A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND IGALA MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

BY

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DECEMBER, 2006

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER DEGREE. (ENGLISH LANGUAGE)

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
FACULTY OF ARTS
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DECEMBER, 2006

DECLARATION

I Andrew-Ogidi, Rakiya Christiana do solemnly declare that, this Thesis has been written by me and that it is a record of my own research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for higher degree. All sources of information are duly acknowledged by means of references.

…… ……

Andrew-Ogidi, Christiana Rakiya **Date**

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that, this thesis, entitled 'A comparative analysis of English and Igala Morphological processes' submitted by Andrew-Ogidi, Rakiya Christiana meets the regulations governing the award of the Degree of Master of Arts of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

…… ……

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DEDICATION

To Faith Eneole Ogidi – my beautiful daughter

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Glory belongs to God who sees the intents of a mans heart, life up the humble, and debases the proud. In Him is the fullness of all knowledge. Without Him, this research would have been a mirage. Once again, by Him, I have lept over a well.

My earnest gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr Joshua A. Adebayo without whom this work would not have been. For all his time despite his very tight schedule and for all the guidance and encouragement, I say thank you Sir, may God also stand by you. “Honour as specified by God Himself, should be given to whom it is due”. Therefore, my memory will not fail to remember my warm and ever close aunty and fried, Mrs. M. Igoche who always encourages me. God’s light will continuously shine on you.

My gratitude also goes to Dr. Gbenga Ibileye who proffered suggestions to enhance the quality of the work. My lecturers and friends, Dr. Dili Ofokwu, Dr. Folashade Frank and my colleagues especially, Mr. Butari (Lecturer) at Kaduna Polytechnic, Mrs. Kemi Aliyu of Christ Ambassadors College, Kaduna, Mrs. Michelle Mahdi of F.G.G.C. Gombe, for their encouragement.

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ABSTRACT

English language is widely spoken across the globe. Igala language is not that favoured. It is spoken locally in its geographical location. This research studies the two languages comparatively. The notion of comparative analysis is essentially aimed at establishing, the possibilities of differences or similarities in any filed of interest. In this research, the comparison is aimed at establishing the points of divergence and convergence in an international (English) and locally spoken language (Igala). Firstly, the theory of grammar universals proposes that all languages whatever their composition and disposition, are structurally and semantically identical. Secondly, the notion of the universality of morphology in the same vein, proposes that there exist the concept of morphemes and morphological processes in all languages of the world. These claims account for the reason why this research, looks at morphological processes as used in both languages. The researcher examines the notion of morphological processes in Igala. To establish what processes are employed and how the processes occur in English. It is based on this comparison that data was generated for analyses on the findings of the research. The researcher used the concept of Halliday's (1975) scale and category theory, and Nida's (1949) six principles for identifying morphemes in the study of both languages, after which conclusion were drawn.

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Language is very important to man and his environment. It has pulled a lot of concern from time past, till date – hence the birth of the field of linguistics. Here, languages are studied scientifically for obvious reasons. It is most fundamental to human communications and existence. It does not occur haphazardly De Saussure (1959: 7–11) but demonstrates patterns; it is innate abilities that result in formed grammatical sentences. It is purely attributable to humans "... a system of voluntary produced symbols", Sapir (1921). The importance of language therefore cannot be overlooked. It cannot be separated from individual and society. Language is an embodiment of speech through which the lives and experiences of individuals in the society are expressed.

Every language of the world has a set of specified rules that must be observed by the users to enhance understanding. These sets of rules are the concern of linguists. Hence the classification of language arms

according to the tenets of these rules – syntax, phonology, semantics, pragmatics, morphology etc.

1.1 THE IGALA LANGUAGE

History Of The Igala Orthography And Dialect

The *Igala language* was committed to writing at about the mid 19th century by Clark (1848). This was closely followed by the work of Rev. Koelle - Polyglotta Africana (1854), and Bishop Ajayi Crowder. All these initial efforts were written wordlist, which were compared with their English counterparts. The first known Igala Primer was published by Rev. A. G. Coomber. Akinkugbe (1975, 78). This also contributed to Igala language studies. His work was a comparative work on Yoruba, Itsekiri and *Igala*.

