past tense forms have the sequence low, low or simply low as in:

kùrà - pastured

èr - did

With verbs whose past forms are realised in mid, low sequence however, the situation is different. Here, the True Verbal Noun has the tonemic sequence mid. Examples are:

[a] Mimí ngù ìchàn ù voson - Mimi is hard to keep as a house wife.

[b] Mí yàr súré ú kahan - I went to the farm to make yam heaps.

With mono-syllabic verbs, the morpheme [n] is suffixed to the stem to produce the True Verbal Noun. Examples are:

[a] Sàr vé pè mạn msórọm - They want to drink beer.

[b] Sàr Ashí pè lun herègh - Ashi wants to remain where she is at present.

Abraham (1940) has not been able to give us any working definition of what he means by True Verbal Noun. He only describes it on the basis of its different tonemic configurations as would be syntactically conditioned in any given construction. What makes this verbal noun true, he has not explained in his analysis. What he seems to be saying however is that the particle 'ù' may be omitted when the so-called True Verbal Noun describes the manner of an action of the main verb as in:

á wa ave wàsè henen shá mí - he plalced his hands on his temple reflecting on it. (Abraham, 1940:40)

The underlined (i.e. the True Verbal Noun) describes the manner of the action of the main verb 'place'. In other words, the true verbal noun 'henen' which translates literally as 'reflecting' captures the reflective mood which it lexicalises and consequently describes. With 'ù' however, the sentence would have read "..... ù henen shá mí". The meaning would have been different since henèn is, as its tonemic shape shows, a continuous verbal form and not a true one. Its aspect is therefore progressive since the verb henèn is, unlike the True Verbal Noun, an action verbal form and not a stative one. This, it may be stated, explains why Abraham feels the particle 'ù' is not required in constructions involving the True Verbal Nouns illustrated above.

The True Verbal Noun as he calls it, also features at the sentence-initial position followed by the particle 'kpà' and the negation particle 'gá' which takes the sentence-terminal position. Examples are:

[a] Wuan kpà á wùà gá - (Literally - grinding, he has not ground) - He has not ground it properly or it is not well ground.

[b] Vian kpà vià gá - (Lit - cooking, it is not well cooked) - It has not been well cooked.

[c] Man kpà m̀ ma gá - (Lit - drinking, I have not drunk) - I

have not drunk to the extent I would have loved to drink.

In some structures, the object of a transitive verb which features at the sentence-initial position, is followed by the prepositional particles 'á', 'kù' etc. While the True Verbal Noun comes last as in the following:

[a] ***á nyí áạ dụghụn - the extraction of the teeth.***

[b] ***kpándẹgh kù tạn - payment of tax.***

[c] ***hùév mbù ẹrẹn - being lazy.***

[d] ***ḿkónọm mà gbạn - the carving of wooden chairs.***

In a similar vein, the subject of an intransitive verb may come before a True Verbal Noun as in the following:

[a] ***kú vịnẹn - (literally - the dancing which is for the dead) - funeral dance***

[b] ***ì yángé (ì) mịrẹn - the setting of the sun.***

[c] ***ì yángé (ì) dụẹn - the rising of the sun.***

Here, the True Verbal Noun clearly assumes a gerundive posture i.e. behaving like a gerund. The particle 'i' in (b) and (c) is optional.

In other constructions however, the True Verbal Noun takes the mid-sentence position i.e. it is preceded by a noun followed by the prepositional particles 'i' and 'ù' which translate as 'of' and 'who' respectively. An object follows almost immediately. What this means is that "the true verbal noun with an object has the force of a relative sentence or a participle" (Abraham, 1940: 41). Examples are:

[a] ***ínyón íí kẹrẹn ìyòngò (literally - birds of seeking quarrels) - destructive birds.***

[b] ***Òr ù kụrạn ílẹy (literally - person of tending animals, one who tends animals)*** – a shepherd for a short.

[c] ***kwàsé ù dọọn àshè (literally - a good looking woman - one of being good as to the face) - a beautiful woman.***

Note that the adjective 'good' may be realised in Tiv language as a verb. Thus the word 'dọọ' translates as 'it is good'. Its inflected form 'dọọn' means

'being good'. It is used gerundively as in "mdo̱o u kwa̱ghya̱n" (lit. - the state of food being good) or the tasty state of the food. Thus in Tiv, adjectives sometimes behave like verbs.

The True Verbal Noun is also used where an adjective should have been used. Examples are:

[a] inyám kọrọn (lit. - animals of seizing prey - wild animals which are essentially carnivorous).

[b] ibuạ i kẹhẹn - fat cows

[c] ibuạ i kạndẹn - thin cows

[d] inyàm i ngbạghẹn - roast meat

All these represent the different manifestations of the 'True Verbal Noun' in the verbal system of the language.

2.9 *The Indefinite Verbal Noun*

By indefinite verbal noun, it is meant verbal nouns which are used intransitively in syntactic structures. They are most of the time preceded by the morphemic particle 'm' which is prefixed to the verb stem. The following examples are quite instructive:

[a] Mkimbi mhidi gá - I have not paid for the return journey

[b] Vé vạ m vẹ́ mọm - They all came together.

It is (i.e. the indefinite verbal noun) also used to express a sense that is durative i.e. 'since', 'so' 'and so'. Examples are:

[a] M dúwè wạm kèn yo̱ugh jé mkèlà hìdí gá - Since I left my house, I have not returned

[b] M vé wạm ká u mé kèlà hìdè gá (literally - my coming is to stay, not to return) - I have come to stay.

In all these examples the durative sense is underscored while the verbal nouns as already stated above, have been used intransitively.

2.2.0. *The Dependent Verbal Noun*

Dependent Verbal Nouns in the words of Abraham (1940: 59-63) are those verbal nouns which are "dependent on certain verbs indicating time which

govern and precede them". They resemble the continuous verbal forms but differ tonemically from them. They could be found in the following constructions:

[a] á kìmbìr pìnèn - he asked again.

[b] á dzèr bùmèn - he has continuously acted stupidly.

The tonemic shape of the underlined is, in each case, low, low. Like the word 'good' which is sometimes used as a verb in the language, the word "búmè" which means "being stupid" is realised as a verb. In a sentence like "á búmè" which translates as "he is stupid", 'búmè' combines as the singulative finite form of the verb "BE" - i.e. 'is' and the adjective 'stupid' but which functions syntactically as a verbal noun. It is a unique characteristic of the Tiv language - one in which adjectives take onto themselves the syntactic qualities of verbs and consequently behave as such in syntactic structures.

There are some verbs which govern or precede the dependent verbal noun as in: M fàtyó vàrèn gá - I am not able to do smithing. The verb 'able' precedes the dependent verbal noun - 'do smithing' (vàrèn).

In some constructions, the verb 'gbà' which Abraham translates as 'proceeded to', or 'began to' and the verb "màsè" which means 'later', are used as temporals to indicate the time during which an action takes place. These verbs are followed by verbal nouns in the same structure but they (i.e. the verbal nouns) indicate different acts altogether. Examples are hereunder represented as follows:

[a] Ada gbà mi vààn - Ada began to cry or Ada started crying.

[b] Ve gbà mi yèmèn - They proceeded to go or they started going.

[c] Vé ngurè yèmèn - They started off.

By and large, Abraham's treatment of the verbal noun and its various manifestations is, by all known standards, valid. The tonemic approach which he adopts is particularly revealing because it helps bring out the semantic nuances which would be problematic especially to the L_2 learners of the

language. Although he has not come out with a working definition of what he means by 'verbal noun' his application of the term in syntactic structures as the foregoing clearly suggests, is in itself explicative enough. It is therefore taken as valid in this study.

2.2.1 ***The Special Form***

The past tense and its different realisations in the Tiv verbal system have already been treated in this work. The analysis though very elaborate, is by no means exhaustive. In this section, a revisit of the realisation of the past tense would be undertaken albeit with a slightly different focus. Here, a critical look at what Abraham (1940) terms "the special form": a term which he appears to have been ill at ease to define, shall be undertaken.

A cursory look at the so-called 'special form' gives one a rather erroneous impression that a distinction is being made between 'near' and 'remote' past. Welmers (1973: 348) however, cautions us against taking "every report of a distinction between 'near past' and 'remote past' at its face value". Abraham, he further states, "appears to describe such a distinction for Tiv, but it is clear on the basis of the data he himself presents that the distinction is rather between a completive and a simple past". What he (Abraham) calls 'the special form of verbs' he continues, has two "varieties" which "merely show a morphotonemic alternation conditioned by the choice of subject pronoun, and the term special seems to have no positive significance but appears to have been chosen merely for lack of more specifically meaningful label" (Ibid: 348). The special form, Welmers (19730 avers, "is said to be used when an act has occurred recently" - a situation which Abraham (1940) illustrates as "ásheń m̀ kìmbí" which means "I paid recently".

Welmers' observations are quite instructive and strong too. We are, in this study, in agreement with him because the special form can, on no account, be taken as being indicative of 'near' and 'remote' past. The illustrative sentence- "ásheń m̀ kìmbí - I recently paid" in our view, does not seem to emphasize "recentness of action" more than the fact that the tense involved is

simply 'past simple'. Also based on the data he presents on page 49 of his work - *The Principles of Tiv Grammar* (1940), "special 2" of kímbí is translated as "paid" and it is used in a completive sense. Consequently, it should have carried a high, high tonemic sequence and not high, mid as he puts it. Perhaps the following illustrative sentences will be more instructive:

[a] ***áshén á kímbí - he recently paid***

[b] ***áshén sé kímbí - we recently paid***

[c] ***áshén né kímbí - you (pl) recently paid***

[d] ***áshén vé kímbí - they recently paid***

[e] ***áshén áhélmá á kímbí - the headmen recently paid.***

The high, high tonemic sequence is manifest in all cases. It is in conformity with the tonemic shape of the preceding subject pronouns which Welmers (1973) says has the potential for conditioning morphotonemic shapes of the verbs with which they collocate. Welmers (1973) also quotes Abraham (1940) as saying that such a word (i.e. áshén) is not essential, and that the verbal construction by itself refers to an "action as recent as a few minutes ago or a few days ago but that if a specific time is referred to, even yesterday, the past tense is used" (Welmers: 349). In spite of the repeated emphasis on the recentness of action, the idea of an immediate past is by no means in focus here. The very example which Abraham gives by way of expatiation is hereunder reproduced to explain away his claim:

"tóhó ú méndé - the grass has sprouted". But "surely the grass in this case need not have sprouted within the past few minutes or even the past few days; the point is that it is now in a state which is the result of a past action - a typical reference to completive rather than a recent past. Had the illustrative sentence been 'the grass has dried, the situation would have been clearer; the drying process might have been pretty well complete as much as two or three months ago, but the point simply is that it is dry now". In all further citations Welmers (1973: 349) continues, "Abraham translates with the English 'perfect' which is clearly a more faithful representation than a past with recentness

specified" Ibid: 349). This lengthy quotation is no doubt very instructive. The recentness of occurrence of an act which Abraham (1940) tries to pinpoint in all his illustratives (i.e. pages 48 - 49) does not seem to have any positive significance. The supposed difference between what he terms as "specials 1 and 2, is essentially tonemic but is unfortunately devoid of any semantic nay syntactic significance. "Special 1" as it is so called has two low tones - "kimbi" (paid) while "special two" has high, mid - 'kímbi' (paid). The two 'specials' mean the same thing as far as the past tense of the verb 'pay' is concerned. It is for this reason that we consider as inappropriate the tonemic representation of special 2 (i.e. as high, mid). It ought to have been high, high: at least the synchronic state of the language dictates just that.

Secondly, his (i.e. Abraham's) assertion that "Special 1 is used after the Tiv words 'I' and 'You' (singular) and after "un" is also not so correct because the syntactic realisation of an act which has occurred recently is possible with all manner of subject pronouns. Consequently, the sub-categorisation into "special 1 and 2" appears unwarranted if not irrelevant. Above all, the examples for the so-called specials 1 and 2 all point significantly to one syntactic fact i.e. the act, in spite of its alleged recentness of occurrence, has been completed. The term completive may, conveniently, be used to characterise this effect. It may, in other words, be called 'perfect' or what other Africanists refer to as 'perfective' although Welmers frowns at this usage and points out that "it no longer has its older meaning of complete". The observation, though sound intellectually, is for now being reserved for further treatment elsewhere. As for us in this study, 'perfective' is considered a veritable exponent of the meaning that is intended and is therefore taken as such. It is also considered a "more faithful representation than a past with recentness specified" (Ibid: 349). Abraham himself confirms this though inadvertently when he says "in practice, unless it is desired to call attention to recentness, the mere fact of the recentness of the act is not enough to render obligatory use of the special in simple statements of fact like 'kàsúa búndèm

nyiaṇ' - I missed the market today'. (Abraham, 1940: 49). If the use of the 'special' is not obligatory in statements, the need for dissipating our energy in discussing it should not arise at all.

2.2.2 ***The Special Verbal Noun***

In the section immediately preceding this one, the study treated the special form, which as it may be understood, deals with two aspects of tense distinction - i.e. the simple past and the notion of perfective or the completive as it is often called in some other literature. Perhaps due to want of an appropriate term as Welmers (1973) has rightly observed, Abraham (1940) discussed such distinctions in terms of recentness of occurrence of an act. His sub-categorisation of same into specials 1 and 2, as has already been observed, is nebulous. It is in this same nebulous fashion that he seems to be discussing what he calls "the special verbal noun". He describes 'the special verbal noun' as "a verbal noun which may stand instead of the special whenever the latter is used; the special verbal noun has respectively the same tones as special 1 or special 2 which it replaces" (Abraham, 1940: 63). The description, it must be pointed out, is rather vacuous because the two specials - 1 and 2 have (if we are to take Abraham's tonemic representation seriously) their respective tonemic configurations - i.e. the one has low, high while the other has high, mid. For the special verbal noun to have the same tone as specials 1 and 2 sounds absurd moreso as Abraham (1940) has not indicated how such sameness can be realised or established. The examples he has given to explain his point do not help any matters either. They include:

[a] ***èr nàn màn ú tsùgh sé?***

[b] ***èr nàn màn ú tsùghùn sé?***

He has given us a common translation for the two which reads - "Why have you deceived us?" (Ibid: 63). He therefore seems to be saying, that the past tense form of the verb 'tsùgh' (deceived) and the verbal noun 'tsùghùn' (deceiving) have the same semantics and the same syntactic function in the two sentences

above. This, if it is what he means, is therefore not so correct because the two constructions are different in the following respects:

(1) The first sentence has a perfective aspect because the sense it seeks to convey is completive. Any L_1 speaker of the language can testify to this. Its English equivalent is - "why have you deceived us?" The tense is present perfect and the act of deceiving is by this fact completed.

(2) The second sentence should have read - "why are you deceiving us?" It therefore cannot be subjected to the same semantic interpretation as the first one. Its syntax as evidenced by its surface structure is also different. In fact the presence of the verbal noun 'tsùghùn' confirms this. Here, we have an act i.e. that of deceiving going on in a progressive manner. It has been discovered and it is being complained of by the speaker. The tense, therefore, is clearly present continuous and has the progressive aspect as its concomitant. The distinction, though very fundamental, has unfortunately been ignored by Abraham in his analysis. His subsequent examples which read:

[a] ká nyì vé èré?

[b] ká nyì vé èrènè?"

can also be analysed in the same light as the first two. Sentence (a) for instance has the perfective aspect because its English equivalent reads - "what have they done?" The translation is by no means common to sentence (b) as Abraham (1940) has claimed because (b) can be translated as - "what are they doing?". Its tense is therefore present continuous while its aspect is progressive. Any L_1 speaker of the language can attest to this syntactic difference which is also mirrored through the respective deep structures of the two sentences. Abraham's basis for conceptualising the above linguistic phenomena as 'special' does not seem to exist, therefore.

2.2.3 *Conditional Clauses and their Realisation in Tiv Verbal System*

They are clauses through which unrealised hypothetical conditions are expressed. In English, the following patterns are manifest:

[a] ***(If + present) + future. - If I am rich, I will buy a car.***

[b] ***(If + simple past) + conditional - If I was rich, I would buy a car.***

[c] ***(If + past perfect) + conditional - If I had been rich, I would have bought a car.***

Like the English, the Tiv also have ways of expressing "unrealised conditions" (Abraham 1940:63) as in a sentence like "mé á fé yó mà m̀ èr ú" - If I had known, I would have told you'. The first clause is oftentimes preceded by the conditional market "aluer" which, as noted elsewhere in this study, translates as "if". Thus mé (or má in some dialects) as used in the example above is an alterant form of "aluer". Its presence in a clause, in some instances, makes the presence of "aluer" optional or even unnecessary in extreme cases. In formal discourse, however, the two are used simultaneously. Example, "Alúèr mé á pịn yó mà ú kàv" - if I had asked, you would have understood.

The conditional marker 'aluer' and its alternants are always followed by a verb whose tense is perfective. Abraham (1940: 75) calls this "special 2" and describes it as that which is the resultant form of the ordinary verb following a change in its "internal vowel" as would be conditioned morphosyntactically. This appears to be a very impressive description but as we shall see presently, the special is not anything more than the past perfect form of the verb as it is used in any clause of the pattern If + Past Perfect + Conditional. This explains why in the above example, the verb "pìnè" (asked) changes morphemically to 'pịn' (had asked) to accord with the dictates of the perfective tense. Other examples of this phenomenon include:

[a] ***Dạm úna lú héérégh yó, tòr mà á vé - had Dam been alive, the Chief would have come. Here, the verb 'vá' (came) changes in form to "vé" (would have come)***

[b] ***iòr véạ hìdí yó, mà ḿ hìdí - had the people returned, I would have returned.***

As the above examples clearly show, realisation of the conditional clause in the Tiv verbal system is more pronounced with the perfective pattern - if + past perfect + conditional. Realisation with patterns (a) and (b) seems to be rare if not completely absent. Realisation also takes place with appropriate changes in the morphology of the verb involved in a fashion akeen to what is obtainable in the English verbal system.

2.2.4 ***The Habitual Action***

The Tiv language, like most Bantu languages, has certain verbal forms in which the speakers express habitual action and which, if in the present, may be followed by the post-verbal particles 'kèkè', 'kpèm' or 'gbèm'. These three particles are variants of the same particle. Their distribution in syntactic structures of the language is therefore complementary i.e. wherever one of them occurs, the others do not occur. In other words, they are allomorphic alternants of the same particle whose meaning is, "always". There are, altogether, three different ways in which realisation of the habitual action is made manifest in the verbal system of the language. They are, the true habitual, habitual past and habitual present. The true habitual activity is expressed with a form of what Abraham (1940) terms as the "true verbal noun". It is nearly always followed by the particle 'gbem' or any of its variants. Examples are:

[a] ***Màmá tém héén gbèm - Mummy always sits here.***

[b] ***Òr né vé héén gbèm - This man always comes here/to this place.***

The true habitual activity when expressed in this way, should not be mistaken for a customary activity. Welmers (1973: 393) in his treatment of affirmative primary constructions illustrates the "customary activity' as 'I plant yams' and differentiates it from 'the experiential' which he exemplifies as "I have often planted yams". The 'experiential activity' appears to be more habituative than the 'customary'. It may, to a very large extent, be classed under 'frequentative activity'. In like manner, the Tiv express the habitual activity as one which is 'habituative' and which, by and large, is frequentative. This is clearly

expressed through the use of the particle 'gbèm' or its variants 'kpèm' or 'kèkè' all of which mean 'always or often'.

The habitual past activity on the other hand, is realised in the language through the use of the particle 'ká' followed by a pronoun. The verb comes after the pronoun which also functions as the subject of the sentence. Example: "Ká vé vèndá" - They always refuse'. Vèndá (past tense form of refuse) can be rendered "special 2" as "vèndé" (i.e. always refuses) as in the following illustration:

Dam vèndé núm gbèm - Dam always refrains from engaging in fights".
Where vende is used to mean past habitual, a verbal noun is used to express the habituative sense e.g. Dạm yángé vẹndań núm gbèm - Dam had always refrained from engaging in fights". Here, the idea of a perfective past is expressed as a habitual past action.

The habitual present activity is also realised with the particle 'ká' plus an appropriate pronoun and like the habitual past, the ensuing verb is always a verbal noun. But unlike the first version of past habitual, the present habitual does not use the so-called 'special 2'. The following sentences explain the situation better:

[a] ká vé vạan - they habitually cry.

[b] ká vé vẹndań - they habitually refuse.

[c] ká vé yẹmeń - they habitually go.

Where there is any need to use 'special2' the preceding particle 'ká' is dropped and 'mbá' takes its place. Example, "mbá vèndé" - they habitually refuse. The particle "mbá" can also be used with a verbal noun as in - mbá vé vẹndań - they habitually refuse. We also have the copulative particle 'ngù ẹ' as in "ngù ẹ vẹndań - he habitually refuses' (Abraham: 73-77). Some verbs in the language are transformed into verbal nouns to help express the habitual activity. Example the verb "ìi" (steal) is transformed into "iin" as in (a) "Musa ìigbèm" Musa always steals. (b) "Musa kẹreń núm gbèm" - Musa always itches for fights. Other verbs like ùmbùr (remember) yévèsè (run) etc. do not require any

visible morphological transformation before being used for the realisation of the habitual action. Examples are:

[a] ***ḿ úmbur̀ kèkè - I always remember***

[b] ***ì wà nè yévésé kèkè - This dog always runs away.***

The habitual present actions may follow each other in a consecutive manner in which case, the second or later clauses carry the meanings of 'and so', 'and then' or 'after that' as in the following:

[a] ***Dam vé kèkè, ngù ẹ kuraǹ ílèv̀ heẹn or héén (in some dialects) -***
Dam comes and pastures his animals here all the time.

[b] ***ká í wùhé í shọ ọ́ í tá átíhí màn í gbạ mị kangèn yé -***
People always cut the heads of the beniseed plant, then they tie them up" (Ibid: 78).

As these examples clearly show, one activity is followed by another. In (a), the idea of Dam frequenting here and pasturing his animals is expressed. In (b), the acts of cutting and tying are expressed as happening habitually and consecutively too.

2.2.5 ***Emphatic Verbal Forms***

Emphasis in the Tiv language is expressed using the particle 'á' which can be added to any verb regardless of tense. In other words, the particle is, in some structures, sandwiched in between reduplicated verbal forms which are used for the purpose of emphasis. Reduplication is a very important feature of most African languages, especially the languages of the Niger-Congo family. In the Tiv language, the following illustrate how emphasis is realised with these verbal forms:

[a] ***dzwá nè sèn á sèn - this hole is very deep.***

[b] ***á gbèr ímó kèndẹ á kèndẹ - He is singing in a high-pitched voice.***

Emphatic expressions may be realised in a subjunctive manner as in the following:

[a] ḿ kàà mé à dùwé á dùwè tséégh - I only said he should come out.

[b] ḿ kàà mé à tìrím á tìr á mị - I only said he should hold it for me.

There are instances when the verbal noun is also used for the same purpose e.g.

[a] kwàgh ù mạn á mạ - a thing given to drinking

[b] kwàgh ù tsụwén á tsùwè - a thing given to jumping.

With indifinite verbal nouns, emphatic expressions are also realised as follows:

[a] á kìmbì à dzạn á dzà tséégh, á kìmbì m-hìdí gá - He only paid for the trip. He did not pay for the return journey.

Emphatic expressions are also realised using the 'continuous' as in the following:

[a] sé mbɑ kẹrèn á kẹr - we are only searching thoroughly.

Emphatic expressions are also realised with the so-called 'special 2' as in the sentence below:

Sé fá òr ù nàn <u>vèndé</u> á vèndà vé
We have now discovered the person who has deliberately refused (perhaps to attend the closing ceremony).

Above all, emphatic expressions are used for 'True Habitual' activity as in the sentence - ká vé tsùá á tsùà òr màn nàn dzá yé - they always elect somebody to represent them.

Our treatment of the Tiv verbal system in this section of the study is, to a reasonable extent, elaborate though by no means exhaustive. This means there are some areas which have not been treated. For this present purpose however, the foregoing would be considered quite adequate.

In the third chapter of the study, a similar analysis of the English verb would be undertaken in relation to the Tiv verb. The objective in the said chapter would be to discuss the English verb in all appreciable remifications and at the same time highlight the major structural differences that exist between English and Tiv verbal systems. Similarities, if any, would equally be highlighted.

Chapter 3

The English Verb

This section of the study treats, in detail, a descriptive analysis of the English verbal system. It employs the Praguian Concept of realisation as an analytical tool. Realisation as a linguistic concept has been explained elsewhere in the study. Over the years, it has been used for "intra-lingual analysis". It is here adapted and used for inter-lingual analysis: an analysis of the English verbal system vis-a-vis that of its Tiv counterpart.

A descriptive approach is considered relevant to the study because:

> ***Materials for teaching of second language are those that are based upon the scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner (Charles Fries, 1945) quoted in (Oyetunde, 1983:31).***

Although the present work does not have pedagogics as its thrust, its relevance to language teaching has been implicitly underscored. It is moreso because:

> ***Teaching needs to be based on the best possible description of the language being taught. And the better, the fuller, the more accurate the description is, the more chances the teacher will have to assist the learner in his growing mastery of the structure of the new language. Without such knowledge, there will be little possibility of satisfactory sequencing of materials, no chance of distinguishing mistakes from systematic errors which are the best evidence that language learning is taking place (Oyetunde, 1983: 27).***

3.1 *The English Verb and Its Morphology*

Morphology may be defined as the study of the internal structure of words and the rules governing the formation of words in a language (Elkins, 1974; Stageberg, 1981; Tomori; 1977). Central to the discussion of English morphology are two concepts - morpheme and allomorph. The morpheme has been defined generally as the smallest unit of language that has semantic or grammatical meaning. James Muir (1978: 4) sees it as "the smallest meaningful

unit that is pertinent to grammatical description". To Sandved and Christophersen (1972: 9), the morpheme is simply "the smallest meaningful unit" which cannot be broken up into smaller parts without seriously injuring or destroying its meaning. Stageberg (1981: 83) on the other hand defines the morpheme as ***a short segment of language that meets three criteria, viz:***

[i] It is a word or part of a word that has meaning.

[ii] It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.

[iii] It recurs in differing verbal environments.

These definitions are similar because they all identify one basic character of the morphme and that is, its being the smallest meaningful unit is language.

By the morphology of the English verb, this study is not just interested in its morphemic status per se. Rather, it is interested in bringing to light the changes in the morphological shapes of the verb as would be made possible either by the present and past tense inflections or the inflection of the verb as realised by the third person singular present. In order words, the study analyses the morphological structure of the verb which presents a paradigm of inflectional suffixes known as the past tense symbolised by [D_1], the past participle [D_2], the present continuous [-ing] and the third person singular [z_3]. The latter has three spoken forms realised phonologically as /s/, /z/ and /iz/ on the same pattern as the plural and genitivised morpheme [s]. The morpheme "/iz/, for example, occurs after the fricatives /s/ and /z/ and after the affricates /ʧ/ and /ʤ/ as in the following:

Voiceless	***/s/***	***pass***	***passes***	***/pa:siz/***
Voiced	***/z/***	***buzz***	***buzzes***	***/bʌziz/***
Voiceless	***/t/***	***catch***	***catches***	***/k æ ʧ iz/***
Voiced	***/dz/***	***budge***	***budges***	***/b dʒ iz/***
Voiceless	***/ʃ/***	***push***	***pushes***	***/puʃ iz/***
Voiced	***/ʒ/***	***camouflage***	***comuflages***	***/kæmafla:ʒ iz/***

2. /z/ occurs after bases ending in other voiced sounds in the following:

/l/	***call***	***calls***	*/kɔ:lz/*
/b/	***rob***	***robs***	*/rɔbz/*
/ai/	***try***	***tries***	*/traiz /*

Exceptional forms are:

do	*/du/*	***does***	*/dʌz/*
have	*/hæv/*	***has***	*/hæz/ həz/*
say	*/sei/*	***says***	*/sez/*

3. /s/ occurs after voiceless sounds e.g.:

/t/	***cut***	***cuts***	*/kʌts/*
/k/	***lock***	***locks***	*/lɑks/*
/p/	***sap***	***saps***	*/sæps/*

The [past [D_1] and the -ed participle [D_2] of regular verbs have three phonetic realisations as follows:

1. /id/ occurs after bases ending in the alveolar stops /d/ and /t/ as in pad, padded /pædid/ pat, patted /pætid/

2. /id/ occurs after bases ending in voiced sounds other than /d/ e.g:

/ou/ as in mow, mowed /moud/

/z/	***as in buzz,***	***buzzed***	*/ bʌzd/*
/dʒ/	***as in budge,***	***budged***	*/bʌdʒd/*

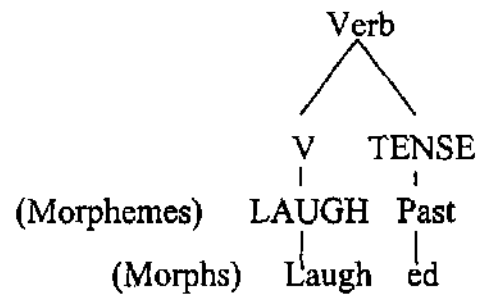
3. /t/ occurs after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than /t/ as in pass, passed /pæst/, pack, packed /pækt/. [Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1984]

The [ing] affix is unique because it has only one allomorph in most English forms. The allomorphs have been defined as variants of the same morpheme. They are said to be in complementary distribution because they are not interchangeable. This means the occurrence of one or another of them depends on the phonological environment in this case the preceding sounds. Thus the phonemic forms of the third person singular verb here represented as /s/, /z/ and /iz/ and the past tense cum past participle inflection represented as /t/,

/d/ and /id/ are allomorphs of the morphemes past and third person singular present respectively.

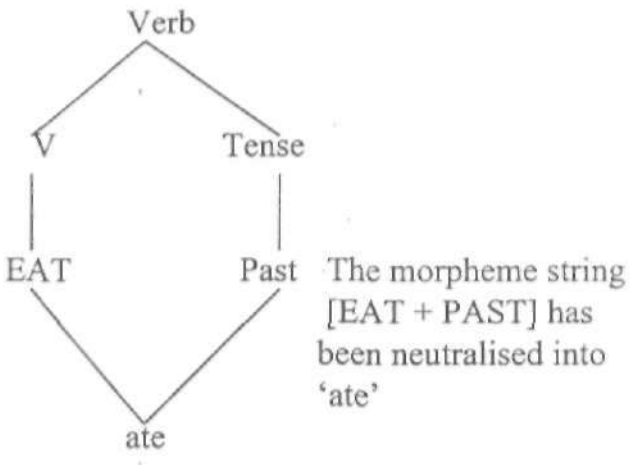
Linguists the world over, are agreed on the principles that underlie these phonemic realisations. It is therefore widely known as the law of phonological conditioning which, according to Tomori (1977), is "as complete as it can be because it embraces most English verbs" especially those classified as regular. The irregular verbs are not realised in this way. There is for example, the zero allomorphic realisation of the past tense morpheme in verbs like put, cut, knit etc, vowel replacives in string, fling, drink etc. and the suppletive forms which include go, went, do, did etc. Christophersen and Sandved (1972: 43) have identified fifteen realisational patterns of these irregular verbs. Similarly, a discussion on the English verbs by Gleason (1970) is also instructive. He has classified English verbs into fifty three paradigmatic sub-classes, arranged in descending order. The verb 'BE' which is "exceedingly common and highly specialised" shows continued resistance against conformity with the prevailing patterns. It is therefore not possible to classify it as a verb of the lexical type because none of its inflections with the exception of can, could, will, would, shall, should etc. conforms with the existing patterns.

The morphological description of the English verb can also be approached transformationally through constituent structure analysis. In this approach, morphosyntactic verbs are segmented into morphs. A morphosyntactic word by definition, is that which consists of a lexeme which has grammatical description. For example, the verb 'laughed' consists of the lexeme 'laugh' plus the grammatical description 'past tense'. Diagramatically, this phenomenon can be represented thus:



The analysis is done in terms which see the verb 'laugh' and the tense - 'ed' as morphemes i.e. the minimal units of grammatical description. The V-node has LAUGH as its daughter while the tense-node identifies its daughter as 'past'. The morphs are segments of word forms and hence the direct correspondence between the morpheme LAUGH and the morph 'laugh'. The relationship between the two is one of realisation i.e. the morpheme LAUGH as the diagram clearly shows, is realised by the morph 'laugh'. It is what is often referred to as simple realisation because there is a one-to-one relationship between the morpheme and the morph.

In the sentence 'The cat ate the mice' however, the realisational relation is that of neutralisation. This is because the verb 'ate' cannot be segmented in the fashion of 'laughed'. In other words, "there seems no satisfactory way to identify a part of 'ate' as realising the lexeme [EAT]; another part as realising [PAST]" (Brown and Miller, 1994: 196). Rather, 'ate' as a unit realises the morpheme string [EAT + PAST]. This is what the study refers to as neutralised realisation. It may be represented diagramatically as:



Another important feature of the morphology of the English verb, viewed through the T. G. prism is the subject-verb concord. According to Miller and Brown (1992:200), "the facts of agreement between verbs and their subjects involve the issue of how we treat number in both nouns and verbs". Thus in the sentence 'the boy yawns' it is pertinent "to formulate a transformational rule that has the effect of copying the morpheme of number from the subject onto

the verb" (Ibid: 200). This could be done through the following constituent structure and lexical rules:

S ⟶ NP VP

VP ⟶ Verb

NP ⟶ Art Noun

Noun ⟶ N Num

Num ⟶ [Sing]

Verb ⟶ V Tense

Tense ⟶ [non-past]

Lexical Rules:

N ⟶ [boy]

V ⟶ [yawn]

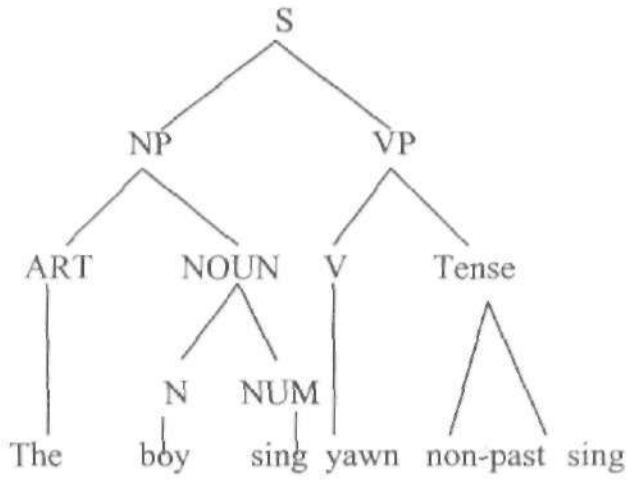
Subject - Verb Concord

Structural Analysis (SA): NP (Art + N + Sing) - Verb
(V + Tense (non-Past)

Structural Change (SC): NP (Art + N + Sing) - Verb
(V + Tense (non-past + Sing)

NB

"The concord rule operates on this structure since the structure meets the structural analysis specified in SA (a singular N is followed by a non-past verb). The Structural Change (SC) specifies that we must add a morpheme singular to the tense node" (op. Cit). The resultant structure is as represented hereunder:



In English, the selection of the appropriate verb depends on the number of the subject NP; if the subject is singular, then the verb too is singular and this is marked by the suffix - s. If the subject is plural, the corresponding verb phrase must be plural, though this is not marked overtly. "This suggests we should characterise the distinction in the verb forms too as one of number" (Brown and Miller op. cit: 197).

In the Tiv verbal system, the concord between the subject noun and its verb is by and large morphotonemically conditioned in line with the dictates of the noun-verb symbiosis previously treated. Thus with the copulative concordial morpheme ngu of the ngun class of nouns, the sentence:

bàgù ngù vàn̰ - a red monkey is coming is illustrative.

'***Ngù***' therefore indicates clearly that the subject noun is singular. Where the subject noun is plural, the verb concord is introduced by the copulative ngi of the ngín class as in:

íbágú ngí vàn̰ - the red monkeys are coming.

The tonemic conditioning rule makes it mandatory for the /i/ of ngi to carry a high tone which has been pre-determined by the /í/ of the noun íbágú (monkeys) In the sentences:

ìnyòn ngìn - this is a bird

ínyón ngín - these are the birds,

the noun-verb concord is morphotemically conditioned as well. There is, for example, a low, low tenemic sequence for the singular construction and a high, high sequence for the plural.

With human subjects, mban class of nouns indicates the concord as in:

ùtòr mban - Here are the chiefs

Tòr ngùn - This is the chief

Other examples include:

Wégh kun - This is the hand

ávé ngán - Here are the hands

nyárégh kịn - This is the money

mkúrém mán - Here is the oil etc.

"***Man***" indicates that the subject is non-count noun while "kịn" indicates that the subject is inanimate. This explains why it would be inappropriate to attest: "nyárégh ngùn" - since ngùn in this sense can only refer to animate subjects.

It should by now be clear that the English try to show concord between NP and VP in terms of number. The Tiv however go beyond that. To them, aspects like count and non-count nouns, abstract and collective nouns, animate and non-animate subjects must, as a rule, show concord with the appropriate verb phrases with which they are collocated. The noun-verb concord in the language is therefore relisationally diversified.

3.2.1 Auxiliary Verbs

In this section, an attempt is made to look at the morphology and syntax of the English auxiliaries in relation to their Tiv counterparts with a view to high-lighting areas of similarities and differences.

Frank Palmer (1965) identifies between eleven and twelve auxiliaries with twenty eight distinct forms. The number often totals thirty when those auxiliaries which function both as finites and non-finites are counted twice in this classification.

The English auxiliaries have been classified into primary and secondary types. The primary types include: BE, HAVE and DO. The secondary auxiliaries are: WILL, SHALL, CAN, MAY, MUST and OUGHT. They are also known as modal auxiliaries. The auxiliary verb 'BE' has, is, are, am, was and were as its finite forms, 'HAVE' has three - has, have and had while 'DO' has do, does and did. The auxiliaries - will/would, shall/should, can/could, may/might, must, dare, need and used are also finites. The non-finite ones are: BE - be, being, been; HAVE - have, having.

Palmer (1965) considers 'used' a doubtful member of the class of verbs called auxiliaries, pointing out that "it does not fit into the full pattern of the auxiliaries and cannot be handled together with them". Quirk et al (1984)

however class it under marginal auxiliaries. It is therefore treated as such in this study.

The auxiliaries BE and HAVE have infinitive forms. The latter also has a finite past tense form 'had' notwithstanding the fact that 'had' does not occur among those forms of auxiliaries that are present in the primary and secondary types. The full verb 'HAVE' has both finite and non-finite forms and since the auxiliary 'had' does not feature in the class of non-finites, it would be inappropriate to attest its occurrence in the sentence "*He has had had gone home". This is because 'had' cannot be used as a non-finite verb. However, it would be possible to attest: "He had gone home" with 'had' functioning here as a finite auxiliary verb.

The auxiliaries 'having' and 'being' can occur in finite forms when they take sentence-initial position to mark participial sub-ordinate clause as in:

[a] Having murdered the king, the assassins set his corpse ablaze.

[b] Being caught, Tunde admitted his guilt.

There are three defining characteristics of the auxiliary verbs. They include, negation, inversion, use of proforms. Palmer (1965) however identifies four, viz. Inversion, code, negation and emphatic affirmation. Negation and inversion 'are the most easily applied as a test and they give almost the same result" (Ibid). They are therefore treated as being criterial to the definition of auxiliary verbs.

[1] Illustratively, auxiliaries are negated as follows:

I can't do what you've asked me to do.

I don't want to dance with you.

You are not the owner of the car.

It is however, ungrammatical to say:

* "You leaven't the plates outside" because full verbs unlike their auxiliary counterparts, are not negated. Viewed against the background of the foregoing, auxiliaries can be defined as verbs whose forms easily lend themselves to negation. Lexical verbs on the other hand take the periphrastic

DO to realise negation. 'DO' is referred to as the most neutral auxiliary which has no individual meaning but serves as a dummy operator in English sentences. Examples are:

I did not want to come.

Jane does not like the oranges.

Some main verbs like prefer, 'hate' etc. lend themselves easily to negation. Quirk et al (1984) refer to them as semi-auxiliaries although Frank Palmer (1965) makes a case for their outright exclusion from the class of auxiliaries. Auxiliaries, he further states, are defined not in terms of the occurrence of their forms with the negative particle but as forms which, in themselves, are capable of being 'negativised'. For certainly, the sentences:

**** I preferen't to ask him.***

**** I haten't to lose the game.***

**** I expectn't to see the play etc. are inattestable.***

Use of 'prefer', 'hate' and 'expect' in the above sentences can only be negated using the particle 'NOT' but the particle is not associated with the verbs. Rather, its association seems to be more with the verbs 'ask', 'lose' and 'see' respectively. The auxiliary 'mightn't' which has currency with BE speakers is seldom heard among the American speakers of the language. 'Usedn't' is rare while 'ain't' is essentially American. It is however considered sub-standard usage.

[2] Inversion: The test here is to see whether an auxiliary can come before the subject as in the following:

Is Ada dancing tonight?

Ought we wait for John?

Other manifestations of inversion could be found in sentences involving seldom' and 'hardly' as in:

Seldom had the Jones agreed to be dragged into such deals

Hardly had I left the room when they began talking about me.

With conditional sentences, we have:

Had I known Bill was coming, I would have waited a bit longer.

Inversion is generally not used in full verbs except in sentences like:

Down came the mighty Joe.

On the table stood the splendid cup.

Into the room staggered the reeking drunk.

These exceptions however show the ostensible absence of the auxiliary verb. Where full verbs are inversed, the periphrastic 'do' is involved as in:

Does John want to come with us?

Did Ada break her mother's cooking pot?