Despite all the studies on *Igala* the issue of which orthography is best and should be used became a controversy, until the resolution '7' (1984) after the national seminar. Igala like other languages of the world, comprises of various dialects. Though no known work has been done on the dialects of *Igala, experience,* interactions as an indigenous speaker of the language and works as presented in dissertations and books confers the authority to so distinguish. Further, Furgerson and Gumperz (1973: 94-95) expressed in the book, Language and Language Learning, An Edinburg Course in Applied Linguistics, that, any set or language

that shares at least a feature or combination of features, qualifies to be dialects of the same language.

Igala is spoken far beyond her political boundaries of the eastern part of Kogi State (Idoma, Nsukka), western Igbo (Lokoja, Etsako, Ebu, Asaba etc). The speakers occupy the bulk of the territory within the lower Niger basin and are surrounded by the rivers Benue and Niger respectively. They are also bordered by the Northern part of Onitsha, through the confluence, to the North-east of Benue, terminating at Amagede around the Igala Agatu boundary.

Akinkugbe (1978), classifies *Igala* as one of the Yoruboid branches. Obviously, there exist some similarities between *Igala* and Yoruba.

Igala	Yoruba	English
Owo	Owo	Hand
Omi	Omi	Water
Oko	Oko	Husband
Alu	Enu	Mouth etc.

Armstrong (1953), likens Igala and Yoruba relationship to that of English and German, and English and Latin. However described, they (Yoruba and Igala) all belong to the Niger-Congo family. Consider the following

diagrams as classified by Greenberg and cited in Galadima (1977) and Akinkugbe.

Diagram 1 – Akinkugbe (1978)

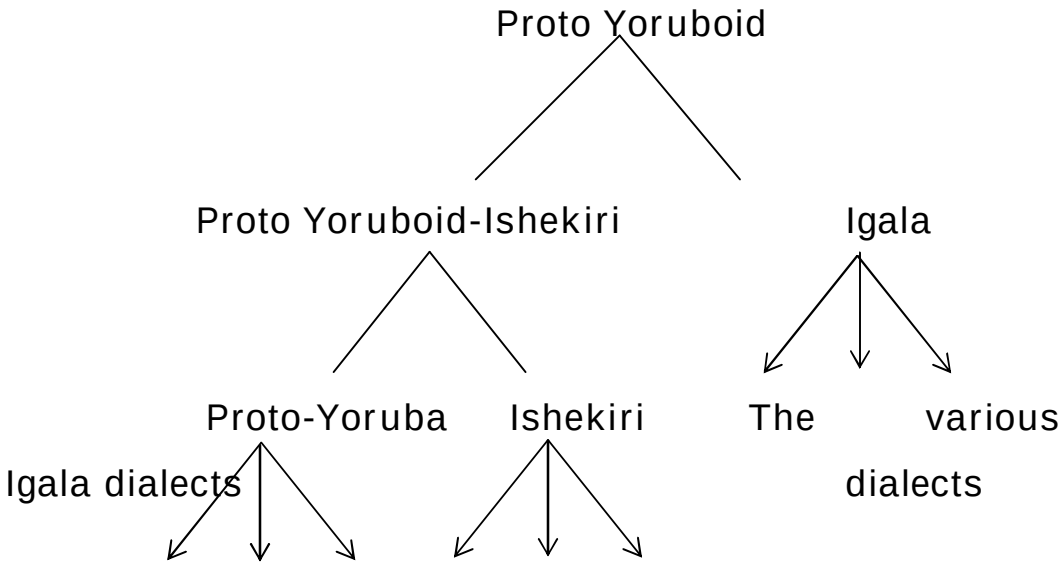
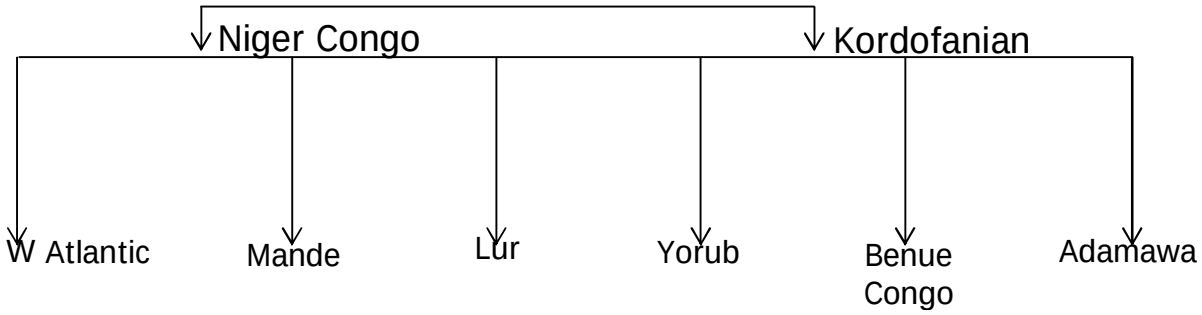