3. Code: It is the use of the auxiliary to avoid repetition. Quirk et al (1984) refer to this linguistic situation as one which attracts the use of "proforms". Examples are:

I don't want to come with you so does Bill.

Ada began to cry and so did Mary.

Interrogatively, they are used as follows:

Can Bill come with us? Yes he can.

Must they go today? They must.

4. Emphatic Affirmation: This refers to use of auxiliary verbs with nuclear stress as in:

You`must,go with John.

I`can,do it.

Ada`has,finished the job.

The most essential thing about the use of auxiliaries to express emphatic affirmation is that they help affirm doubtful statements. Sometimes they are used "as the denial of the negative" [Palmer, 1965: 24]. Examples are:

Ada`can,come [You are wrong to think she cannot]

Bill`must,go [he doesn't want to]

We`did,see them [you thought we did not]

The periphrastic usage is also possible here. Example: ***"I do like it"*** used as an answer to the question "***Do you like it?***" Like Quirk et al, Palmer has this to say about the auxiliary verb 'Do':

> ***It is a special type of auxiliary in that it is used only under conditions under which an auxiliary is used. It occurs only, that is to say, with negation, inversion or code or emphatic affirmation. If none of these conditions apply, it does not occur. It is thus a neutral or empty auxiliary used only where grammatical rules of English require an auxiliary but where auxiliary is not established by the general context.***

Auxiliary verbs differ morphologically from the main verbs in the following ways:

[a] None has the third person singular form realised phonologically as /s/ /z/ and /iz/. Thus the following realisations: "I can, he can, we can, they can," can be attested without morphological changes of the auxiliary 'can' in all the cases.

[b] Only the auxiliaries BE, DO and HAVE have distinct forms for the third person singular of the present tense. The verb BE has five irregular forms. Its singular configuration has a distinct form 'am' as in "I am going". For all others, the form is identical for both plural and singular e.g. I go, you go, we go, they go. The auxiliary 'be' has an idiosyncratic singular represented as /iz/ and /a:/ respectively. The same idiosyncracy is noted in the realisation of the past tense as in: was /wɔ z/, were/wiə/. Also the first and third person singular past tense have identical realisation e.g. 'I was', 'he was'.

[c] The auxiliary HAVE also has a third person singular present - 'has' while its past tense equivalent is 'had'.

[d] The verb 'do' has 'does' /dʌz/ as its third person singular present tense. No other auxiliaries manifest this peculiarity. The verb forms 'dares' and 'needs' are used as full verbs and not as auxiliaries.

3.2.2 Syntactic Classes

Syntactically, auxiliary verbs are classified in terms of the following structures: [a] Infinitive, [b] to + infinitive, [c] -ing form, [d] past participle. This classification can be reduced into two main headings - those auxiliaries that do not occur with infinitives and those which are at home with infinitives. The classification also takes into consideration the morphological categorisation of auxiliaries into primary and secondary types. The only problematic forms are the auxiliaries DARE and NEED which are sometimes referred to as merginal auxiliaries. They however meet the negation requirement as well as inversion. Also as auxiliaries, they are collocated with infinitives as in:

He hardly dare ask.

He need never know.

This contrasts with their use as full verbs i.e. where they are used with to-infinitives as in:

You don't need to ask.

He doesn't dare to go.

Periphrastically the realisations:

Do we dare to come?

Do they need to look? etc. are illustrative.

3.2.3 *The Auxiliaries and their Semantics*

Analysing the meanings of English modal auxiliaries seems intriguing. It is a pretty difficult affair because the past tense forms do not often refer to the past time. Secondary, there are a number of them (especially 'will' and 'can)' that are not wholly distinct in semantic terms nor easily defined in formal terms. The various uses of these auxiliaries based on the formal criteria are as follows:

1. **Will**

Modals like 'will' are used in a variety of senses. They may be used to refer to the future as in: "I will travel to Jos tomorrow" or to habitual activities as in: "She will come in at night and sit down without a word" or to present time as in: "I will do it now". It therefore has neutralised realisation reflecting

these three uses. There are also six uses of 'will'. They include, using 'will' to indicate futurity as illustrated above, volition, induction, characteristic, probability and insistence. 'Will' is used to indicate futurity when it is collocated with future adverbials as in:

June will be here tomorrow.

It will rain tomorrow.

Ada will travel abroad next week.

Volitionally, 'will' is used to refer to future time albeit to suggest willingness or agreement. In this sense, it does not collocate with conditional clauses as in: "If he will come to our wedding". It is used to suggest willingness on the part of the person addressed e.g. "will you come to our wedding?" and to elicit information as in: "Are you going to read a paper tomorrow?" Inductively, 'will' is used to refer to generalisations or timeless truths i.e. such truths that may be proved inductively. Examples are: [a] "Oil will float on water", [b] "Pigs will eat anything". The auxiliary 'will' is however, not used for general truths of the type 'the sun rises in the east' hence it is improper to say:

the sun will rise in the east.

'Will' is used to express characteristic activity as in the following:

[a] ***Every morning the President will walk to the White House***

[b] ***Ada would make a mess of the show. [i.e. it was typical of her to behave that way]***

[c] ***Ada will sit in the room for hours doing nothing.***

A major distinguishing feature of this use is the presence of personal subjects and its outright inability to collocate with the time adverbials. Thus the sentence, "he will always come and sit down without a word" is not characteristic but habitual. The use of 'will' to refer to characteristic activity may carry with it some connotation of disapproval on the part of the speaker. Example:

She will keep talking so that no one else can get in a word.

Probability: 'Will' is used here to indicate that something probably is happening as in:

Bola will be here today.

Ada will be at home by now.

That would do.

Used in the above sense, 'will' has "will have" as its past tense analogue. This can be illustrated as:

[a] ***The French will have been celebrating the Christmas yesterday.***

[b] ***Ada will have been at home then.***

With progressives, 'will' refers to activities or states continuing at the present moment as in:

Ada will be sitting there now.

Insistence: Here, 'will' has a nuclear stress and is indicative of the meaning of insisting upon acting.

For example:

You will do these things!

If you will act the fool.

Almost all the uses of 'will' discussed above have past tense forms symbolised as 'would'.

2. ***SHALL***

It is used to indicate futurity and promise. 'Shall' also has volitional use to express willingness as in:

He shall get his money.

You shall do exactly as you wish.

As a promise, the sentence 'you shall have it tomorrow' is illustrative. Its futuristic use is manifest in sentences like: "I shall be home next week". 'Shall' is also used to indicate intention on the part of the speaker and intermediate volition as in: "We shall let you know our decision soon", "You shall do as I say", In legal and quasi-legal use, we have 'he shall be punished', "the vendor shall maintain the equipment in good repair".

As for 'should' the senses in which it is used include obligation and logical necessity which is almost the same in meaning as ought. Examples are:

You should do as Ada tells you.

They should be home by now.

Putatively, should is used in expressions like:

It is odd that you should behave this way.

I am sorry that this should happen.

Hypothetically, should rears its head in sentences like:

We should love to travel to Jos if we have the fare.

To express tentative conditions, should is used in: "If you should change your mind, please let me know".

3. CAN

Six distinct uses of 'can' can be identified. They include, ability, characteristic, permission, possibility, willingness and sensation. When used to mean ability, 'can' expresses the ability to do something. Its past tense equivalent is 'could'. For example, "he could lift a hundred weight with ease when he was thirty". When used to refer to characteristic sense, 'can' indicates sporadic patterns of behaviour. For example:

Ada can be naughty at times.

Dupe can tell awful stories.

With inanimate subjects, 'can' collocates easily to give characteristic meaning as in:

Carelessness can kill.

Being stupid can be disastrous.

That can do a lot of harm.

'Can' is also used to grant permission as in:

You can go now, you can come tomorrow.

In this sense, 'can' is replaceable by 'may' e.g. 'You may go now'. This is more suited to formal discourse. Used to mean possibility, 'can' underscores the fact that something may possibly happen. E.g. Ada can be there now, she

can be hiding in the woods. Here again, 'can' is replaceable by 'may' as in: "She may be there now".

To express willingness, 'can' is used as in the following:

Can you come nearer?

Could you please come nearer.

The latter is a polite way of realising the same meaning. 'Can' is also used with verbs of sensation as in: "I can see the crowd cheering".

4. MAY

It has permission and possibility as its basic semantics. Examples are "You may come tomorrow". 'Might' is not to be taken as its past tense analogue. It is used to refer to tentative meanings only; in questions and requests. Example, "Might I come?" "Might we have some oranges at dinner today?" To indicate possibility, 'may' is used with reference to both the present and the future time. In this sense, 'may' is usually replaceable by 'can' as in:

"You can come tomorrow". Other examples are: ***John may come - futuristic***

Ada may be there now - present.

Harry might come - tentative.

However, "What may that mean?" is idiomatic. It is a sacarstic reference to the intended meaning encoded by the previous speaker.

5. MUST

Like 'may', 'must' has two basic meanings i.e. obligation and conclusion. As an obligation, the following uses are illustrative:

Ada must go home to see her parents.

She must do as I say.

The analoguous past time is 'had to' and "needn't" its negative. Thus we have:

I had to go - obliged to go.

I needn't go now - I was obliged to go but now there is no need.

'Must' is also used to indicate conclusion or certainty. It is used in this sense with future reference. Its past time analogue is 'must have'. Examples are:

There must be a coup d'etat in Ghana.

There must have been a coup d'etat in Ghana.

6. OUGHT

It is used to express duty. Example, "I ought to attend Ada's wedding". "Ada ought to come here for the Christmas". 'Ought' differs from 'must' because it leaves open the possibility of non-action.

7. DARE and NEED

They are considered auxiliaries because they lend themselves easily to negation. They are found in the following structures:

I daren't talk rudely to my boss - i.e. I haven't the courage to talk to him that way.

You needn't bother about the lack-lustre state of the economy.

In reported speech, the usual pattern is followed i.e. a past tense verb of reporting has a corresponding past tense auxiliary as in the following :

He said he would come today.

He said he daren't talk rudely to his boss.

He said it might rain tomorrow.

It is also worth pointing out that unlike the other modals, the modals 'ought', 'dare' and 'need' do not undergo any morphological changes in their past tense realisations. The illustrative sentence [b] above tells the story.

The English auxiliary verb as the foregoing has shown, presents a complex spectacle. This complexity finds expression in its diversified realisations which no doubt account for the significant differences that exist between the English verbal system and its Tiv counterpart. The Tiv auxiliaries present a less complex situation in the sense that they refer most of the time to futuristic meanings. There are, also, others which combine as subject pronouns. Interestingly, they are also realised through single morphemes albeit in neutralised fashion thereby manifesting some seemingly complex morphosyntactic cum semantic configurations that are characteristic of their

English counterpart. A detailed analysis of these auxiliaries has already been undertaken in the second Chapter of this study.

3.3 Lexical Verbs: Finites and Non-finites

Elsewhere in this study, lexical verbs have been treated from the point of view of their morphological configurations. In this section of the study, an elaborate look at these verbs shall be taken this time in terms of their finiteness and non-finiteness.

Finiteness according to John Haynes (1992: 75) means "first", that is, the first item in a verbal group is also the item that shows tense. The same idea has been expressed by Quirk, Greenbaum , Leech and Svartvik (1984). They describe finite verbal forms as those which have the potentials for "tense distinctions - i.e. present and past tense to express grammatical time relations". Finite verbs do not show tense only. They indicate mood, aspect and voice. Examples are:

John is reading now - progressive aspect.

John has finished reading - perfect progressive

Finite verbs can occur as the verb phrase in a free clause as in "John killed the snake". They indicate person, number concord with their subjects as in the following conjugated forms, viz I am, you are, he is, we are, they are. Concord is also manifest albeit in a restricted sense to mark the contrast between 3rd and non-3rd person singular present. Example:

Ada enjoys reading comics.

They enjoy reading comics.

The underlined verbs are all finites.

Finite verb phrases have moods which indicate the speaker's attitude to the predication. There is the indicative mood, which in English, is unmarked. Some scholars refer to it as the declarative mood. In contrast, there are marked moods like the imperative which expresses command and the subjunctive mood which expresses wishes, recommendations, etc. The imperative mood consists

of the base form of the verb e.g. 'go', 'come' etc. The present subjunctive also consists of a base form as in:

The committee suggests that he come in a traditional attire.

These apart, the English language has the interrogative mood as in:

Does John speak French?

Has John come?

The first verbs here though auxiliarirs, are finite. This explains the fact that finiteness extends to the auxiliaries as well. As a matter of fact, they are instrumental in the realisation of the mood of the sentences.

As for voice, finite verbs have the potentials for realising active and passive constructions as in the following:

John killed the snake.

The snake was killed by John.

The lexical verb 'killed' is finite in the active sentence while in its passive equivalent, the auxiliary 'was' is a finite verb.

Finite verbs are categorised into simple and complex forms. The former consists of only one verb which may either be an imperative, an -s form or an -ed form. Examples are:

Work harder - imperative.

John works hard - third person singular verb.

The latter has two or more verbs as in:

John has worked hard -ed form.

John may have been working hard.

The complex finite verbal forms are further categorised into:

(a) Modal/Periphrastic complex finites which comprise a modal auxiliary 'can' or a periphrastic auxiliary 'do' plus a base verb as the head e.g

Ada must go with John. He doesn't like beans.

She can join us in the struggle.

(b) Perfect complex finites consist of the auxiliary 'have' plus the -ed form of the past participle of the verb phrase as the head. Example:

The Police have examined his papers.

(c) The Progressive complex finites consist of the auxiliary 'be' plus the -ing form of the present participle of a verb which also serves as the head of the verb phrase. Example:

The Police are examining his papers.

(d) The passive. It consists of the auxiliary 'be' plus the -ed pastparticiple of the verb which serves as the head. Example:

His papers have been examined by the police.

Non-finite Verbs

Unlike the finite verb phrases, non-finite verb phrases have no tense distinctions nor mood but are quite capable of indicating aspect and voice. Consequently, we shall not attest:

****He to do it - 'to do' being non-finite.***

In contrast, we shall attest: "He did it" since the verb 'did' is a finite verb. Non-finite verb phrases therefore operate in sub-ordinate or bound clauses as in:

It was easy for John	***to join the Police***
Free-clause (finite)	***bound clause (non-finite)***

As a rule, all English modal auxiliaries are finite verbs and hence the reason for their inability to collocate with non-finites. Be that as it may, auxiliaries of the prefective type [HAVE + ed participles, progressive type [BE + ing participle] and passive [BE + ed participle] have no such limitations.

Although the Tiv do not conceptualise tense as "the grammatical modification expressing, by inflectional or other changes the time [relative to the time of utterance] of an action or of the existence of a state or condition" (Pei and Gaynor, 1954) as cited in (Oyetunde, 1983:64), they certainly have the concept of time which has the past, present and future as the three divisions. The past time as already stated, has 'lu' as its realisational equivalent in constructions like:

Òr gẹn lù á ìgyò - One man had a pig. 'Lu' as it is used in this sentence is certainly finite because it indicates the mood of the sentence - "simple indicative mood" apart from the past time it also realises. The present time is realised using the copulative verb "ngù" as in: Ada ngù vạ̀n - Ada is coming". "ngù" which translates into 'is' in this context, is visibly finite. When realised as the verb HAVE as in: Ada ngù á ìgyò - Ada has a pig, its finiteness here too is not in doubt. As for the future time, there are two auxiliaries - 'shall' and 'will' which, as was noted in the second chapter, combine morpho-syntactically as auxiliaries and subject pronouns.

Thus mé yèm - I shall go, Ú yèm - You will go etc. are finite auxiliaries - a situation which has been syntactically determined. It is quite true that the Tiv may not realise finiteness in exactly the same way the English do but this does not by any means obscure the fact that such realisations are possible in their language.

3.3.1 *The Subjunctive*

According to Quirk et al (1984), the subjunctive "is not an important category in contemporary English and is normally replaced by other constructions". It is described in three separate statements as follows:

[1] The mandative subjunctive: It has only one form [i.e. the base verb in that-clause]. Consequently, it does not manifest the regular indicative concord between the subject and the verb phrase in the third person singular present. Also, the present and past tenses are indistinguishable with subjunctives. Examples are:

[a] The principal requests that the individual teaching staff take their work with more seriousness

[b] It is necessary that every student inform himself of these new rules and regulations

[c] We request that the individual citizen watch closely the riotous state of the polity.

[d] It was agreed that Brown be dropped from the National team.

By and large, the subjunctive is said to be productive because of its ability to collocate easily "with any verb in the sub-ordinate 'that-clause' when the main clause contains an expression of recommendation, resolution, demand, surprise etc." (Ibid: 77). Its usage is common in formal style though the "to-infinitive" or "should" are preferred in less formal discourse. Example:

(a) We request individual citizens to closely watch the riotous state of the polity.

(b) It is necessary that every student should inform himself of these new rules and regulations.

(2) The formulaic subjunctive: This also consists of the base verb but it is used only in clauses that have to be interpreted as wholes. Examples are:

(a) God save the Queen.

(b) Heaven forbid that etc.

(3) The were-subjunctive: It is employed in clauses of condition or concession as well as in "sub-ordinate clauses after the optative verbs like wish" (Ibid). Examples are:

(a) If I were old enough, I would join the military service.

(b) Ada spoke to me as if I were deaf.

(c) How I wish I was rich enough to buy the boarded vehicle.

The Tiv subjunctive has been exhaustively treated in the second chapter of this study under the heading "the mood system": a system which was described as 'elaborate' with manifest potentials for realising all shades of meanings one finds in the English mood system. The similarity notwithstanding, there are clear-cut differences in the realisation of some aspects of the Tiv mood system. Abraham's (1940) treatment of the subjunctive in the language for example, is essentially tonemic, i.e. it is "distinguished by the fact that all the subject pronouns have low tones". Illustrations in respect of this state of affair have already been made on page 35 of the study. The realisation of the imperative mood is also tonemic e.g. Sọmbò - snapped (past tense). Sọmbò - snap

(imperative). The negative hortative when used without a subject pronoun realises the negative imperative although the situation does not obliterate the distinction between hortatives and imperatives in the language. There are also, verbs which express wishes but unlike the "were-subjunctives" of the English mood system, they are realised as desideratives in Tiv verbal system. As already noted above, details of this analysis have been explicated in the second chapter. The treatment highlights all the areas in which the realisation of the subjunctive in Tiv verbal system differs markedly from the way it is realised in English.

3.4. Time, Tense and Aspect

"The concept of time is a universal one" (Quirk et al, 1984). It has three divisions - past time, present time and future time. These units of time are "extra-linguistic", that is to say, they exist independently of the grammar of any particular language. The English language however "makes reference to these extra-linguistic realities by means of language specific category of time". By this, it is meant, the category of time though common to all natural languages "has nothing to do with language as such; but time may be linguistically expressed and one way of doing this (at least for English language) is by the use of tense which is restricted to a particular kind of linguistic expression" (Sandved and Christophersen, 1972: 43). Linguistic tense in English is thus seen as a correlation between verb morphology and the notion of time: a notion which may have "physical reality as the contrast between 'he goes' and 'he went' or it may be psychological or putative as is suggested in the contrast 'I can' and 'I could". Adetugbo (1976) quoted in (Oyetunde, 1983: 65). Against this background, it would be improper to conceptualise tense as relating "the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually the moment of speaking" as Bernard Comrie (1976) has done. He identifies three different tenses, viz.: present, past and future. The former, he defines as "a situation described in the present tense" and may be "located temporally as simultaneous with the moment of speaking", the past tense - one described in the past as

being located prior to the moment of speaking and the future tense which he defines as that which is located subsequent to the moment of speaking. The approach appears to be seriously lacking in linguistic logic because tense is a grammatical category which is realised through appropriate verb inflections and since there are two such inflections in English - $[D_1]$ and $[Z_3]$, it follows inevitably that there are two tenses in the language and not three. (Christophersen and Sandved, 1972).

3.4.1 *The Present Tense*

In English language, the present tense is understood to mean any period of time that includes the present. It is sub-categorised into simple present without reference to specific time, instantaneous simple present, simple present with future time reference and the simple present with past time reference.

1. The simple present without reference to specific time indicates timelessness, that is to say, there is no limitation on the time span which stretches from the past through the present to the future. This seriously unrestrictive use of the present tense is limited to stative verbs. It also includes eternal truths which do not refer specifically to the present but are considered "all time true" statements. Examples are:

   (a) Oil floats on water.

   (b) The Niger flows into the Atlantic.

   (c) The sun rises in the East.

The timeless simple present is also known as the gnomic tense. It is also used in the expression of mathematical and scientific statements which are all-time true as in:

   (a) Two and two make four.

   (b) Nature allows no vacuum.

Also in the language, there is the habituative use of the simple present which "allows for dynamic activity verbs whose meanings are interpreted as habitual representation of individual events stretching from past through the present and into future". (Oyetunde, 1983: 66). Examples:

(a) Ada cycles to work everyday

(b) *She is always reading at meal times.*

2. The instantaneous simple present: It is used mostly with dynamic verbs to specify events that are simultaneous with the present moment i.e. events such as radio and television commentaries, stage directions, demonstrations, performative declarations and exclamations. Examples are:

(a) Commentaries - John takes the ball from Tunde, he passes it to Bill, Bill dribbles, he beats a defender, he beats another. It's a goal.....