Diagram 2 – The Niger-Kordofanian

Niger – Kordofanian



Igala, like other languages of the world, comprises various dialects:

i. *Ogugu*

ii. *Dekina*

iii. Idah

iv. Anyagba

v. Ankpa

vi. *Ife*

vii. *Amaka*

viii. *Ette*

ix. *Ibaji* etc.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Morphology as an arm of linguistics is best equipped to solve any argument about language orthography or processes. Therefore, the study of the contrastive or comparative analysis of languages, serves as the tool by which such arguments are resolved.

The research studies, English and Igala languages respectively, via the linguistic tool (aspect) of comparative analysis, to establish how Igala can demonstrate morphological processes comparable with that of English. To this effect the research asks the questions listed below:

i. Do Morphemes or Morphological processes determine how some words are formed (derived and patterned) in Igala?

ii. How are inflections realized in Igala? How do Igala derivational and inflectional morphological processes differ from those of English?

iii. Is the universality of morphology as widely acclaimed, also applicable to Igala.

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVE

The research aims at studying the morphological processes of both languages and to investigate the existence of possible differences or similarities as they occur. The aims of this research are the following.

i. To determine how Igala morphemes can be categorized.
ii. To determine where the Igala (part of speech) morphological processes differ or conform to those of English.
iii. To establish how morphological processes affirm the universality of morphology in all languages of the world.

Finally, the objective of the study is to establish where Igala derivational and inflectional morphological processes differ from those of English.

1.4 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

The need to explore the phenomenon language cannot be less advocated for. Several requests and appeals have and are being put forth concerning language studies for obvious reasons – communication, interaction, trade and commerce, etc. Also, the comparative study of any language which is scientific, is very important to the effect

that, it brings about clarity, understanding in learning instances, identification of errors in error analysis, etc. Fries (1957).

This study leaves a wave on whose wings other linguists with interest in the field will spring. It Considers the importance and benefits of a comparative analysis to individuals, schools, communities, especially, pedagogical purposes. More so, the importance laid on the use of indigenous languages in some educational levels like, the primary schools by the National Policy on Education.

The work is geared towards the study of morphological processes in both languages – (English and Igala), establishing areas of agreement and disagreement and to establish whether Igala subscribes to the universality of morphology as widely acclaimed. Also, the theory of the universality of morphology can best be substantiated when languages are compared.

A further motivating factor is that, this work is a maiden of its kind. This aspect *in Igala* has not been researched into vis-à-vis other fields of linguistics – phonology, semantics, and syntax.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

As already mentioned, the study is aimed at studying the morphological processes of both languages in order to ascertain the points of divergence and convergence. The research, therefore, is limited to the investigation of some morphemes of both languages – Igala and English. The research focuses mainly on morphology with regards to linguistic processes such as:

i. Approaches to morphological studies
ii. Affixation
iii. Inflectional morphemes
iv. Derivational morphemes
v. Nida's six principles for the identification of morphemes and Halliday's scale and category theory.

In addition to the above listed aspects which are to be treated, other aspects like 'infixation', 'replacives', 'suppletion' and 'calquing' are briefly discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.O INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the related literature on the research topic (morphology). The focus of the chapter is to examine the views of other linguists on the research topic. The chapter firstly examines related literatures used for the research, and secondly, examine aspects of morphology in both languages as presented in the course of the review.