(b) Exclamation - Here comes the president elect.

(c) *Performative declaration: I name this ship Santa Maria. I pronounce you man and wife. I declare the meeting closed.* Here the acts are simultaneous with the declaration i.e. the declaration is itself part of the act.

(d) Stage directions - Ada enters, The bell tolls.

(e) Demonstrations - I now take three eggs and beat them in the basin and add sugar ....

I place the rabbit in the box and close the rid. (conjuror).

3. Simple present with future time reference as in:

(a) The play starts at nine o'clock tonight.

(b) He will dance if you give him some food.

(c) I will let you know as soon as I hear from him.

Used in this sense therefore, the simple present "sees the future event as a fact in the present and regards the future with the same degree of certainty as if the activity were in the present" (Ibid: 68). It is then clear from the foregoing that the simple present tense in English has diversified semantic realisations. It is used to express eternal truths, habituatives, to report instantaneous happenings, to report on scientific experiments, stage directions and to make performative declarations.

In the Tiv verbal system however, the simple present has to do more with "the continuous" than with the most familiar distinctions treated above. This notwithstanding, the Tiv can always find ways round such diversified realisations as follows:

(a) ***mkúrém má kough shá dzár mngér - oil floats on water.***

(b) ***ìyángé Ì dúgh kén ibyúsú tạr Ì mèsì - the sun rises in the east.***

(c) ***wágh ngú béén yàndé là gá - there is always the other side of the river bank (i.e. regardless of whether or not it is in floods)***

These sentences express timelessness. The Tiv also express habitual activity as in the following:

(a) ***Màmá tém héén gbèm - Mummy always sits here.***

(b) ***Òr né vé héén gbèm - this man always comes here.***

Here, the simple present tense verbal forms are followed by the post verbal particle 'gbèm' to indicate habituality. As for stage directions, demonstrations, radio and television commentaries etc where the instantaneous usage is manifest, a translational equivalent is improvised. For example:

John tôô bọl vé, á gbidè á nà Terdoo vé, Terdoo gèmà nạ Amir vé, Amir mán gbidè vé - á yá ikyó ooh.

Such improvisation is context-bound and hence its seemingly unnatural character at least to the uneducated Tiv speaker. The prefixation of the subject pronoun 'á' (he) in each case indicates that the activity being reported on is contemporaneous with the act itself. Similar improvisations abound for stage directions. They do not indicate the simple present but can adequately serve this semantic purpose. Examples are:

(a) ***John duè vé - John emerges***

(b) ***Iméégh gbidè vé - the bell tolls***

The particle "vé" after the verbs "duè" and 'gbidè" suggests 'completiveness' and not just the simple indefinite present which the English equivalent indicates.

There is a similar improvisation for performative declarations like administration of the sacrament of baptism where the priest says:

Mḿ ère ú baptisima kén ítí Íteṛ mạn wán mạn cìghạn jíj ́ingí, Amen, I baptise you in the name of the father and of the son and of the holy spirit, Amen - where the act itself is simultaneous with the event.

3.4.2 ***<u>The Simple Past</u>***

It "denotes definite past time" i.e. what took place at a given time or in a given period before the present moment. It occurs in a variety of contexts some of which do not necessarily refer to past time. Its basic uses however, are:

1. The definite past time which is indicated either by a past time adverbial, or by information given in the context or by information known from past experience. Examples are:

   (a) I spoke to Ada yesterday.

   (b) John was killed during the Biafran war.

   (c) Ada came in when it was raining.

2. The simple past is also used in a "habituative sense". The habituative here is expressed largely by temporal adverbials as in:

   (a) He always said his morning prayers before stepping out of his room.

   (b) She enjoyed late evening meals.

3. The hypothetical past: Here, the past tense is used to express hypothetical meanings such as expressed in conditional sentences or by the optative verb 'wish'. Example:

   (a) If you loved me you wouldn't say that.

   (b) I wish I knew where he was staying the night.

   (c) How I wish the bandits were killed.

4. Attitudinal past: It is related to the attitude of the speaker rather than to time: such attitudes that are reflective either of deference or politeness from a speaker to the person addressed. Examples:

(a) Did you want to see me?

(b) Could you lend me some money.

(c) *I wonder if I might assist you.*

5. Indirect Past: This is often referred to as the reported speech. Here, the reporting verb tends to make the verb of the sub-ordinate clause past too. Example:

(a) You said you were here yesterday.

(b) He said he would come today.

The above situation does not hold same for the Tiv language which has only one past tense inflectional form 'lu'. It also stands for the past perfect. Examples are:

(a) Ada nyén lù vaàn - Ada was crying yesterday.

(b) Dam lù á ìgyò - Dam had a pig (perfective).

Thus to the Tiv, both the simple past and the past perfect tenses are neutralised by the morpheme [lu]. Also subsumed into this realisational morpheme is the expression 'not yet' which is used anticipatively as in:

íkyáreń lù à dúwè gá - examination results had not yet been released.

Here, the anticipative sense is brought into focus.

3.4.3 *Future Tense*

According to Quirk et al (1984), "there is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time-tense parallel for the present and past". Instead, they claim, there are a number of possibilities of denoting future. For example, the future time may be rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or by simple present or progressive forms. Examples are:

(a) Shall + infinitive - I shall try to do my best

(b) Be going + infinitive - when are you going to marry? When are you going to travel abroad? The intended meaning here is future intention or future fulfilment of the present.

(c) Present progressive - It refers to future happening anticipated at present. Its basic meaning is fixed arrangement, plan or

programme, e.g. the Super Eagles are playing tomorrow. The plane is taking off at 5.30 a.m., the President is going to Addis-Ababa next week.

(d) The future time is also used regularly with sub-ordinate clauses that are conditional or temporal e.g. what will you do if I marry Anne? The guests will be drunk before they leave.

(e) Auxiliary verb construction + progressive. It is used with the progressive infinitive to denote a future as a matter of course e.g. He will be doing his best. To convey tact and consideration, we have examples like:

When will you be putting up another show?

When will you be coming?

These diversified uses of the future time do not exist in the Tiv verbal system. What one finds in the language is "potentiality" or 'futurity' whose translational equivalents into English may not yield absolutely precise results. The Tiv for example, have ways of expressing predetermined acts in their language though such realisation is not as neatly defined as it is in English. The situation, however, does not weaken the fact regarding their ability to express such phenomena in their language. Undoubtedly, these realisational differences have far-reaching consequences on pedagogics, that is to say, the highly complex nay diversified ways of realising the future in English contrasted with the simple realisational ability of the Tiv, may constitute a source of difficulty to a Tiv child learning English as a second language.

3.4.4 *Aspect:*

Norman Stageberg (1981) defines aspect as "the expression of meanings concerned with the continuity or distribution of events in time". Comrie (1976) on the other hand discusses aspect in relation to tense. He defines aspect as "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation".

Perhaps the best view about the realisation of aspectual meanings in English verbal system is that expressed by Quirk et al. To them, aspect refers to

"the manner in which the verb action is regarded or experienced". What this seems to suggest is that "aspectual meanings indicate whether or not a verb activity is continuative or completive, performed once or repeatedly or whether the verbal activity is a process etc." (Oyetunde, 1983: 43).

There are two principal aspectual contrasts-perfective/non-perfective and progressive/non-progressive. With reference to their use in English language, the following sub-categorisation after Quirk et al (1984) is hereunder discussed:

A. Dynamic Verbs

They are verbs involving activity. They are sub-categorised into:

(a) Activity verbs: e.g. abandon, ask, eat, drink etc.

(b) process verbs: change, deteriorate, grow, mature etc.

(c) Verbs of bodily sensation: ache, feel, hurt etc.

(d) Transitional verbs: arrive, die, fall, land etc.

(e) momentary verbs: hit, jump, kick, knock etc.

B. *Stative Verbs*

They are verbs of inert perception and cognition. They include, ***know, love, see, smell, abhor, adore, believe, hear, imagine, hate, recognize, wish etc.***

Frank Palmer (1965) in his treatment of same has identified two sub-types, viz, private verbs and verbs of states. The private verbs, he says, indicate states which the speaker alone is aware of. They are sub-divided into verbs that refer to mental activities and those that refer to sensations. Verbs of mental activities are, think, imagine, hope, forget etc. Those which refer to sensation are, smell, taste, hear, feel etc. With these verbs, the speaker reports on his mental activities just in the same way a radio commentator does. The situation is therefore considered unique because "with most verbs, we seldom need simply to report in the present" (Palmer, 1965: 96). Private verbs as the name suggests, therefore refer to activities that are only available for perception by the speaker. He alone can report on them. Consequently, he employs the appropriate form in the realisation of this reportorial feat.

Although private verbs do not yield to 'progressivisation', some of them like 'ache', 'itch' and 'think' are clear exceptions. Palmer (1965) treats them as optional cases because they have the latitude of occurrence in both ways with very little or no semantc differences. Examples are:

(a) My foot itches / is itching.

(b) My arm aches / is aching.

(c) I think about my family everyday.

(d) I am thinking about my family daily.

(e) I will see my doctor next week.

(f) I am seeing my doctor next week.

2. *Verbs of States*

They are verbs which refer not to an activity but to a state or condition. They are also known as relational verbs. Examples are:

(a) Ada owns a big house in town.

(b) It pleases me to write to you.

(c) It all depends on what you mean.

(d) It contains sugar.

A sub-group of these verbs indicate quality of creating sensation, that is to say, they are intranstive forms of the verbs of sensation. Examples are: ***It smells nice, It tastes delicious, It feels soft.***

By and large, stative verbs seldom take the progressive aspect but in some situations they may be progressivised as follows:

(a) I am forgetting names nowadays.

(b) *I am seeing strange things these days.*

They may also be progressivised to underscore durativeness as in:

(a) Ada is perceiving the smell.

(b) She is hoping all the time that her estranged husband may one day return to her.

Use of stative verbs with progressive forms may indicate increasing or decreasing activity as in:

(a) Kevin is looking more and more like his father.

(b) It's mattering less and less now.

(c) It's tasting nasty and nastier.

As the above suggests, the use of progressive forms refers to an on-going activity. The progressive aspect may therefore be defined as an aspectual meaning which refers to some progressive activity either in the present, past or future. Examples are:

(a) John is playing the guitar.

(b) I was doing some clean-up yesterday.

(c) I shall be travelling to Jos tomorrow.

Sometimes, the progressive aspect underscores the fact of an activity continuing within a period of time which began in the past and continued up to the present as in:

(a) Someone has been moving my books.

(b) Who has been eating my dinner.

"In sentence (a) the present disorderly state of the books is linked to the past activity. In (b) we have a question which is necessitated by the fact that some of the dinner has been consumed" (Palmer, 1965: 75).

The progressive aspect has other concomitant meanings or overtones which include simultaneity, vividness of description, emotional colouring and emphasis. Examples are:

(a) John is plying the guitar (temporariness).

(b) Jide is cleaning up the mess himself (limited duration).

(c) Ada is always repeating the same mistake (a characteristic activity. Its semantics imparts subjective, emotionally coloured tone).

(d) I was doing my washing that morning (incompletion because there is no indication that the washing was conclusively done).

The progressive aspect also impinges upon the semantics of some verb types with which it collocates. With verbs of momentary acts like hit, jump,

skip etc, the progressive usually gives the impression of a series of repeated events rather than a momentary happening. Example:

(a) Ada jumped up and down for several minutes.

(b) *Bello hit Umar in the face for several hours.*

This contrasts with "Ada jumped" (one momentary act) and "Bello hit Umar" (which is also one momentary act).

The progressive may indicate movement towards the transition rather than to the end point of the transition. This is manifest with verbs of transition such as fall, leave, stop etc. e.g "the plane was landing when we arrived". (i.e. beginning of the transition - it was beginning to land when we arrived).

It may also be used to refer to future events whose arrangements are already fixed. It is also possible in this sense to use the past to refer to the future. The following examples may be instructive:

(a) I was seeing him tomorrow - (but now I can't)

(b) I was reading a paper tomorrow.

(c) *The Japanese prime Minister was visiting Nigeria next June.*

The implication in all these cases is that the plans have not materialised.

2. The perfective aspect: It is "used to indicate a period of time that began before but continued right up to the point of time either present or past according to the tense" (Palmer, 1965: 72). e.g. *(a)* "I have been reading for an hour when she came in. (b) I had been reading for an hour when she came in". In sentence (a) the activity began an hour before and continued right up to the present time. In sentence (b) it began an hour before in the past and continued up to the past point indicated by the temporal adverbial (when I came).

The present perfect also indicates past with current relevance as in:

(a) Adamu has lived in Jos for ten years.

(b) Shade and I have lived in this house since June.

(c) The store house has been let since two years.

(b) The indefinite past: Here the meaning of the present perfect is exhibited in its use with activity verbs e.g. I have been to Lagos, (b) Have you written to

John? The indefiniteness relates to unspecified number of the activity to which the verb relates and the non-specification of a particular point in time. When the adverbials like 'since last December' 'since he called' etc. are added to the sentences above, the idea of definiteness is brought into focus.

(c) Resultative Past: Here the perfect is used where the activity has result in the present. This may include nill results. Example:

(a) I have cut my finger (it's bleeding).

(b) I have painted the house (it's looking new).

(c) I have hit it twice but it is still standing up.

(d) I have written but they have not replied.

(d) The habitual: Here the perfective expresses a habitual or iterative activity using transitional event verbs with time focus of a period extending to the present. Example:

(a) John has visited Anne for ten years, (i.e. He has done so for the past ten years).

(b) The car has been serviced every three months (i.e. up till now, it is the practice of the owner to service his car every three months (Oyetunde, 1983: 83).

(c) He has been a generous man - he still is.

(d) His sister has been an invalid all her life.

In all these sentences, the event spoken of still obtains in the present time. This contrasts sharply with the simple past which indicates only events that took place before the present. e.g. 'He was a generous man' which means he no longer is.

The English language also has the past perfect (the plu perfect) which combines both the past tense and perfective aspect i.e. its time focus is further in the past from a past point of view. e.g. "I had been to Lagos," "The mail had arrived" etc. Infact, the past perfect is the past analogue of the present perfect expressing the same message albeit with a shift in time focus from time before now.

As the foregoing suggests, there exists an intimate relationship between tense and aspect in English. The situation seems to hold same way for the Tiv language because the progressive aspect and the 'continuous' are inseparable. In a sentence like "Ada ngù yemèn - Ada is going", the tense is present continuous while the aspect is progressive. It therefore indicates temporariness. There is also, the future progressive as in the sentence, "Ada uná lù yemèn kpér" "Ada will be leaving tomorrow" while "Ada nyén lù vàn" - "Ada was coming yesterday" expresses past progressive. The future progressive indicating an anticipative or fixed beginning is also realisable in the language. A ready - at hand example is the sentence: á lù bughun mákérántá kpér - the school will be re-opening tomorrow, Ada uná lù yemèn kpér - Ada will be leaving tomorrow etc.

The habitual use of aspect is also realised in the language as in:

(a) John vé héén gbèm - John always comes here.

(b) Ada tsé héén - Ada always sleeps here.

The perfective aspect is also realised in the language as in:

(a) Dam lù á ìgyò - Dam had a pig.

(b) Wúrá nyén ú nọo - It had rained yesterday.

The same surface structure could be realised for a simple past meaning which may be translated as "it rained yesterday". This therefore confirms our earlier claim that the simple past and the past perfect are neutralised by way of semantic realisation - i.e. they are indistinguishable when used out of context.

It is, as could be seen above, therefore apparent that similarities exist in the realisation of some aspectual nuances between English and Tiv. The verb forms in each case determine the intended meanings without recourse to context of situation or past experience. Distinction between unrestrictive use indicating the various shades of meanings of the simple present with their aspectual concomitants which exist in English also holds good for Tiv as well. To a large extent therefore, it may be concluded that the morphological processes that the

English verbs undergo in the realisation of tense and aspect exist albeit in slightly different patterns in the verbal system of the Tiv language.

Chapter 4

THE VERB AND ITS SEMANTIC STRUCTURE, COMPLEMENTATION AND VOICE

4.1 *Verb and Its Semantic Structure*

In this section of the study, an analytic look at the semantics of the verb in the propositional structure of English and Tiv sentences would be taken. By propositional structure, it is meant the type of 'state' or action a sentence describes. The two are sometimes referred to as "the process of the sentence" (Brown and Miller, 1992: 292). Sentential process is largely associated with the verb which has an intimate relationship with its noun counterpart.

In this analysis, it would be assumed as a standpoint that "every sentence which is of interest to us is built around a predicative element which is usually, though not always accompanied by one or more nominal elements". The approach is in consonance with the view which sees "the total human conceptual universe" as being contrasted into these two elements - the predicative and nominal elements of the sentence. The predicative element also known as the verb embraces states, actions or processes while the noun embraces things (both physical objects and reified abstractions). Of these two sentential elements, the verb occupies a central position and the noun peripheral. The verb is assumed to be central because it is semantically present "in all but a few marginal utterances" (Chafe, 1975: 96). It is therefore the link between the predicative and nominal elements coupled with the aspectual and modal destinctions in sentences that account for the presence of their deep structures.

In some utterances/sentences, the verb exists alone and yet its semantics is fully established. Utterances like commands as in 'come', 'go', 'eat' etc. uttered in appropriate contexts combine as full meaningful sentences as well as words. Those which have no predicative elements are hardly meaningful. The only exceptions are exclamations such as 'ah', 'oh', etc. which, in spite of their

seeming semantic significance, may not be regarded as sentences because they are at best "relics of prehuman kind of communication" (Ibid: 96).

By assuming centrality for the verb therefore, the present work is asserting that the nature of the predicative element determines the nature of the accompanying nominal elements, their relation to it and how these nouns will be semantically specified. For example, in the sentence "John laughed", the verb 'laugh' specifies that the accompanying noun must be animate; human and must be related to it as an 'agent'. This explains why a sentence like "the goat laughed" though quite adequate on the syntactic or surface structure, lacks semantic or deep structure because the semantics of the verb 'laugh' does not permit the presence of the accompanying noun 'goat' in such constructions. Examples like this show that "the semantic influence of the verb is dominant, extending itself over the subservient accompanying nouns" (op cit: 97).

Also, cases of verb inflections as in the sentence "the man laughed", have semantic bearing not only on the verb but also on the entire sentence. Thus the semantic unit 'past' which has been semantically added to the verb "is added simultaneously to the entire sentence which is built round the same verb" (op cit). This is true as far as the semantic structure of English language is concerned.

In this section of the study therefore, efforts would be made to establish whether or not the same situation obtains in the semantic structure of the Tiv verb.

4.1.1 *States, Processes and Actions*

As stated in the above preamble, "the total conceptual universe" is structured into two areas one of which is the verb. The verb embraces states, processes and actions as could be seen in the following illustrative sentences:

(a) The knife is sharp - ihó nè ésè (state).

(b) John sharpened the knife - John wùà ihó ésè (action).

(c) The dish broke - gbándé nè hémbè (process).

(d) John killed the snake - John wúà ìyó (action process).

As the sentences have indicated, the verbs have been specified semantically as states, actions and processes. The situation holds same for the Tiv verb as it does for the English verb. Secondly, action propositions are typically associated with instrument and benefactive roles. For example:

(a) John is sharpening the knife with a whetstone.

(b) John ngù wụàn ìhó shá íwèn.

(c) John is sharpening the knife for his mother.

(d) John ngù wụàn ìhó ún á nạ ngó nà.

Here, the noun whetstone functions as the instrument while the preposition 'for' realises the benefactive role. John's mother is therefore the 'participant' noun who has benefited from the action of sharpening the knife.

One important feature of a verb which expresses an action or activity is its ability to passivise. It also answers the question "what did John do? In this respect, John is conceptualised as the 'agent' of the verb 'kill'.

Stative verbs which, unlike the action verbs do not take the progressive aspect, are accompanied all the time by 'patient' nouns. The patient noun functions syntactically as the subject of a sentence. It therefore specifies what it is that is in a state at the deep structure level.

Process verbs on the other hand are distinguished from stative verbs by the fact that they answer the question "what happened?" In other words, they are verbs which specify events or happenings. Process verbs therefore deal with processes where an accompanying noun is said to have changed its state or condition. For example, "the dish broke" means it is no longer in the state it was prior to the time it broke.

In sentence (d) above, both action and process are specified by the verb "killed". As a process it brings about a change in the state of the snake which may in turn be specified as "patient". As an action, it expresses what John (the agent) did. The specification as mirrored through the illustrative sentences (rendered both in English and Tiv) has universal significance.

Apart from the specifications identified above, there are all encompassing stative verbs known as ambient verbs whose specifications cover the total environment and not just some objects within it. Examples of their occurrence in syntactic structures are:

(a) It is hot - tsée yòl.

(b) It is late - shìghèn kàr.

(c) It is Tuesday - ká tóm áhàr nyìan.