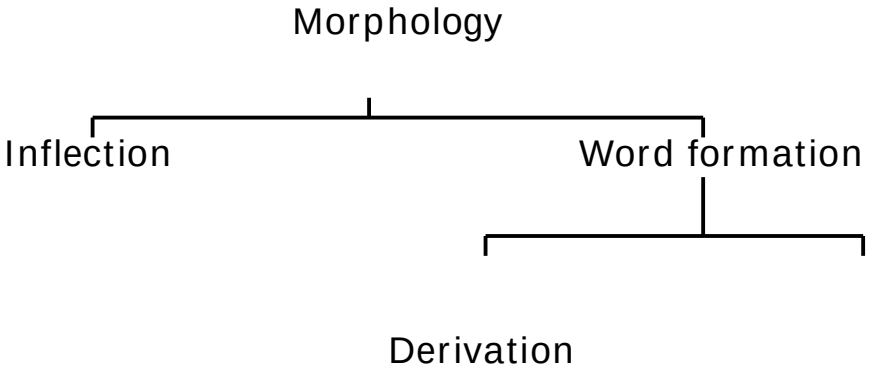
2.1 MORPHEME

A morpheme as described by Matthew (1974) and some linguists, Givon (1937), Joseph (1992), Yule (2000), Haspelmath (2002), etc, is easily identified from its phonological shape and semantic impressions in any given context. Matthew defines it as “a single or primitive unit of grammar, the ultimate basis for the description of the primary articulate”. Tomori (1999:25) defines it as, “a single or primitive unit of grammatical meaning”. Fromkin and Rodman (1978:142), see the morpheme as the minimum linguistic unit in which there exists an arbitrary union of sound and meaning and which cannot be further analysed. Haspelmath (2002) gives two

workable definitions of what a morpheme is. One is more syntactically inclined and the second is morphologically inclined. It expresses the fact that the morpheme is the 'smallest meaningful linguistic constituent of linguistic expression'.

Morphological studies deal with the different approaches in the identification of morphemes, and the relationship between them. Bauer (1983:34) charts this relationship as follows:

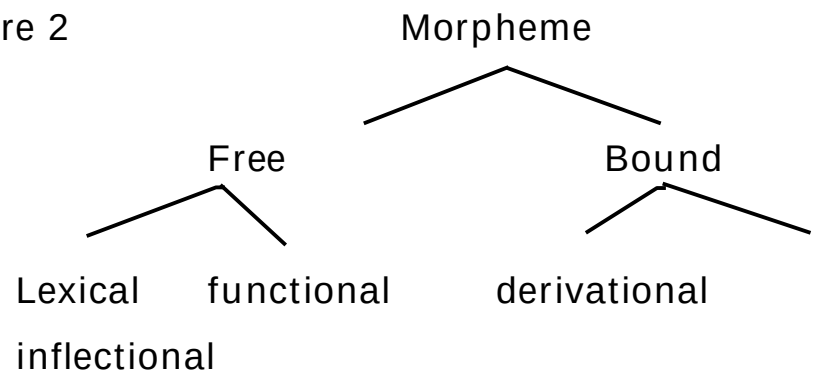
Figure 1



The above demonstrates that, morphology is mainly concerned with morpheme and the categories as illustrated above.

Yule (1995:62) cited a simpler illustration of morphological relationship as demonstrated in the chart below:

Figure 2



Yule (2002), opines that the chart is a useful way to remember the different categories of morphemes, for example, the sentence: 'The girl's wildness shocked the teachers' 'The' (functional) 'girl' (lexical) –'s' (inflectional) 'wild' (lexical) '-ness' (derivational) 'shock' (lexical) '-ed' (inflectional) 'the' (functional) 'teach' (lexical) 'er' (derivational) 's' (inflectional). He categorizes the different types of Morphemes morphology is concerned with.

Tomori (1999:21), describes morphology as the study of the internal structure of words and the rules that govern the formation of words in a language. Sapir (1921), acknowledges that, the significant elements of language were words, and one of the ways of examining this, is to focus on one word as a central unit. Luel (1985:60), sees morphology as a process of investigating word forms in language generally. Fromkin and Rodman (1978:141), define the term as the study of the internal

structure of words and the rules by which words are formed.

We therefore can suggest, considering the several view points of the above mentioned linguists and others not mentioned, that the following are morphological statements;

English

i. Her child + ren like + bake + d Bread

ii. Tom dis + like + s Un + paid - debt.

iii. He walk + s boy + ish + ly - boyishly

Igala

i. *Ab + imoto na r + ule* (The child + ren are run + ning)

Abimoto – children

Na – are

Rule – running. Translates for:

[a] The children are run. But meaning:

[b] The children are running

ii. *Oje + k' + hi + ch' + Okpo + okpo* (The food he/she cook + ed is full of lump + s).

Oje – com/cassava meal

Ki – he/she

Hi – cooked

Okpo-okpo – lumps. Translates for:

[a] The food he/she cooked is lump-lump, but meaning:

[b] The food he/she cooks is full of lumps.

iii. *A + kp + eja le a wa i* (Here come + s the fish + er man).

A' [-er] – doer (of an act)

Kp' - kill [er]

Eja - Fish

Le – the

A – is

Wa – come. Translates for:

[a] That is the killer of the fish coming. But means

[b] Here comes the fisherman

The examples above confirm the fact that every word in every language is composed of one or more morphemes, Fromkin and Rodman (1978).

Schleicher (1859), distinguishes morphological sound, form and meaning and a number of 'priori' possible forms: 'Affix', 'infix', 'stem' and how they combine. Matthew (1994), and Mugdan (1994) share the same view but use different analytical frameworks which stipulate that morphology is a science of shapes in the way of geomorphology (Morphology was likened to the

earths physical features). Mugdan (1994), lists the shapes a word can assume as:

i. Sound or phonological shape
ii. Letters or orthographic shapes
iii. Semantic and Morphological shapes

The above illustration only affirms the relationships that exist between morphology, semantics and phonology. Consider the following words in paradigmatic relations.

English	talk	talks	talking	talked
	Cry	cries	crying	cried
	Bake	bakes	baking	baked, etc.

The bound forms ‘s’ ‘ing’ and ‘ed’ express the same sense in all the forms cited above. But in the structures, ‘sister’, ‘brother’, ‘farmer’, ‘teacher’, they can not be so expressed. While the ‘er’ in ‘farmer’ and ‘teacher’ indicates the ‘doer’ of an act, it is not applicable to the [-er] in ‘sister’ and ‘brother’. It is not phonologically and morphologically possible to alter any of these two. Such attempt will alter the sense or meaning of the word.

Also, the Igala affixes (bound forms) ‘abo’ and ‘abi’ constitute the same meaning (the notion of more than one) when attached to forms;

i. *Imoto* (Child) - *Ab’imoto* (Children / infants)

ii. *Igbele* (Young girl) - *Ab’igbele* (Young girls)

iii. *En’ekele* (man) - *Ab’ekele* (young men) etc.

However, as elusive as a morpheme may be as expressed by Matthew (1994), it yet remains the lowest grammatical unit in ranking, lower than the ‘word’. This categorization does not reduce the relevance of morphemes. Haspelmath (2002), describes morphemes as, ‘grammatical atoms’. Stageberg (1981), cites three conditions that a form can assume before acquiring the status of a morpheme, these are:

i. It should be a word or meaningful part of a word

ii. It should not be further analyzable without violation to its original meaning; ‘sister’, ‘father’, ‘eggs’, ‘boxes’; ‘*Imoto’*, ‘*abimoto’* etc.

iii. It should recur in different environments with a relatively stable meaning;

go, goes, going

sleep, sleeps, sleeping

je, *ije*, *iyaje* (eat, he eats, will be eating).

lo, *ilo*, *iyalo* (go, she goes, will be going).

(Lexical items are used to indicate tenses in Igala language.)