The subject pronoun 'it' in all the sentences is only but a surface structure element; it need not reflect anything in the semantic deep structure. The copulative verb BE on the other hand specifies states, that is to say, encompassing states in the three sentences.

There is however, another set of sentences whose verbs are specified as ambient as in:

It is raining - wúrá ngú nọòn.

It is drizzling - wúrá ngú hạmbèr.

The sentences derive their semantics only in the predication because "the surface structure element 'it' reflects nothing in the semantic structure" (op cit: 101). They however differ from the first three because of their inability to express states and more importantly, they answer the question "what is happening?" In this sense, they can therefore be specified as "actions" and not "processes".

Although the sentences express actions, they do so without agent. Consequently, they are specified as having ambient verbs because they involve all- emcompassing events. Put differently, they do not have "references to some particular thing within the environment" (op cit: 102).

4.1.2 ***Patient and Agent*** range, result and neutral.

According to Brown and Miller (1992) these constitute distinctions that can be drawn between the various types of action propositions. Chafe (1975) on the other hand treats them as accompanying nouns whose choice of occurrence in sentences is determined by the verb type. A verb which is specified as a state

or process requires the accompaniment of patient noun only and only if the same verb is not specified as ambient at the same time. What this means is that the verb and its patient cohere in a special way. This is confirmed by the ability of action verbs to "pronominalise" under certain circumstances - a situation which is reflected on the surface structure in the form of "do it". Example:

(a) Dupe sang.

(b) She did it beautifully.

Under these circumstances, the verb and the patient noun behave as a single unit - a situation which is not obtainable with verb plus agent configuration. If on the other hand "the action verb is at the same time a process and thus has a patient noun, pronominalisation (for which Chafe employs the term proverbalisation) "affects the entire configuration of the verb plus patient not simply the verb alone" Examples are:

(a) Dupe broke her mother's pot.

(b) She broke it accidentally.

(c) John killed the snake.

(d) He killed it bravely.

(e) Peter played the game.

(f) ***He played it skillfully.***

It could therefore be inferred from the above that " the circumstantial roles" also referred to as 'adverbs' can have as their domain of modification only the total verb plus the patient configuration and never the verb alone, independently of the patient. Thus in the sentence, 'Dupe broke her mother's pot accidentally', the adverb 'accidentally' modifies the clause 'broke the pot' as a unit and not just the verb 'broke' alone: a fact which explains why the sentence:

"Dupe broke accidentally" is not attestable.

Apparently, the sentence is deviant - an observation which confirms the special cohesion which exists between the verb and the patient noun as already noted above.

The Tiv verb appears to have been cast in this same mould. The translational equivalent of sentences (a) and (b) above runs thus:

(a) Dupe hémbè tyégh kì ngó nà.

(b) Á hémbèkí mkàr.

She broke it accidentally.

The verb 'broke' and the patient 'pot' which has been pronominalised as 'ki' (it) have the characteristic cohesiveness of its English counterpart. They function together as a single unit in the illustrative sentence. Like its English counterpart also, the adverb 'mkàr' has as its domain of modification the total verb plus the patient and not just the verb alone. The situation therefore explains why the study shall not attest:

****Dupe hémbè mkàr.***

The similarity as already noted elsewhere, lends credence to the fact that natural languages are, to some extent, universal by way of application, the apparent differences notwithstanding.

4.1.3 *Result*

It is a characteristic feature of the English verb to express propositions that involve neither patient nor agent. In the sentence, "John built the house", for example, the object of the verb 'built' is the 'result'. So also it is with verbs like burn, dig etc. Wallace Chafe (1975) describes such propositions as 'resultatives'. Like inchoative derivational units 'resultatives' convert verb roots which are inherently processes into ones which are derivatively states. 'Inchoatives' and 'resultatives' are opposite polarities because the former has the potential for converting verb roots which are intrinsically states into ones which are derivatively processes. A detailed treatment of inchoative derivations is for now being deferred.

Resultatives are regular features one finds in the verbal system of the Tiv language. This can be illustrated as: "Ká John yángé maa yough lá yé" - "It was John who built that house". Like the English verb, the semantics of the verb maa (built) underscores the fact that the object noun 'house' (yough) is not a

patient noun but the 'result'. There is the conversion of a verb root build into 'built' which is derivationally stative. This again shows how the two languages - English and Tiv have similarities in their semantico-syntactic realisations.

Other instances where these similarities are manifest are:

(a) Ada kpèrà fòtó - Ada drew a picture.

(b) Ada pénti yough na - Ada painted her house.

The first sentence has a 'resultative' complement while the second, in contrast, has the object 'house' as the patient of the verb paint. In yet another set of examples, we have:

(a) "John burned a hole in the carpet" (result).

(b) "John burned the garden rubbish" (patient).

The Tiv translational equivalents, like the ones afore-discussed, have the same analytical properties as their English counterpart.

4.1.4 ***Range***

It goes with a process verb. For example, the process of running has a range as in: "Ada ran a mile". Other process verbs include, singing, playing etc. all of which have ranges. Playing for example ranges over a game while singing ranges over a song. In all situations, the agent is not doing anything either to the game or the song; they are not affected by the action.

Range "participants" apart from their ability to collocate with process verbs co-occur with state verbs as well. Examples are:

(a) The painting costs N5,000.

(b) The statue weighs 80 kilogrammes.

(c) The jump measured five metres.

The same applies to the Tiv verb and hence the similarities which exist between the two languages.

4.1.5 ***Neutral Participant***

In all the illustrative sentences above, it was demonstrated how range participants have potentials for collocating with verbs of state. Thus in the sentences:

(a) The painting costs N5,000.

(b) The statue weighs 80 kilogrammes,

the verbs 'costs' and 'weighs' are specified as states. The participant nouns - 'painting' and 'statue' are however neutral participants because it is difficult to categorise them either as 'patient' or 'agent'. The same situation obtains in the Tiv verbal system.

There are, also, dative participants co-occuring in syntactic structures with neutral participants as in the following:

(a) John has a house in Jos.

(b) Ada knew all the answers.

(c) George believed the prophet.

The sentences relate to states and processes at the same time. They do not describe actions but they do not describe straight forward states or processes either. Sentences (a) and (b) can be paraphrased as:

(a) The house in Jos belonged to John.

(b) All the answers were known to Ada.

Ada and John are therefore dative participants in the sentences while the second participants 'house' and 'answers' are neutral i.e. neither patient nor agent. Syntactically, a dative participant functions as the indirect object while the direct object is characterised as the "accusative" case.

4.1.6 Lexical Units

The preceding discourse has noted how a verb may be specified in terms of semantic units like states, processes, actions and ambience. Henceforth, the study shall refer to these units as selectional units and as the name suggests, their primary role in the semantic structure of the English language in located in "the selection of accompanying nouns and of the relations which such nouns bear to the verb" (Chafe, 1975: 105). "The selectional units are intermediate in inclusiveness because they cover narrower areas of conceptual space" (Ibid: 105). The nouns and the verbs on the other hand are famed for all-inclusiveness. They (i.e. the verbs and the nouns) are highest in the hierarchy of

semantic units. As one moves from the highest point down the hierarchy i.e. from the verb to actions, one arrives at some points where the units include no others. Such units are characterised as being "maximally specific". It is for units such as this the term 'lexical' applies.

Consequently, verbs like 'sing', 'laugh', 'dance' etc. are lexical units within the more general area of conceptual space which this work has labelled as 'action'.

Lexical units differ from semantic units because they have an extremely large numerical strength. They also carry the greatest burden of information in the sense that they determine the entire semantics of a sentence. This apart, they have an open-ended inventory which incorporates new lexical items into the lexical stock of the language but at the same time dispense with old ones in the course of time. Above all, the lexical units are idiosyncratic to individual speakers although they (i.e. the speakers) certainly share a core-stock of lexical material that is common to their speech community.

Since lexical units occur with verbs and nouns, they are referred to as verb and noun roots respectively. A significant distinction which is often made within noun roots is that of count and non-count. The former is specified as having a meaning involving a class of separate individuals while the later may be specified as having a meaning which involves undifferentiated mass such as wood and water.

Elsewhere in this study, the eligibility of some nouns to occur as agents of action verbs was also noted: an eligibility which is premised on their semantic specification as things which have the capacity for free-willed actions. In this regard, a noun may be specified optionally as 'potent' which means it has or is conceived to have its internal power. Concomitant with this specification of potency is the concept of animateness. This, however, does not negate the fact that some nouns though patently inanimate, have their own internal motivating force. For example:

The fire destroyed the entire estate.

The explosion awakened John.

The heat melted the butter.

Animate nouns may be further specified as human: a semantic unit whose surface structures may be pronominalised as 'he', 'she' or 'who' while inanimates have 'it' or 'which' as pronominalised equivalents.

There are, however, instances when non-human noun-roots are conceived as having certain human attributes - a linguistic phenomenon which Chafe (1975) refers to as "anthropomorphization". It is manifest in sentences like:

They found the elephant who escaped.

He was gone three days.

The foregoing should not be dismissed as digressional because the verb has a symbiotic relationship with the noun. This symbiosis was discussed in the second chapter of the study. Its relevance here consists in the ability of the verb to specify what noun it may collocate with in syntactic structures. For example, the sentence 'John frightened the dish' is unacceptable because the verb frighten specifies that the accompanying patient must be animate human. Exceptions may be entertained where figurative meanings are intended. The assigned units which limit the choice of a verb root also limit the choice of the accompanying noun-roots. For example, the selectional unit designated as 'process' requires the accompaniment of a patient noun and 'action' of an 'agent'. Put differently, "selectional units within the verb determine not only the number and relation of accompanying nouns but also to a limited extent, the selectional units within those nouns. That the verb does have such influences means that the verb, through its selectional units ultimately limits not only the choice of its own verb-roots" but also the choice of the accompanying noun-roots" (Chafe, 1975: 114). Thus in the sentence, "the explosion awakened John", the agent noun (explosion) is constrained by the verb to be 'potent'. The choice of human or non-human is however free because as a 'potent', "it has its own internal

power" (Ibid: 109). The verb in the sentence also determines that the patient noun (John) 'must be animate and therefore both count and potent" (op. cit: 109). The situation holds same for the Tiv language. It is a significant feature of language universality: a point which has been underscored elsewhere in this research effort.

4.2 *Verb Derivation and Types*

According to Brown and Miller (1992), "propositions with inchoative verbs describe an entity changing from one state to another". The situation is hereunder represented as:

(a) The door is open - state.

(b) The door opened - process.

(c) The road is wide - relative state.

(d) The road widened - relative process.

It is clear from the above that sentences (b) and (d) are derived from (a) and (c) respectively. By this it is meant the process 'open' is derived from the state 'open' while the process 'wide' is derived from the state 'wide'. Chafe (1975) refers to verbs which are realised in this way as being inchoatively derived. The inchoative element is therefore a semantic unit whose function it is to convert a lexical unit of one type into a lexical unit of another, that is to say, to "turn a verb root which is intrinsically a state into one that is derivatively process". The direction of derivation sometimes changes the other way round with states being derived from processes as in:

(a) The dish is broken.

(b) The dish broke.

The broken state in which the dish is at the moment is a direct consequence of the process of breaking which it must have undergone a while ago. Intuitively, the process "break" carries with it greater "cognitive salience" than the state 'broken'. It is therefore not surprising that the latter is derived from the former.

Chafe (1975) identifies a gamut of derivational types some of which include:

(a) Resultatives which, as earlier on noted, convert verb-roots which are intrisically processes into ones which are derivatively states. It is a direct opposite of the inchoative derivation discussed above.

(b) Absolutives and Relativizers

Absolutive derivations describe absolute or fixed concepts while relativatizers describe relative concepts. In the sentence "the door is open", a state of being open which is absolute and fixed is underscored. In the sentence"the road is wide", there is in focus a relative state; relative in the sense that "the distance between the sides of the road exceeds a certain norm" (op. cit: 119). The said norm is not fixed by the concept itself but is determined by the patient of the verb.

(c) *Causative Derivation.*

Propositions with causative inchoatives describe an entity acting on another so as to make it change state. Examples are:

a. Ada is tearing the shirt (causative inchoative).

b. John is narrowing the gap (same).

The two sentences contrast with the following:

a. The shirt is torn.

b. The gap is narrow.

Here, 'the shirt' and 'the gap' are neutral participants very unlike the situation in the first pair of sentences where they function as patient participants with Ada and John playing the roles of agentive nouns or subjects. Sentences containing verbs which are derivatively causative therefore have agent nouns which function as the cause of the process. In other words,

> ***Causative derivational units covert a verb-root which is a process (either intrinsically or as the result of prior derivation) into one that is derivatively both a process and action. Such a derived verb will then require the accompaniment not only of a patient but also of an agent. Chafe (1975: 129).***

Examples are:

(a) John rolled the ball into the corner.

(b) We floated the boat onto the beach.

(c) John is teaching Ada English.

These illustrative sentences have Tiv equivalents. For example, 'John ngu tesen Ada dzwa Batur' (John is teaching Ada English), has John as the agent, Ada as a patient and the precess verb 'teach' which has been converted derivatively into an action one. The English verbal system and its Tiv counterpart are, as the above suggests, demonstrably similar on this score.

(d) ***Deactivative Derivation***

Under limited circumstances, intrinsically action-process verb roots can be converted derivatively into ones that are simply process. Examples are:

(a) The paper tears easily - tákèrádá nè ngú ngo̱or àndeǹ gá or tákèrádá nè ká ú ngo̱or àndeǹ gá.

(b) The rock lifts easily - íwén nè yúhà gá; ngí chạn ù kéndén ámín shá gá.

(c) The cup breaks easily - kóp né ká ù ngo̱or hémbèǹ gá.

The sentences are derivations of:

(a) Ada is tearing the paper.

(b) Roger lifted the rock.

(c) Ada broke the cup.

A sentence like 'the paper is torn' can be seen as the result of applying the resultative derivation to the output of deactivative derivation.

Deactivative derivation is also possible in the verbal system of the Tiv language. As the translational equivalents have clearly indicated, the action-process verb roots in sentences like "Ada ngù andeǹ tákèrádá là" - Ada is tearing the paper, has been converted derivatively into a processive one. The sentence, "tákèrádá nè àndè" - this paper is torn can also be taken as the result of applying the resultative derivation to the output of deactivative derivation.

(e) ***Deprocessive Derivation***

It refers to a situation where a verb root which is inherently action-process is converted into one that is derivatively action. Deprocessive derivation can be applied to a verb which is intrinsically an action-process, not to a prior causative derivation. It is therefore for this reason that the sentences:

(a) Ada is cutting.

(b) ***Roger is lifting.***

(c) ***John is kicking*** etc, can be attested.

However, the sentences:

(a) *Linda is breaking.

(b) ****She is opening etc***, are not attestable.

The reason for this non-attestability is that the verb roots 'open' and 'broke' are intrinsically states. They have been converted into action-process as in the sentences:

(a) Linda broke the dish.

(b) She opened the door.

The conversion has been effected through causative derivation.

Conversion of inherently action-process verb roots into one which is derivatively action is not possible in Tiv language. Sentences like:

(a) Ada is cutting.

(b) Rodger is lifting etc. cannot convey any meaning if there is not a specified patient with which the verb collocates. On this point therefore, the English and Tiv verbal systems differ.

(f) ***Antonymy***

Most of the above stative verbs have paired opposites. Antonyms of stative verbs therefore indicate a state of not being. For example, "the door is shut" means it is not open.

Derivationally, antonyms could be treated as being derived from the basic verb root through the addition to the latter of a derivational unit which shall here be labelled as 'antonym'. Consequently, the structure of the form 'narrow' can be formalised as "wide plus antonym". This formalisation captures the fact that "narrow is more marked than wide" (op cit: 134). Antonyms are a universal feature of language. Their presence in the verbal system of the Tiv language is therefore not strange.

(g) ***Paraphrases***

They underscore "the fact that different surface structures may reflect meanings that are similar if not identical" (op. cit: 137). Examples are:

(a) The road widened.

(b) The road became wider.

(c) *The road got wider.*

A single semantic thread runs through these sentences in spite of the fact that they have different surface structure configurations. A close look at them however reveals that they have different underlying semantic structures. This view carries with it the obligation to explain what these differences are for the sentences, to the lay, have unquestionably similar meanings.

(a) Style: Sentence (c) would be prefered in "normal uninhibited colloquial conversation". In formal discourse i.e. writing for example, (a) and (b) would be preferred. Differences here are between literary and non-literary style. As it is used here, 'style' is "surely a semantic matter; it is part of what is communicated". Sentences (a) and (b), therefore

have the semantic unit 'literary' attached to their structures. Nuances like this are not realisable in the verbal system of the Tiv language.

(b) Differences occasioned by the use of 'become'. The verb 'widened' as it is used in sentence (a) is an inchoative unit whose frequency of occurrence in surface structures other than the one illustrated above, is narrow. The verb 'become' seems to have a broader function. The inchoative derivation for example cannot be used in sentences like:

*(a) *the road became widened.*

*(b) *the road became very widened.*

'Become' therefore differs from the inchoative in that the range of roots to which it can be applied is much broader. This is because, the inchoative can be added only to an underived state but 'become' functions as an "outer layer of derivation which can be added with relative ease to both simple and derived states". Consequently, it can, with relative freedom, be added not only to 'wide' as in "the road became wide" but also to the intensive 'very wide' as in "the road became very wide". It therefore, ***involves entry into a state of whatever kind very unlike the inchoative which converts a state into a process in which the patient is said to change from one position to another along the continuum without relation to form (Chafe, 1975: 138).***

Finally, it is a fact that "the road widened" and "the road became wide" say the same thing but sentence (b) appears to be more specific than (a) because the comparable device 'than' is not available to the former. Above all, sameness here is not in the semantic unit involved or at least not in all of them. It is simply sameness in the final conceptual situation and that's all.

In summary, verb derivation in the Tiv language does take almost the same pattern as what has been delineated in the foregoing. The difference between "the door is open" (state) - "húndá ngú vèghér" and the door opened (process) - "húndá bụgh" is essentially derivational.

Similarly, the sentences, "gbéndá gbàngèsè" - "the road is wide" and "gbéndá ngú gbángèsè" - the road is widening" show that there is derivation of a process from a state. There is, in other words, an inchoative element which is a semantic unit whose function it is to convert the lexical unit "gbàngèsè" into a processive one which in this case is "ngú gbángèsè".

Like the English verb, the direction of derivation may be reversed as follows:

(a) i gbàngèsè á gbéndá - the road has been widened.

(b) gbéndá gbàngèsè héén - the road is wide here.

The state in which the road is at the moment, is a direct consequence of the process of widening which had been accomplished a while ago or perhaps sometime in the most recent past.

Absolutive and relative derivations are also realised on the same pattern as what is obtainable for the English language. The sentence, "húndá bụgh" or húndá ngú vèghér, implies a fixed state while "gbéndá gbàngèsè" - "the road is wide" describes a relative state.

Propositions with causative inchoative verbs are also realisable in the Tiv verbal system. The situation is better captured in the following sentences:

John ngù ạndèn shétì lá - John is tearing the shirt or that shirt.

John ngù hẹmbèn gbándè lá - John is breaking that earthen dish.

John in each case is the agent while sheti and gbande are patient nouns.

It is also possible to convert intrinsically action-process verb roots derivatively into processes as in:

(a) Tákèrádá là ká ú ngọọr àndèn gá - the paper tears easily or it is the type that tears easily.

(b) Kóp lá ká ù ngọọr hẹmbèn gá - the cup is the type that breaks easily.

The sentences are realised derivatively from the following:

(a) John ngù ạndeǹ tákèrádá là - John is tearing the/that paper.

(b) John hémbè kóp lá - John broke the cup.

Deprocessive derivation on the other hand does not exist in the language but antonymous realisation which indicate a state of not being abound. For example, "húndá ngú vìngìr/à wùhè" - the door is shut" means "húndá ngú vèghér gá or húndá bụgh gá" - "the door is not open".

Paraphrases also exist in the verbal system of the language as in the following:

(a) gbéndá gbàngèsè - the road is wide.

(b) gbéndá hìngìr gbágbánán - the road became wider.

The sentences have similar meanings albeit with some slants or slight nuances. Sentence (a) expresses a state which may be fixed or absolutive at the time of utterance i.e. the road is, at this particular moment of speech, wide. In the second sentence, there is a change in the former state of the road to a new one - i.e. one which is wider than the former state. Nuances which are occasioned by style do not exist in the language but the ones which are ordinary though very significant semantically as illustrated above, are possibilities in the language.

There is also a semantic unit which will here be labelled 'comparative'. It is a derivational unit which may be added to a verb root that is intrinsically a relative state to produce verb roots like the following:

Gbéndá nè hèmbà gbàngèsè héén - the road is wider here (than it was back here).

Gbéndá nè hèmbà gbàngèsè àingén á tsuáa - the road is wider than it used to be.

Gbéndá nè hèmbà gbàngèsè á ú mbà-angàhàr - the road is wider than the side-walk.

The situation can therefore be formalised as root plus comparative and a comparative verb says Chafe (1975), "depends on the establishment of a

standard of comparision either contextually or through the addition of another clause to the semantic structure".

It the Tiv verbal system, such addition finds expression in the structure 'hemba' which translates into English as 'than' or 'more than'. It introduces the standard of comparison in an utterance.

4.2.1 Other Relations of Noun to Verb

Thus far in this chapter, the semantic structure of the English verb has been extensively analysed: an analysis which is 'mainthrust' on the notion of a central verb which is accompanied though not always by one or more nouns each of which stands in some particular semantic relation to it. The noun-verb relations which have been considered to be fundamental to the semantic structure are 'agent' and 'patient' whose roles are tied up to the basic specification of the verb into states, processes, actions or action-processes.

In this particular section of the study, emphasis would be laid on other relations such as the relations of the experiencers, beneficiaries, instruments, complements and locations. Efforts would therefore be made to see if these relations fit into the four verb specifications that have been identified above.

(a) ***Experiencer:***

An experiencer is introduced into the semantic structure of the English language by the "experiential verb" - a verb which underscores the mental disposition or mental experiences of someone it speaks about. The following illustrative sentences could be instructive:

(a) Ada wanted a drink - Ada yángé soo kwàghmán.

(b) John knew the answer - John yángé fa ámsà lá.

(c) Dupe liked the oranges - Mbààlum mbèrá doo Dupe shimá or mbààlum mbèrá yángé vé doo Dupe shimá.

In all the sentences, the mental experiences of the people the verbs speak about are described as being disposed in some way to something i.e. a drink, the answer and the oranges respectively. The experiential verbs in the sentences are

'states' and are thus accompanied by 'patients' to which the mental dispositions of the people are directed.

Experiential verbs also specify processes as in:

(a) Ada felt the needle - Anúlà lá nyọọn Ada.

(b) She learned the answer - Á kav ámsà lá.

(c) ***She heard the owl hooting - A ungwa ivyungu hinen.***

The verbs here answer the question "what happened?". Here again, Ada is not an agent, that is to say, she is not the instigator of an action. It is only her mental processes that have been affected. There is also the possibility that an experiental verb may be specified as ambient as in:

Ada is hot - tsèè Ada yòl.

Experiential verbs are also realisable in Tiv language. The above translational equivalents are illustrative case points.. The realisational pattern of such verbs in the language is of the simplified type. The same holds for the realisation of the benefactive verb where the person the verb mentions is said to have benefited from something communicated by the rest of the sentence. For example:

(a) Ada got the oranges - Ada dzùà á mbààlụm mbèrá.

(b) *Ada owns the oranges - Ada ngù á mbà-àlụm mbèrá.*

In these sentences, Ada does not reflect the semantic agent nor the experiencer. She has only benefited from the benefactive situations which the benefactive verbs have created.

There are verbs which are intrinsically benefactive action-process as in the following:

(a) John bought a poetry book for Mary - John yam Mary ruámábèrà ù puétrì.

(b) John gave Mary the tickets - John na Mary ù tìkètì mbèrá.

(c) John sent Mary the oranges - John tíndì Mary á mbà-àlụm.

(d) John sold Mary the books - John tee Mary ítyákèrádá là.

In both the English and Tiv versions of the sentences, John reflects the semantic agent since he is the instigator of the action in each case. The illustrative sentences also contain patient nouns - tickets, books and oranges: Mary in all cases is the beneficiary because she has benefited from the benefactive situations the benefactive verbs have created.

(b) ***Instrument***

An instrument is an object which plays a role of bringing about a process but which is itself not the motivating force, the cause or the instigator. Examples are:

(a) Ada cut the rope with a knife - Ada tóndò kór là shá ìhó.

(b) Ada opened the door with the key - Ada bugh húndá là shá kìì.

Instruments are neither patients, agents, experiencers nor beneficiaries. They resemble agents closely because they have something to do with bringing about the change of conditions (of the patient nouns) in sentences as could be seen in the ones illustrated above. Ada being the agent, is the motivating force or the instigator of the actions. The instruments 'knife' and 'key' are subsidiary agents i.e. that which the agent uses to do something.

Instruments in English and Tiv sentences therefore function as possible relations between a noun and a verb and such verbs are mostly specified as action-process verbs. In other words, "an action-process verb may optionally be accompanied by a noun which is related to it as an instrument: (op cit: 152).

(c) ***Complement***

The verb sometimes involves an action which causes something to come into being i.e. an action which creates something. The accompanying noun specifies what it is that is created. Example:

(a) Ada sang a song.

(b) Ada played a game.

The verbs in these sentences are 'completable'. The nouns 'song' and 'game' are complements. It should be pointed out that the term is being used here in a narrow sense and not in the familiar one. This explains why Chafe (1975) sees

it as "completing or specifying narrowly the meaning of the verb". In this sense, therefore, a "complement noun does not specify something that is in a state or that changes state" (Ibid).

However, the situation is not as watertight because there are states which are completable as in the following:

(a) The book weighs a pound.

(b) The lamp costs two hundred naira.

Both 'book' and 'lamp' are neutral participants.

Completable verb roots also dictate the presence of particular noun roots. For example, the verb 'sing' dictates the presence of the noun 'song' while 'play' dictates the presence of 'game'. The situation is similar to the one which Brown and Miller (1992) refer to as range i.e. where 'play' ranges over a game and 'sing' ranges over a song.

(d) **Location**

Verbs which are specified as locatives are state verbs which are nearly always accompanied by nouns which bear to them relation of location. Examples are hereunder represented as:

The meat is in the oven.

The cat is under the table.

There is a wall round the garden.

The knife is in the box.

Location nouns in these sentences are specified lexically as 'box', 'oven', 'table', 'garden' while locative prepositions are 'in', 'under', 'round' etc. There are also, locative process as in:

(a) Ada fell off the chair - Ada gbà shá ikón (ikôn).

(b) The ship sank into the sea - Gíígí ùr shín tyèkú/zégèmngér.

The nouns 'chair' and 'sea' are location nouns while 'fall off' and 'sink into' are locative processes.

Realisation of locative action is also possible in the semantic structure of the English verb in the following ways:

(a) Ada sat in the chair - Ada tèmà shín ikón (ikôn)

(b) Ada crawled under the table - Ada kpèrà shín jímé tébùl.

The nouns which seem to specify location in the sentences are 'chair' and 'table' while the verb roots which might be considered to be locative actions are 'sit in' and 'crawl under'.

Action-processes are also realised with locatives as in:

(a) ***Ada threw the knife into the box - Ada kèndè ìhó shín àkwàtì.***

(b) Ada placed the box next to the telephone - Ada vèr àkwàtì íkyùá á tèlèfòn.

Here, Ada is semantically specified as the agent, 'throw in' and 'place next to' as locative action-processes, 'knife' and 'box' as patient nouns. The situations as the translational equivalents have indicated, hold good for the Tiv verbal system as well.

4.2.2 ***Location and Motion*:** Locative Place, Goal, Source and Path

According to Chafe (1975), a verb which is not inherently locative (whether it is a state or non-state) may be converted optionally into a verb which is locative through the addition of a derivational unit he calls 'locativizer'. A locativizer, he further states, is not a single semantic unit like the inchoative or causative derivational units. It is a class of units one of which will perform the "semantic locativizing function". Its membership comprises those locative states usually thought of as prepositions e.g. "the key is under the rug", "the ball is under the table". The prepositions signal locative place. They have, elsewhere in this work, been referred to as "locative prepositions" and are usually accompanied by participant noun phrases known as location nouns - i.e. nouns which bear to such verbs the relation of location.

Motion verbs take locative goal, locative source and locative path "participants". Examples are:

(a) The tourists are going to Zimbabwe.

(b) A visitor has come from Swaziland.

(c) Gani flew in via Dakar.

In these examples, the proper noun Zimbabwe functions as a locative goal in sentence (a). It has been introduced into the said sentence by the preposition 'to'. In the second sentence, 'Swaziland' functions as the locative source introduced by the preposition 'from' while 'Dakar' serves as the locative path in sentence (c) and has been introduced into the sentence by the preposition 'via'.

There are, also, other participant noun phrases with roles that are closely analoguous to the locative ones but are by no means identical with them. By this it is meant they are signalled by the same prepositions but are not accorded exactly the same interpretation. Examples are:

(a) This book gave Ada the idea.

(b) Linda learnt it from Dupe's mother.

(c) Joseph received the news via Ada's mum.

The analogy is captured in the way Ada is the goal, the "book" the source and Ada's mother another source. The label locative is absent because it is abstract rather than concrete movement that is involved. Thus the three participant nouns - locative goal, locative source and locative path can be represented in a single sentence like:

The tourists flew in from London to Peking via Islamabad (Brown and Miller, 1992: 300).

Thus far in this section of the study, seven relations of the noun to the verb have been identified. They include, patient, agent, experiencer, beneficiary, instrument, complement and location. Of all these relations, 'patient' and 'agent' appear to have a fundamental character (which is lacking in the others). Every sentence of note has a patient or agent noun or both. Exceptions may be verbs of the ambient type e.g. "It is raining" where 'it' is specified not as an agent nor patient.

Apart from instrument, the other relations are determined by the presence within the verb of a certain selectional unit. For example, an experiential verb dictates an experiencer, an action verb an agent, a benefactive verb, a

beneficiary, a completable verb a complement, a locative verb a location and a process verb a patient. An instrument noun depends essentially on the presence of an action-process verb although such a verb does not require the accompaniment of an instrument.

Selectional units like 'experientials' and 'experiencers' have two different functions in the semantic structure of the verb. One of them - the 'experiential,' limits the choice of lexical units. "Thus a verb which has been specified selectionally as experiential is not only limited by an experiencer noun but is also limitd to a certain extent by verb roots such as want, know, see etc". Our position in this chapter therefore is that the verb determines the nature of the nouns that accompany it in any given sentence and not the other way round. It is therefore against this background that the verb is conceptualised as "the control centre of the sentence, determining by its own internal specification what the rest of the sentence will contain" (Chafe, 1975: 165).

4.2.3 State proposition: Description and Identification, Neutral and Attribute

The study has already treated state propositions and sentences with neutral participants, the copulative verb BE as well as adjectives in this chapter. Such propositions are the descriptive tools the researcher has employed in the analysis of the English sentence whose control nerve is the verb. We have also seen how state propositions have been analysed descriptively as having inchoative and causative inchoative participants and how state propositions have all been realised as state sentences containing the verb BE plus adjectives.

There is another realisation of state proposition which involves the verb BE + indefinite noun phrase. Such propositions can be inchoative or causative as in the following:

(a) Tafawa Balewa Square has become a real busy place (inchoative).

(b) The buying and selling that go on at Tafawa Balewa Square have turned it into a real busy place (causative-inchoative).

In these examples, the description of the state of the participant noun is underscored.

In some sentences, it is the identification of the participants in the propositional structure that receives emphasis. For example:

Ada is the beauty queen.

The beauty queen is Ada.

Perhaps the distinction between attribute and identification can be seen more clearly in the following:

(a) Ada is tall and beautiful (attributive).

(b) ***Ada is that tall and beautiful lady standing over there.***

Thus the questions "who is Ada?" "which one is Ada?" are asking for an identification and not the description of Ada as is vividly captured in sentence (a).

There are syntactic peculiarities with which identification is associated. They include: (a) Use of definite noun phrases which are usually proper names like Ada or noun phrases with definite articles e.g. "Ada is the beautiful lady standing over there". Definite articles usually "refer uniquely to some individual in the context of utterance" (Brown and Miller, 1992: 306). Descriptive sentences often exhibit definite subject noun phrases though the other constituents which are sometimes adjectives or noun phrases do not have any definite articles. Examples are:

(a) Ada is a good officer.

(b) ***Ada is tall and beautiful.***

(b) ***Reversibility***. It is possible to reverse noun phrases in identification sentences as in:

(a) Ada is the school mistress.

(b) The school mistress is Ada.

The foregoing description of state propositions involving the copulative verb BE holds good for the Tiv language as well. Examples are hereunder represented as:

(a) Ada ká kwàsé ya ù mákéránta.

(b) Kwàsé ya ù mákéránta ká Ada.

Such translational equivalents are possible with the other illustrative sentences stated above.

4.3 The Verb and Its Inflectional Units

Apart from being specified in terms of selectional and lexical units, English verbs are also specified semantically in terms of inflectional units. It was noted elsewhere in this work that selectional units operate outside the verb by dictating the presence of accompanying nouns. Within the verb, they limit the choice of lexical units or verb roots. "In this latter function, selectional units can be thought of as narrowing the conceptual field within the verb unit until a lexical unit finally pins down the most specific concept of all" (Chafe, 1975: 167).

Unlike the selectional units, inflectional units do not limit the choice of lexical units or verb roots in the semantic specifications and are not considered "redundant if the lexical unit is known". They have, though not always, surface structure representations and as a control force in the sentence, a verb's inflection affects the entire sentence. It is therefore an expression of the sentence and in that sense "whatever affects the verb affects the sentence as a whole" (Ibid: 168).

There are four verb inflectional types. They are, generic inflectional units, progressive, anticipative and past inflectional units. They are, hereby, treated individually as follows.

4.3.1 Generic Inflectional Units

They are concerned with the communication of "abstract generalities". Examples are:

(a) Ada sings.
(b) Ada opens the door.
(c) The door opens.
(d) *A pig eats anything.*

Baring two possible interpretations such as stage directions or an on-the-spot reporting of a contemporaneous event, sentence (a) can be taken as a general statement, that is to say, one which may be interpreted to mean Ada is a singer. It therefore communicates a "timeless propensity for an infinite number of events". This same interpretation can be extended to the other illustrative sentences stated above. Inflections which connote timeless propensities are therefore generic.

A generic inflection may be added optionally to any non-state verb as well as to any verb that is experiential or benefactive (regardless of whether or not it is a state). State verbs that are neither experiential nor benefactive may be either generic or non-generic as in the following:

(a) The door is open (non-relative state).

(b) The road is wide (relative state).

The non-relative state is transistory in nature and thus non-generic. It results from the fact that the ending-point with which it is associated is normally not a permanent condition. The door for example, is open at the moment but it has the potentials for being in a different state at other times.

With relative states, the situation is different. "The road is wide" does not communicate a transistory state. It is a permanent state and thus generic in terms of semantic specification.

4.3.2 Perfective Inflectional Units

The perfective inflectional units have surface structure configurations which may be illustrated as follows:

(a) Ada has sung.

(b) The door has opened.

(c) Ada has opened the door.

(d) ***The door has been opened.***

The perfect inflection specifies a state which had its origin in the past i.e. the patient began to be in that state prior to the time of reference. Where consequences are involved, the perfective implies the event took place prior to

the moment of utterance or speech. Everything is therefore understood to obtain at the time of reference except that the beginning of the state or event which produced the situation is pushed back to an earlier time.

By way of illustration therefore, the sentence "Ada has sung" may be a generic perfective in one sense and a non-generic in another. In the former sense, the immediate consequence of one single event is not in focus as it is the case with a non-generic perfective. What is different in a generic statement is that "the particularity of the event is replaced by a timeless non-particularity" (Chafe, 1975: 173).

The principles underlying the semantic realisation of generic and non-generic statements in English also apply to the Tiv language. For example, "Ada gbèrén ímó" which translates as "Ada sings", communicates a timeless non-particularity. It is therefore a statement which has a generic semantic interpretation. In the sentence, "Ada gbèr ímó" - "Ada has sung", the particularity of the event is in focus. It therefore carries with it a non-generic meaning. In contrast however, the statement, "húndá là ngú víngír gbèm" which translates as "the door has been shut" a generic meaning of the perfective type is brought into focus. Examples like this are enough proof that the Tiv language too has the capacity for expressing such nuances as would be determined by the inflectional units of the verb.

4.3.3 progressive Inflection

The progressive inflection is available only to non-state verbs which may be semantically specified as being either generic or non-generic. It also indicates that the events (be them generic or non-generic) are spread out over a certain period of time and are understood to be in progress at the time of reference (i.e. the moment of utterance). Progressives are duratively limited, that is to say, they do not continue endlessly. The situation may be illustrated as follows:

(a) Ada is singing.

(b) Ada is opening the door.

(c) Ada is opening (contrast).

The first sentence has two possible interpretations - the one is generic and the other is, non-generic. The latter has to do with an on-going act while the former refers to an indefinite series of events i.e. Ada is singing these days for a living. Such ambiguity does not have any pride of place in the verbal system of the Tiv language. "Ada is singing" simply translates as Ada ngù gbẹrèn ímó". The semantics is non-generic because the singing is taking place at a particular moment i.e. the moment of speech. "Ada ngù gbẹrèn ímó áyángé nè" which translates as "Ada is singing these days" however carries with it a generic meaning. The Tiv language unlike its English counterpart therefore, disambiguates the ambiguity such as expressed above through the addition of the time adverbial "áyángé nè" (these days) to sentences which have progressive verbs.

The second sentence also has some ambiguity. At one level, it conveys a non-generic meaning i.e. Ada is at the moment opening the door. At another, a generic meaning is communicated i.e. Ada is now a "door woman"; is now doing the job of opening the door. The ambiguity inherent in the English version of this illustration does not exist in the Tiv verbal system because the addition of the time adverbial "áyángé nè" does the magic of disambiguation.

There are instances when there exists the simultaneous presence of the perfective and the progressive as in:

(a) Ada has been singing.

(b) ***Ada has been opening the door.***

The significant thing about the presence of the perfective in these sentences is that the present situation results from what happened prior to it. Put it in another way, "the simultaneous presence of the perfective indicates that there exists at the time of reference, a situation which is the consequence of an event or series of events which took place prior to the moments of utterances" (op. cit: 177).

4.3.4 Anticipative Inflection

The anticipative inflection communicates some sort of intention on the part of the agent. The anticipative verb is always an action verb. It is generally incompatible with both the progressive and the perfective inflection. Anticipatives may be illustrated as follows:

(a) Ada is singing - It is anticipated that Ada would take to singing.

(b) *Ada is opening the door - she is contemplating taking up a door-opening job.*

An anticipative meaning involves the current relevance of some action which the agent anticipates performing. It is the opposite of the perfective i.e. that which has already been achieved.

Like the other inflectional units afore treated, anticipatives are realisable in the Tiv language - "Ada una̍ lù gbẹ̀reǹ ímó" - Ada will be singing" or "Ada is singing" is a very good case point.

4.3.5 Past Inflection

The past inflection has no limiting environments as the other inflectional types so far considered. This means it is not restricted by any other inflections or by any of the selectional units like states, actions nor processes. Its presence in the semantic structure of English sentences "indicates that the time of reference is shifted from the moment of utterance to some earlier time". The reference point in the past is always established either by the linguistic or non-linguistic context, that is to say, when the speaker employs the past inflection, he assumes the listener knows what the past reference point is. Where such assumption cannot be made, some clarifying device is added to the sentence. Thus he might add a time adverbial clause "last night" to the sẹntence, "Ada sang last night" as a way of clarifying what his reference point is. The situation, is must be stressed, holds same for the Tiv language.

4.3.6 Modals

Although they have been elaborately treated elsewhere in this work, a revisit is relevant at this point albeit with a slightly different focus. Here, the

emphasis will be laid on the way modals "reflect various semantic inflections of the verb" (op. cit:179)

The modal 'must' for example has two distinct semantic units one of which has the meaning 'obligation'. By this is meant it is obligatory (or as indicated by the speaker) "for a patient to be in a certain state or for a certain event to take place at some point subsequent to the time of reference" (op. cit: 179).

The other semantic unit reflected by 'must' involves an inference. The speaker says that "on the basis of evidence available to him, he infers that a patient is in a certain state or that a certain event takes place". (op. cit: 184). Thus when the speaker says "Ada must sing", he infers that Ada sings.

By inferential inflection, it is meant a linguistic phenomenon whereby a verb is specified inflectionally as inferential. Such inflection may have generic or non-generic meaning. In the sentence, "the road must be wide", it is a generic interpretation that is communicated. On the other hand, the sentence, "the door must be open", is non-generic in meaning because a particular door (as opposed to any other door) is being referred to. The inferential meaning is clearly incompatible with meanings that are communicated via direct reporting of contemporaneous events or stage directions. This is because, a speaker cannot infer something to be happening "when in fact he sees it happening before his eyes" (op. cit).

Also, in the English language, there exist inferential progressives as in:

Ada must have been singing all night long.

This communicates a generic meaning if the sentence is interpreted to mean "I infer that Ada was singing". If on the other hand, it is interpreted to mean "I infer that Ada has been singing" (past progressive), a non-generic meaning is communicated. Verbs which are both perfective and past do not have the inferential option available to them. The sentence, "Ada has sung" cannot be interpreted as having an inferential meaning.

Finally, the language has in its semantic system, the obligational inflection which, like the inferential inflectional unit, is reflected on the surface structure as 'must'. Examples are:

(a) Ada must sing.

(b) The road must be wide.

(c) *The door must be open etc.*

In contrast, the following sentences have inferential verbs:

(a) Ada must have sung.

(b) Ada must have been singing.

The obligational option is, as the above has shown, not available to verbs that are either perfective or past. The reasons being that "the meaning of an 'obligational' involves an obligation with respect to future whereas perfective and past both have to do with states or events which were initiated or took place in the past" (op. cit: 184). "It is also impossible for an obligational and inferential to co-occur because the latter is a historical outgrowth of the former" (op. cit). Secondly, there are no special constraints limiting the co-occurrence of generic and obligational. For example, in the sentence "Ada must sing", it means it is either obligatory for Ada to sing on one particular occasion (non-generic) or that it is obligatory for her to sing in general (generic).

Consequently, a "verb which is neither perfective, past nor inferential may be inflected optionally as obligational" (op. cit). This same situation holds for the verbal system of the Tiv language as could be seen in the following:

(a) Ada unáá gbèr ímó - Ada must sing (obligational).

(b) Ada gbèr ímó - Ada has sung (perfective).

(c) Ada gbèr ímó - Ada sang (past).

Sentence (a) is obligational in meaning because it involves an obligation with respect to the future activity. In sentence (b) an inferential meaning is communicated with a non-generic interpretation, that is to say, Ada's singing must have taken place at some particular moment in the perfective past. Sentence (c) is also inferential and non-generic but unlike (b) above, the activity

is specified as having taken place in the immediate as opposed to the perfective past. Examples like this confirm the ability the Tiv language has for realising these semantic nuances in its verbal system.

In sum, it has been established in this section of the study that the semantic structure of the verb is pegged onto the notion of a central verb which is accompanied, though not always, by one or more nouns each of which stands in some particular relation to it. It has also been established that apart from being specified semantically in selectional terms, the verb is also specified in inflectional units. The units are, generic, perfective, progressive and past inflectional units which unlike the selectional units, do not limit the choice of lexical units nor verb roots in semantic specifications.

In the section immediately following this one, an attempt will be made to look at the structure of complementation and the concept of 'voice' in the English verbal system. Efforts will also be made to determine the extent to which these linguistic concepts may be realised in the verbal system of the Tiv language.

4.4 Verb Complementation

A complement has been defined in Webster's Encyclopedic unabridged dictionary of English language (page 300), as "a word or words used to complete a grammatical construction especially the predicate". Chafe (1975), however, sees a complement as "that which completes or specifies the meaning of the verb". As these definitions have clearly indicated, complementation has a fundamental role to play in the semantic structure of the English language. The fundamental role notwithstanding, there are constructions in which no complementation occurs. Under such circumstances, we are faced with three verb types viz the purely intransitive verbs, those which are either transitive or intransitive albeit with very little or no difference in meaning or subject-verb relationship and those which can be transitive or intransitive with a considerable difference in meaning or in subject-verb relationship.

There are four different types of complementation. They are, intensive complementation, mono-transitive complementation, ditransitive complementation and complex complementation.

4.4.1 Intensive Complementation

This obtains in sentences where "there is co-reference relation between the subject and the complement" (Quirk et al, 1984: 820). The situation holds only where the verb involved is a linking verb, that is to say, the copulative verb 'BE' functions as a link between the complement and the subject. It can be illustrated as follows:

(a) John is a handome boy.

(b) John ká wányé kwáọr u dóón áshè.

(c) Anne is a pretty girl.

(d) ***Anne ká kpám kwàsé/Anne gbà kpám kpìshì.***

Sentences (b) and (d) are the Tiv translational equivalents of (a) and (c) above. There is, interestingly, co-reference between their subject nouns and complements with the copulative verb 'ká' or its alternant 'gbà' playing the role of a linker. It should be noted that as variants of the same morpheme, 'ká' and 'gbà' are in complementary distribution in terms of occurrence in appropriate linguistic environments.

Intensive predication in English, however, goes beyond the simple realisational pattern. There are, for example, the noun-phrase complements as in:

(a) Anne is a beautiful woman.

(b) Dupe is a thief.

There is, also, the adverbial complement as in the sentence, "the sun is shinning bright", intensive complementation involving adjective e.g. "Ada was bad in mathematics", adjective phrase with finite clause post modification as in, "I am sure that we will be late".

Others are, intensive predication with subjunctive verbs in sentences like, "It is expedient that he arrive by tomorrow". With putative 'should' a sentence

like "It is disastrous that he should act stupidly", is illustrative while in complementation with to infinitive postmodification, the sentence "Ada is hard to convince", aptly exemplifies the situation. These diversified ways of realising the intensive predication as a structure of complementation do not seem to hold same for the Tiv verbal system. The situation, however, does not in any way obscure the fact that such nuances could be expressed in the language. For example, the adverbial complement in the sentence, "the sun is shinning bright" can be rendered in Tiv as, "ìyángé tá wàngèr". It however lacks the progressive aspect of its English equivalent because it communicates a simple declarative statement.

4.4.2 Monotransitive Complementation

It refers to complementation which involves a single noun functioning as a complement. The English language identifies two basic sub-types. They are: (a) Monotransitive complementation with prepositional objects and (b) monotransitive complementation with noun phrase. The latter is further categorised into:

- ***(i) Animate subject + inanimate concrete objects as in: Ada caught the ball.***
- ***(ii) Animate subject + inanimate abstract objects as in: Everybody understood the problem.***
- ***(iii) Animate subject + animate objects e.g. John killed the snake.***
- ***(iv) Inanimate abstract subject + animate objects e.g. News of the coup d'etat in Ghana shocked the entire world.***

(b) Monotransitive complementation with prepositional objects as in the following:

- ***(i) John searched for the key.***
- ***(ii) He objected to what had been decided during our last meeting.***

It should be emphasized that wherever 'to' is used as a preposition, it is always followed by an -ing form. Examples are hereunder represented as:

(a) It amounted to doing the whole thing all over.

(b) We all look forward to seeing you again.

(c) John took to playing football.

Prepositions may also occur with that - clauses as verb complementation as in:

(a) The principal directed that the invited guests be attended to promptly.

(b) It was agreed to that the university would re-open next year.

Monotransitive complementation is also realised with finite clause objects. Examples are:

(a) They knew that Peter was madly in love with Lizzy.

(b) Ada had told us that her husband would be coming next week.

(c) We do not know whether the meeting will hold today.

The finite clauses used in this way are mostly of that and wh- types which passivize easily be extraposition: For example, "it was known that Peter was madly in love with Lizzy". It should be noted that in some of these illustrative sentences 'that' functions as a direct object while the adjective functions as the complement. Sentence (a) above is particularly instructive.

A that-clause has three sub-types:

(a) Indicative e.g. I suppose that John will be flying in next week.

(b) Putative should - I regret that Ada should be so stubborn.

(c) Subjunctive usage - I request that she go along.

With non-finite clause objects, monotransitive complementation is realised in two different ways viz:

(a) Realisation of non-finite clause objects with subjects as in:

i. He wants her to eat something.

ii. He saw her come.

iii. He found the seats occupied.

(b) Without subjects, the sentences below are illustrative:

i. Ada likes to dance (to-infinitive).

ii. She likes dancing (-ing participle).

iii. John enjoys smoking cigar (-ing participle).

iv. He plans to visit Jos next week (to- infinitive).

It is worth stressing that all participial constructions generally imply fulfilment while the infinitive types imply potentiality. Besides, the choice between the infinitive and the participle may be aspectually determined. For example:

(a) I heard the door slamming all night long (progressive aspect).

(b) ***I heard the door slam just after midnight (perfective/completive aspect).***

Monotransitive complementation with to-infinitive with subject is also possible in the verbal system of English. For example:

(a) I asked Ada to come today.

(b) ***I liked Mary to see a doctor.***

With -ing participle, monotransitive complementation is realised as follows with subject nouns:

(a) I disliked him smoking marijuana.

(b) I disliked his smoking marijuana.

(c) I saw him doing it.

The monotransitive verb complementation in English as the foregoing indicates, has a wide range of diversified realisations which contrast sharply with its Tiv counterpart where such realisations are by and large simplified. This complexity would likely constitute areas of difficulty to the Tiv learner of English.

4.4.3 Ditransitive Complementation

It involves two objects that are not in a co-referential or intensive relationship to each other. Its realisation is manifest in the following ways:

(a) Indirect + direct noun phrase objects as in:

i. Ada gave John a poetry book.

ii. She bought her husband a white shirt.

(b) Indirect objects and prepositional phrases:

i. Ada gave a poetry book to John.

ii. She bought a white shirt for her husband.

Ditransitive verbs like their monotransitive counterparts are amenable to passivisation. Some of them have two passive transforms. Examples are:

i. A poetry book was given to John by Ada.

ii. John was given a poetry book by Ada.

(c) Indirect objects are typically animates: Ditransitive complementation is realised with indirect objects which are animates only. The only exceptions are metaphorical usages as in:

i. Peter gave their living apartment a new look.

ii. Ada gave her husband's car a wash.

(d) Direct + prepositional object: Subsumed under this complementation type are two sub-classes namely:

(i) Inanimate direct + animate prepositional phrase object e.g. we explained the problem to the participants.

(ii) Animate direct + prepositional phrase object e.g. we reminded him of the problem.

(e) Verb + noun phrase + prepositional phrase idioms:

This is manifest in a situation where the verb and the two phrases form a very close idiomatic unit. Put it the other way, the verb plus the noun and prepositional idioms form a special type of complex object. Examples are:

(i) Ada had made a mess of the soup.

(ii) The soup had been made a mess of.

(iii) The mess had been made of the soup.

Either of the noun phrases functions conveniently as the subject of the passivized analogue of the active sentence illustrated above.

Other related examples are:

(i) The President had been made fun of.

(ii) Ada's beauty was made much of (i.e. was exaggerated).

(f) Noun phrase + finite clause object as in:

(i) Dupe told me she was married.

(ii) ***John proved to me that he was right.***

Complementation involving noun phrase + finite object is also possible with wh- clauses. Examples are:

(a) Ada didn't tell me whether John was coming.

(b) John didn't inform me that he was attending Ada's wedding.

The last sentence with its that- clause contrasts sharply with the first one. It implies John was supposed to attend whereas 'whether' is evidently non-committal.

(g) Prepositional phrase + that- clause objects:

Under this, the study employs the following illustrations:

(i) John confided to me that they were sick.

(ii) John mentioned to me that Dupe was a criminal.

(iii) It was mentioned to me that they were sick.

Here, like in the other sub-sections so far discussed, the reader is treated to a gamut of ways in which ditransitive complementation is realised in the verbal system of the English language. The treatment is no doubt, complex and such complexity as has already been pointed out, seems alien to the verbal structure of the Tiv language. Complementation in the language is by and large realised in a simplified form. This notwithstanding, the Tiv with ingenuity manifest amazing ability for finding ways round these diverse and complex realisations albeit with a great deal of effort. This might therefore explain why internalisation of the principles of these complex realisations with their attendant nuances

could be problematic to the Tiv child. The same problem is likely to be faced by any Nigerian child whose first language does not have these complex realisational patterns of the ditransitive structure of complementation.

4.4.4 Complex Transitive Complementation

It is a fusion of the monotransitive and intensive type of complementation and like the other types earlier discussed, it has diverse realisations hereunder represented as:

(a) Object + noun phrase complement as in:

(i) They declared Bill the winner of last year's presidential polls in the United States of America.

(ii) They made Hitler the German war hero.

(iii) Onesimus was elected the speaker of Jamaican national congress.

One significant feature of complex complementation is its co-referential prowess i.e. it shows an intensive relationship between the subject noun and the completing noun phrase. There is also a distinction between the definite and indefinite article in an intensive relation where a count noun is involved as a complement. Examples involving indefinite usage are:

(i) Ada considered John a gennius.

(ii) Mary regarded Peter to be an intellectual.

(iii) Tunde was a soldier before he later became a lawyer.

(iv) *Mary was taken for a linguist.*

(v) *Mary started as a musician but later turned linguist.*

Complementation involving the verb 'turn' has a zero article, i.e. it does not require an article.

Constructions which have definite reference are:

(i) John was considered the genius of the family.

(ii) They elected Kennedy (the) President of the United States of America.

(iii) John is (the) captain of the team.

Use of the definite article is optionally specified in noun complements after copulative and naming verbs as has been illustrated above.

Intensive relationship also exists between the object and the complement as in:

(i) Ada made him a good husband.

*(ii) * She made him a good house wife.*

In the first sentence, the object 'him' relates intensively to the complement noun 'husband'. In the second sentence, the intensive relationship is between the subject noun and the complement. The first sentence also differs from the second in the sense that the referent was made into a good husband by Ada - a situation which results from the effects of the verb 'made' on the object and the complement. It is for this reason that the said sentence can with ease be passivised to read: "he was made a good husband". It is however, not possible to attest:

** She was made a good house wife.*

Because "she made him a good house wife" has current as opposed to a resultative meaning.

(b) Object + preposition + noun complement:

(i) People recognized John as a genius.

(ii) They described him as a cheat.

(iii) He took me for a fool.

The illustrative sentences have passive transformations as in:

(i) John was recognized as genius.

(ii) I was taken for a fool.

(iii) *He was described as a cheat.*

Some prepositional phrases which occur after transitive verbs require adverbials as complements. Examples are:

(i) John parked the car in the garage.

(iii) They described the Poor Christ of Bomba as being half-demented.

In the Tiv verbal system, complex transitive complementation is realisable with object + noun phrase complement as in:

Vé	*Sángè*	*Uń*	*Òr shúwá ù dyúú*
Subject	*Verb*	*Object*	*Complement*

The English translational equivalent of same is, "they elected him Speaker of the Congress".

Transitive locatives are also realised in the language. For example, there are sentences like:

(i) John pèndà ìméngér shá tébùl.

(ii) John stood the lamp on the table.

(iii) John nóngùl gbúúkᵩ ké kpèkpè.

(iv) John leant the gun against the wall.

Intransitive locatives are hardly realised in the language and hence the study shall not attest:

*(a) * Ìméngér tílè shá tébùl.*

The lamp stood on the table.

*(b) * Gbúúkᵩ nóngùl ké kpèkpè.*

The gun leant against the wall.

This is because, inanimate subjects do not collocate with locatives in this way in the propositional structure of the language.

Similarly, the semantic nuances which, in the English language, are occasioned by the presence or absence of the definite and indefinite article to specify definiteness or indefiniteness of reference do not seem to exist in the verbal system of the Tiv language. Consequently, they have what Sydney Lamb (1973) categories as "empty semantic realisation".

Other realisational patterns of the complex transitive complementation which have been discussed above include those which involve object + preposition + noun complement, object + adjective complement, and Object + prepositional adjective phrase complement. They do not have direct equivalents

(a) Ada agreed with John.

**John was agreed with (by Ada).*

(b) Ada lived with John.

**John was lived with (by Ada).*

However, prepositional verbs like 'go into', 'arrive at' etc. as has already been explained, passivise easily e.g. ***the problem was looked into***. The ease with which passivisation takes place with this category of verbs is partly attributed to the fact of their collocation with abstract subjects and partly to the fact that they suggest figurative usage.

(d) Object constraints:

English verbs take both nominal and clausal objects. The former has limitless passivisation as in:

(a) John beat Ada.

(b) *Ada was beaten by John.*

Clausal objects which have been sub-categorised into finite and non-finite clauses do not have this boundless latitude to passivise. With finite clauses, passivisation is not problematic. With non-finite clauses, it does not take place. Examples are as follows:

Ada discovered that John was kind.

The passive equivalent of same can be realised via an extraposed 'it' e.g. "It was discovered (by Ada) that John was kind".

By extraposition, it is meant a situation where the clause remains in post-verbal position in the passive sentence but it is introduced by an "anticipatory it" as subject.

Sentences which have non-finite clauses are not amenable to passivisation. For example, ***John hoped to kiss Ada***, cannot be passivised to read: ***It was hoped by John to kiss Ada***, the reason being ***to kiss Ada*** is a non-finite clause object. Similarly, ***John enjoyed kissing Ada*** cannot be passivised to read: ***It was enjoyed by John kissing Ada***.

(e) Co-reference between subject and nominal object:

This too has the potential for blocking passive transformation. It occurs with the following:

Reflexive - John could see himself in the mirror.

****Himself could be seen in the mirror by John.***

Reciprocal - we could hardly see each other in the fog.

****Each other could hardly be seen (by ourselves) in the fog.***

Possessive - The handsome bald doctor shook his head.

****His head was shaken by the handsome bald doctor.***

Reflexive pronouns and their reciprocal counterparts do not admit of passive realisations because they are objective case complements. It is therefore not possible to have them in the nominative case which is the subject position of a passive sentence.

Passivisation is, however, easy with finite clauses which are introduced by that-, whether or if - clauses as in the following:

It could hardly be expected that Ada would pass her exams.

That Ada could pass her exams was hardly expected.

In that - clauses therefore, it is obligatory for 'that' to occur at the initial position as illustrated above. The occurrence of the 'anticipatory it' at the sentence initial position on the other hand goes with infinitive as in:

It was desired to have lunch outside the dinning hall.

It is however, impossible to attest:

It was desired to having lunch outside the dining hall because the -ing participle unlike the -ed participle, does not collocate with the infinitive. Other constraints are:

(a) Agent Constraints

As has been noted elsewhere in the study, the 'agent phrase' is optionally specified especially in situations where its presence is considered irrelevant, unknown or redundant. The following illustrative sentences explain it better:

(a) The Prime Minister was attacked last night (by the opposition) in the debate on this year's budget proposals.

(b) Tyson fought Douglas last year and Tyson was beaten (by Douglas). Here, mention of Douglas as the agent would have been redundant or unnecessary.

It is, also, possible to have an indeterminate agent as in:

Order has been restored without blood shed and without concessions

Here, it cannot be determined whether it is the Police, the Army or any other Government officials that have been able to restore order in such a miraclous way.

Where the agent is left unexpressed, it becomes difficult to passivise a sentence. Passivisation in situations such as illustrated above, becomes restrictive because the agent is not "recoverable".

(b) Meaning Constraints

This has to do with shifts in the semantic structure of a sentence as would be conditioned by a corresponding shift in its voice. Such a shift usually involves verb phrases that contain auxiliaries having dual meanings as could be seen in the following:

(a) Ada cannot do such a thing.

(b) Such a thing cannot be done by Ada.

(c) Ada cannot open the door.

(d) The door cannot be opened by Ada.

The use of the auxiliary 'can' in the active voice implies the ability to do something. In the passive voice, it means possibility. This point had been explained in the third chapter of this study under the heading - "the auxiliaries and their semantics".

There are situations when the meaning of 'can' is the same both ways but even circumstances like this do not rule out the possibility of meaning shift. For example, ***John can't be corrected*** means he is not disposed to corrections; he is incorrigible while ***He can't correct John*** means he is unable to correct John.

(c) Frequency Constraints:

By and large, the active construction appears to be unmarked in English sentences. The passive, in some situations, is equally unmarked but its frequency of occurrence seems to be restricted to formal or literary discourse. Infact,

> ***the major stylistic factor determining its frequency could be related to the distinction between informative and imaginative prose rther than to a difference of subject matter or of spoken and written English (op. cit: 808).***

The passive is therefore commonly employed in informative writing more than it may be used in imaginative writing. The former oftentimes employs the objective, non-personal style that is characteristic of "scientific articles and news items" (op. cit). It is hereby illustrated in the sentence:

> ***Before Ada could realise what Tony had up his sleeves the relationship had been severed (by Tony)*** - a reiterated mention of the agent 'Tony' in the structure would have been unnecessary or redundant.

4..5.2 The Passive Scale

This refers to the potentials English sentences have for displaying a variety of voice relationships. Quirk et al (1984) have identified three such relationships. They are:

(a) Agentive Phrase

As the name suggests, passive transformations which admit of agent nouns are described as "agentive phrases". They are sub-categorised into personal and impersonal agents. Examples are as follows:

i. ***The house was built by the Johnsons.***

ii. ***The show was put up by the Beatles.***

With impersonal agents, the passive transformation is realised as illustrated hereunder:

i. ***The conclusion was hardly justified by the results.***

ii. The impressive results have been marred by carelessness.

Some agentive pasives have two possible transforms whose realisation is dependent upon the interpretation of the 'by- phrase'. For example, the sentence ***Coal has been replaced by oil*** has two active transforms viz.

(a) Oil has replaced coal.

(b) People in many countries have replaced coal by oil (Ibid: 809).

An interpretative insight into the first sentence reveals the presence of an impersonal agent while the second has an active transformation whose 'by-phrase' has instrumental function. The preposition 'by' can therefore be interpreted to mean 'with'. Its presence in the sentence necessitates a corresponding presence of an active agent which, from all indications, must be animate and human. e.g. "people in many countries".

Some passives are visibly agentless. For example:

i. The ugly situation cannot be avoided.

ii. It is a problem which can be effectively surmounted.

iii. The difficulty can be easily avoided.

(b) Quasi - Passives

They are not full-fledged passive constructions. Examples are:

i. We are encouraged by the results to go on with the project.

ii. Ada was interested in mathematics.

The active analogues of the two sentences could be represented as:

i. The results encouraged us to go on with the project.

ii. Mathematics interested Ada.

'Result' and 'mathematics as employed in these illustrative sentences, have agentive functions. The verbs in the sentences also have adjectival qualities. They are, for instance, adjectivals in the passive constructions and verbals in the active.

There are many adjectives that have the same forms as the participles -ing and -ed. For example:

(a) His views on marriage were irritating.

(b) The man seemed offended.

Adjectival properties of verbs used in quasi-passive can also be identified on the basis of their pre-modifications as in:

i. I felt very encouraged and content with the outcome of the experiment.

ii. Ada seemed very interested and keen on mathematics.

Also, in their uses, a 'by agent' is rare. The only exceptions are blends such as:

i. I feel rather let down by his indifference.

ii. I felt rather disappointed at his ignorance.

(c) Quasi - Agents

They are referred to as "agent phrase prepositions" based on their ability to introduce agentive functions in quasi - passive sentences. Examples are:

(i) We were all worried about the complications his operation developed. This means the word ***complications*** introduced in the sentence by the preposition ***'about', worried us all.***

(ii) I was surprised at her behaviour - Her behaviour surprised me a bit (op. cit: 810).

(d) Like 'complications' and 'behaviour', ***clausal complements*** of quasi-passives also have agent functions. The following are quite illustrative:

(i) I was surprised to hear John failed his exams.

(ii) <u>To hear that John failed</u> his exams surprised me.

The underlined has an agent function. Clauses or words which have such functions in sentences are therefore known as quasi-agents.

(e) *Non-agentive Passives*

There are some English sentences in which the idea of a performer seems absent or irrelevant. Examples are hereunder represented as:

(i) Our opponents were more organised.

(ii) The players were sufficiently energised to go into the match.

(iii) The modern world becomes more industrialised and mechanized (op. cit: 810).

The -ed participles in the illustrative sentences have adjectival values. The sentences are not passive sentences in the normal sense although they satisfy the formal passive requirements, that is to say, they have indirect passive relationships. They also do not need agent nouns and hence the reason for their being classified as non-agentive passives.

It was stated earlier that some English verbs have both transitive and intransitive forms in which the intransitive functions like the passive in the sense that the relation of the subject to the verb is transformationally similar to that of the object of the transitive. This state of affair was illustrated as follows:

(i) They rang the bell (transitive).

(ii) The bell rang (intransitive).

(iii) The bell was rung (by the school prefect).

The three sentences are semantically the same, the surface structure differences notwithstanding. The presence of the agent 'school prefect' in the last sentence however shows that the verb involved is, like the first one, transitive. It is for this reason that we shall not attest:

*(i) *The bell rang by the school prefect.*

*(ii) *The tree blew down by the wind.*

There are other examples like:

(i) The wind blew down the tree (transitive).

(ii) The tree blew down (intransitive).

(iii) The tree was blown down (by the wind).

The illustrations are instructive because they have translational equivalents in the Tiv language. The Tiv for instance have constructions like:

(i) The flute blew - ìmàr tóngò (intransitive).

(ii) The dance danced - ámár víne.

(iii) The farm dug - súré káha.

There are occasions when there is need for shift of focus of attention from the subject noun phrase onto the object noun phrase either because the subject noun is not known, irrelevant or redundant. The latter refers to situations where the presence of the noun phrase is so obvious that it does not need any mention. The case of "the flute blew" which has been illustrated above is instructive here.

As for a shift of focus, sentences like the ones below are illustrative:

(i) John wúà ìyó - John killed the snake.

(ii) Ìyó là ká John á wóó yé - that snake it was John who killed it (i.e. the snake was killed by John).

There is, undoubtedly, a shift from the agent noun 'John' to the object noun 'snake'. The morpho-syntactic processes involved in the realisation of this passive transformation are certainly different from what obtains in English. For example the passive equivalent rendered above can be taken as a paraphrase of the active sentence - ***John killed the snake***. Paraphrasing can therefore be taken as the Tiv's way of realising the passive. It is also true that the usual re-arrangement of clause elements as dictated by the English passive voice may not tally with what obtains in the Tiv translational equivalents; the active subject is actually transformed into a passive agent while the object changes to subject. All this re-arrangement is necessitated by the shift of focus. It confirms the fact that in spite of the morphosyntactic differences one of which is the absence of the preposition 'by' which the English introduce before the agent in their passive transformations, the passive realisation is a reality in the Tiv verbal system.

It is also true that the addition of a form of the auxiliary BE does not exist in passivised Tiv sentences either. The only morphosyntactic change which one finds in Tiv passive transforms is that which affects the verb wúà (kill) which now reads 'wóó' in line with the dictates of the passive transformation. The change is however not participally conditioned per se. It

has, rather, been brought about by the semantic imperatives of the perfective aspect of the verb as the above translated rendition has confirmed.

In sum, the passive realisation though largely expressed through paraphrasing, exists in the verbal system of the Tiv language. Internalising the principle regarding the English voice system may therefore not be as problematic to the Tiv learner of the language as it would be the case in his attempts at internalising the other aspects of the English language that this research has treated.

Chapter 5

Summary, Inferences and Conclusion

The thrust of this research has been an attempt at establishing through a comparative analysis, the extent to which the English and Tiv verbal systems differ. At the same time, the study has tried to highlight areas of similarities to prove the often stated assertion that there is something universal about natural languages.

Also, we have tried to stress the practical and functional relevance of the research effort to linguistic science on the one hand and to pedagogics on the other. An attempt has also been made to see if the seemingly intractable problem of an appropriate orthogarphy for the Tiv language could, by this study, be commented upon.

In the course of our comparative analysis, the following were established as findings:

(a) That the English language viewed against the background of its tense, aspect, voice, modal auxiliaries, finite and non-finiteness and complementation, differs significantly from its Tiv counterpart and that such differences constitute points at which the learning of English as a second language could be difficult to the Tiv child in particular and any Nigerian child for that matter.

(b) That the morphological structure of the English language presents a paradigm of inflectional suffixes for the past and present tenses as well as for the third person singular. These allomorphic variants which are represented as /s/, /z/ and /iz/ for the third person singular verb and /t/, /d/ and /id/ for realisation of the past, and -ed participle are absent in the verbal structure of the Tiv language. The English language also has the -ing affix which has been described by linguists as 'unique' because it has only one allomorph. Its realisation in the Tiv verbal system is simplified through the use of the copulative verb 'ngu' with the suffixation of the

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morpheme [n] to the base of any given verb. It is therefore similar to the suffixation of the morpheme [ŋ] to the bases of English verbs.

5.1 Tense

The study has revealed that the English language unlike its Tiv counterpart, has a concept of tense which is seen as a correlation between verb unit and the notion of time. The language therefore conceptualises tense as a grammatical category which is realised through appropriate verb inflections and since there are two such inflections [D_1] and [Z_3], it follows inevitably that there are two tenses in the language and not three. The tenses are present and past tenses. Realisation of the simple present tense in the language is diversified into eternal truths, habituatives, reporting of instantaneous happenings, reporting of scientific experiments and making of performative declarations. The language also makes clear-cut distinctions between the simple present and present perfect which appears to have very little or no significance in the Tiv language.

Realisation of the simple past in English, the study has revealed, is also diversified. It is used to indicate definite past, to denote habituative sense, hypothetical past, indirect past also known as reported speech, as well as attitudinal past.

The Tiv language on the other hand has a neutralised concept for both the simple past and past perfect tenses, that is to say, the simple past tense, past perfect tense, the continuative, the semantic unit expressing the sense not yet; the anticipative future activity and the finite form of the verb HAVE are neutralised in the language by the morpheme [lu].

As for the future tense, the study has established that "there is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time-tense parallel for the present and past" (Quirk et al, 1984). Future time in the language is therefore expressed by the means of the auxiliaries or by simple present or progressive forms. These diversified realisational patterns of the future time do not exist in the Tiv verbal system. What one finds in the language is "potentiality" or 'futurity' whose translational equivalents into English may not yield absolutely precise

results. The Tiv, the study has however revealed, have ways of expressing predetermined acts in their language although such realisation is not as neatly defined as it is the case in English. The situation, nevertheless, does not weaken the fact regarding their ability to express such phenomena in their language.

5.2 Verb-Noun Concord

The study has also established that the English verb is not only inflected for tense realisations. It is inflected for number and concord. Consequently, the selection of an appropriate verb phrase for any given sentence in the language depends on the number of the subject noun phrase: if the subject is singular, the corresponding verb must be singular and vice versa. Thus in the language, the distinction between verb forms is also characterised as "one of number" (Brown and Miller 1992: 174).

The concord between the subject noun and its verb in the Tiv language on the other hand is by and large conditioned morphotenemically in line with the dictates of the noun-verb symbiosis and whereas the English language expresses concord as delineated above, the Tiv language goes beyond that. In the language, realisation of noun-verb concord takes into consideration aspects like count and non-count nouns, animate and non-animate subjects which, as a rule, must show concord with the appropriate verbs with which they are collocated. Internalisation of the English concord system may therefore be less problematic to the Tiv learner of the language.

5.3 Aspect

One significant finding of this research has been the way aspectual meanings are realised in both the English and Tiv languages. In English for example, aspectual meanings "indicate whether or not a verb activity is continuative or completive, performed once or repeatedly or whether the verbal activity is a process etc" (Oyetunde, 1983: 73). This means an intimate relationship exists between tense and aspect in English language. A similar situation seems to obtain for the Tiv language because the progressive aspect and the 'continuous' are inseparable. In a sentence like ***Ada ngù yemèn - Ada***

is going, the present time is continuous while the aspect is progressive. It therefore communicates temporariness. Also in the verbal system of the language, there is the future progressive as in: ***Ada úna lù yemèn kpér - Ada will be leaving tomorrow*** while ***Ada nyén lù vaàn - Ada was crying yesterday*** expresses past progressive. There is, also, a future progressive in the language which indicates anticipative or fixed beginning as in: ***Á lù bughùn mákéránta kpér - the school will be re-opening tomorrow*** while habituative aspect is realised in the language as ***Ada vé héén gbèm - Ada always comes here***. There is also the perfective aspect which is realised as***: Dam lù á ìgyò - Dam had a pig***. It is, as the above suggests, clear that there exist similarities in the way aspectual meanings are realised both in the English and Tiv languages. The verb forms in each case determine the intending meanings thereby making it unnecessary for one to make some recourse to the context of situation or past experience for ease of interpretation.

5.4 The Subjunctive

The English language expresses recommendations, resolutions, demands and surprises through the mandative subjunctive. The language also has formulaic and the 'were-subjunctive' used in clauses of were - condition or concession.

The Tiv subjunctive which Abraham (1940) describes as 'elaborate', manifests potentials for realising all shades of meanings one finds in the English mood system. The similarities notwithstanding, differences clearly abound. Realisation of the subjunctive in the language is tonemically conditioned. It is distinguished from the imperative by the fact that all subject pronouns have low tones. We also have optative verbs in the language. For example, ***Sàrem pè mà ú vé - I wish you came*** but unlike the were- subjunctive of the English mood system, such verbs (though verbs expressing wishes) are realised as desideratives and as the name suggests, they express desire on the part of the speaker.

5.5 *Noun-Verb Symbiosis*

One significant feature of the Tiv verb is the way linguistic material is organised in the language. It has been established that the type of information carried by the Tiv verb is most of the time realised through the tone. The classification of the Tiv verb into eight classes arranged A-H is therefore tonemically conditioned. There are eleven noun classes each of which has its copulative equivalent or "concordial copula" (Welmers, 1973: 206) which combines as subject pronoun and copula in syntactic structures. Unlike the English verb which has transitive and intransitive verbs as distinct classes, the Tiv verbs of the class A type are identified on the basis of tones, vowel endings and syllabic number. This explains why transitive and intransitive verbs in the language are grouped under one class. Realisation of the transitive in the language does not in any way correspond to the patterns known in English language. Its internalisation may be difficult to the Tiv learner.

5.6 *Auxiliaries*

The English auxiliary verb presents a complex realisational pattern. This complexity, our study has revealed, finds expression in its diversified realisations which account for the significant differences that exist between the English and Tiv verbal systems.

The Tiv auxiliaries on the other hand are not as complex because they refer most of the time to futuristic meanings. There are, also, others which combine as subject pronouns but which are realised through single morphemes in a neutralised fashion. Consequently, their realisations have a seeming complexity. But unlike the English verb, the complexity here is of a different kind. This explains why the complex realisational patterns which are characteristics of the English auxiliary may constitute a source of difficulty to the Tiv learner of the language.

5.2.1 *The English Verb and Its Semantic Structure*

This study has looked at the semantic structure of the English and Tiv verb and has established that every sentence in the two languages is based on

the notion of a central verb which is accompanied though not always by one or more nouns each of which stands in some particular relation to it. The noun-verb relations which are fundamental to the semantic structures of these two languages are 'agent' and 'patient' whose roles are tied up to the semantic specification of the verb into states, processes, actions, action-processes and ambience. It has also been established that there are seven relations of the noun to the verb. They include, patient, agent, experiencer, beneficiary, instrument, complement and location. Of all these relations 'patient' and 'agent' appear to have a fundamental character which is lacking in the others. Exceptions may be with verbs of the ambient type as in: "it is raining" where 'it' is specified neither as 'agent' nor 'patient'.

Apart from 'instrument', the other relations are determined by the presence within the verb of a certain selectional unit. For example, an experiential verb dictates the accompaniment of an experiencer noun, an action verb an agent, a benefactive verb a beneficiary, a completable verb a complement, a locative verb a location and a process verb a patient.

An instrument noun depends on the presence of an action-process verb although such a verb does not require the accompaniment of an instrument in all situations.

The study has also established that English and Tiv verbs have the capacity of being specified semantically in terms of inflectional units i.e. apart from the fact that they have been specified in terms of lexical and relational units. Consequently four inflectional units have been identified in the study. They include, generic, progressive, anticipative and past inflectional units. The principles underlying the semantic realisation of generic and non-generic propositions in the two languages are to a large extent similar. For example, in the sentence ***Ada gbèrén ímó*** - which translates as ***Ada sings***, a timeless non-particularity is communicated. In contrast, the sentence ***Ada gbèr ímó*** carries with it the particularity of a single event. It therefore communicates a non-

generic meaning. There are also, perfective generic meanings as in: ***húndá là ngú víngír gbèm - the door has been shut*** or ***the door has remained shut***.

As for progressive inflection, the ambiguity inherent in statements like ***Ada is singing*** (which carries both generic and non-generic meaning) does not exist in the Tiv verbal system. ***Ada is singing*** simply translates as ***Ada ngù gbẹrèn ímó***. Its semantics is non-generic because the singing is taking place at a particular moment of speech. The statement ***Ada ngù gbẹrèn ímó áyángé nè - Ada is singing these dàys*** on the other hand carries a generic meaning. Unlike its English counterpart, the Tiv language disambiguates such ambiguities through the addition to progressive sentences 'the time adverbial' - ***áyángé nè*** (***these days***).

Like the other inflectional units, anticipatives are realisable ın the Tiv language. Example: **Ada úna lù gbẹrèn ímó** - ***Ada will be singing***. Anticipatives communicate some sort of intention on the part of the agent. It therefore involves current relevance of some action which the agent anticipates performing. It is in all cases the direct opposite of the perfective (Tiv and English inclusive).

Realisation of the past inflection in English is similar to what obtains in the Tiv language. It has to do with a shift of time reference to some earlier time. In the two languages therefore, the presence of the past inflectional unit in the semantic structure indicates that the time of reference is shifted from the moment of utterance to some earlier time. The reference point in the past is either linguistically or non-linguistically determined. Clarifying devices are therefore employed where the speaker feels the listener does not know what the past reference point is. For example, the addition of the time adverbial ***last night*** to the statement, ***Ada sang*** leaves the listener in no doubt as to the reference point being communicated by the speaker.

Finally, a verb which is neither perfective nor inferential may be inflected optionally as obligational. The situation, the study has revealed, holds same for the Tiv language as in the sentences below:

(i) Ada úna gbèr ímó - Ada must sing (obligational).

(ii) Ada gbèr ímó - Ada has sung (perfective).

(iii) Ada gbèr ímó - Ada sang (simple past).

Both the perfective and simple past have the same surface structure configurations notwithstanding the fact that their deep structures differ.

5.3.1 Complementation

Four realisational types of complementation have been identified in this study. They are intensive, monotransitive, ditransitive and complex structure of complementation.

Both the intensive and monotransitive complementation are realisable in the Tiv language albeit in a simplified realisational pattern. This contrasts, for example, with the English language which has diversified realisational patterns involving noun-phrase complementation, adverbial complement, complementation involving adjective phrase with finite clause post-modification, intensive predication with subjunctive verb and complementation which involves the putative 'should'. These diversified realisational patterns do not seem to exist in the verbal system of the Tiv language. The situation, however does not obscure the fact that the Tiv have the capacity for finding ways round such nuances.

Ditransitive complementation in English also lends itself to a diversified range of realisational patterns which are complex and thus potentially difficult to the Tiv learner of the language.

Complex transitive complementation, the study has revealed, is however realised with ease in the Tiv verbal system. With object + noun-phrase, we have complex complementation in the language as in:

Vé sángè uń òrshúwá ù dyúú.

They have elected him skpeaker of the Congress.

Also in the language, realisation of transitive locatives is possible in the complex transitive structure of complementation. It is found in sentences like:

Ada pèndà ìménger shá tébùl.

Ada stood the lamp on the table.

Ada nóngùl gbúúkᵩ ke kpekpe.

Ada leant the gun against the wall.

Ironically, realisation of intransitive locative in the same structure of complementation is not possible in the language. From the study therefore, it has been established that the sentence:

**Gbúúkᵩ nóngùl ké kpèkpè.*

**The gun leant against the well.*

cannot be attested. This is because inanimate subjects do not collocate with locatives in this way in the propositional structure of the Tiv language.

Similarly, semantic nuances which are triggered by the presence or absence of the definite and indefinite article to specify definiteness or indefiniteness of reference do not seem to exist in the verbal system of the Tiv language. Realisation of this type is of the empty equivalence.

Other realisational patterns of the complex transitive structure of complementation are diversified and thus bereft of single or direct realisational equivalents in the Tiv verbal system. The Tiv like in the other complementation types considered above could find a way round them. Their internalisation for the Tiv child learning English could however be problematic.

On the system of voice, the study has established that its realisation in the semantic structure of the Tiv verb is a possibility. It may therefore be realised to underscore the need for a shift of focus of attention from the subject noun phrase onto the object noun phrase as in:

John wúà ìyó - John killed the snake (active voice).

Ìyó là ká John á wóó yé - That snake it was John who killed it (passive). It is a paraphrased form of the snake was killed by John.

Realisation of the passive voice in the language is also possible where the subject noun is either not known or where its mention is considered irrelevant or redundant. The case of "the flute blew" is instructive.

Our analyses have also revealed that the usual re-arrangement of clause elements as dictated by the English passive voice may not tally with what obtains in the Tiv translational equivalent of the same realisation. This has been confirmed by the paraphrased version of the passive equivalent of the sentence ***John killed the snake*** in which the active subject 'John' is actually transformed into the passive agent while the object 'snake' changes to the passive subject. This re-arrangement has been necessitated by a shift of focus. It however confirms the fact that in spite of the morphosyntactic differences one of which is the absence of the preposition 'by' which, in the English language, is introduced before the agent in the passive transformation, the passive realisations as the above illustrations have shown, is a reality in the Tiv language.

It is also true that the addition of a form of the auxiliary BE does not exist in passivised Tiv sentences. The only morpho-syntactic change which one finds in the Tiv pasive transforms is that which affects verbs like wúà (kill) which, in the above example, now reads ***wóó*** in line with the dictates of the pasive transformation. The change is however not participally conditioned. It has, rather, been brought about by the semantic imperatives of the perfective aspect of the verb 'kill' as the translational equivalent above has confirmed.

The passive transformation also exists in the verbal system of the Tiv language because its realisation through paraphrasing lends credence to the fact that internalisation of the principles underlying its expression in the English verbal system may not be much of a problem to the Tiv learner of the language as it would be the case with the other areas of the language that have so far been treated.

5.4.1 Conclusion

Based on the above findings, it may be concluded that structural differences exist between the verbal systems of the English and Tiv languages. The differences are many and varied. Similarities also abound and their existence constitute areas of positive transfers in the English language learning efforts of the Tiv child. Conversely, the points at which the differences are so pronounced constitute "the major difficulties" for the Tiv learner of the English language.

The study has tremendous relevance to pedagogics, that is to say, it has functional and practical value to the teaching and learning of English language in Nigeria. Its findings, if carefully considered, would definitely materialise into curriculum decisions that would be of immense benefit to the Nigerian students of English.

The study also has the potential for laying to rest the current debate on the appropriate Tiv orthography. It also recommends to the Tiv language studies Association, the adoption of the version of Tiv orthography which it adopts.

Finally, the study recommends more research work in this area because it holds a lot of promise for the development of linguistic science on the one hand and the teaching and learning of English language on the other.

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