Yule (2000), also affirms the conditions as proposed by Stageberg (1981) and further proposed the term 'bound' and 'free' morphemes. Bound morphemes depend on other morphemes to make meaningful units while free morphemes are morphemes that can do without other forms. Examples of free morphemes include; boy, girl, box, child. *'oma* (child), *oya* (wife), *otakada* (book), *Igbele* (young girl) etc. Examples of bound morphemes are; 'is, ed, ing, *en*, *re*, *un*, *il*, *abi*, *abo*, *en*, *akp*', *ach*', I', etc. Generally morphemes are grouped into three – 'roots', stems and affixes. Tomori (1982:33-34), and Stageberg (1981) acknowledge 'bases' and 'affixes', but further stipulate that they should fulfill a number of conditions:

i. Be an immediate constituent whose only other (IC) immidiate constitueuent is a prefix or suffix, (il+legal+ly – illegally \) (*akp'ejata* – fish seller) e.t.c.

ii. Be an allomorph of a morpheme that has another allomorph that is a free form; depth (deep), wolves (wolf) etc.

iii. Should be or is a borrowed word and should be a free form-(Memoranda, modus-operandi, microcosm) (*Ochikapa* – Rice, *Ubolu* – ball, *Ischukulu* – School). e.t.c.

2.2 APPROACHES TO MORPHOLOGICAL STUDIES

Despite the different views held by some linguists – Mathew(1991), Tomori (1982), Fromkin and Rodman (1978), Kess (1991), Yule (2000), there seem to be a consensus among them with regards to the fact that there are 'meaningful elements in words' Allerton (1979:50) and Stageberg (1981:83). These meaningful elements can be studied from two perspectives;

i. Downplay the status of the word, and examine the role played by the element in the overall syntax.

ii. Focus on the word as a central unit. Nida (1948:3,4) asserts that morphemes are easily identifiable by different partial resemblance between expressions especially when set in paradigmatic relations;

kill kills killing killed

walk walks walking walked

Ja (fight) *Ija* (he fights) I *ya ja* (he/she will fight) *I ja* (He/she fought)

Hi (cook) *Ihi* (he/she cooks) *I ya hi* (he/she will cook)

Though some linguists only acknowledge morphemes and their sequences, some yet acknowledge the fact that morphology is the study of the description of morphemes and how they are patterned within the word. The stand of the research therefore is that morphemes will be seen as recurrent form which can not be further analyzed into smaller constituents, (Langacker (1974:56-57).

Langacker (1974), further asserts that, identification and morphemic analysis of words should be instinctively apparent or obvious to native (indigenous) speakers, based on the fact that, morpheme is the minimal phonetic succession that recurs with stable meaning. He further identified the base morpheme and classified, 'care', 'humor', 'fear', 'truth', 'harm' etc. as bases and 'ful', 'ly', 'less' etc as affixational Morphemes.

Langacker's analytical method was also employed by Gleason(1961:80-81) in his examination of the Hebrew and also, Kanuri Morphemes as cited in Yule (1985). Haspelmeth (2002) also uses this analytical model (Langacker analytical model), in his examination of German singular and plural forms as demonstrated below:

German Morphemes-Haspelmath (2002)

	SINGULAR	**PLURAL**	
i.	Mutter	mütter	- mother(s)
ii.	Vater	väter	- father(s)
iii.	Garten	gärten	- garden(s) etc.

GERMAN MORPHEM

Hebrew Morphemes – Gleason (1961)

i.	// z∂kartiihuu //	-	I remembered him
ii.	// z∂kartiihaa //	-	I remembered her
iii.	// z∂karnuuhuu //	-	we remembered him
iv.	// z∂karnuuhaa //	-	we remembered her

HEBREW MORPHEMES

The above are the Hebrew Morphemes as studied by Gleason. Despite the conflicting views about morphology

in the 19th century, there exits a point of consensus as demonstrated by all the examples so far citied; there exist, a constant recurring partials – bake bakes baking baked etc.

Other approaches worthy of note employed in the study of morphology are those of Hocket (1954) and Atkinson et al (1982)

Hocket's (1954) three approaches are referred to as,

i. IA - Item and Arrangement
ii. IP - Item and Paradigm
iii. WP - Word and Paradigm

The IA approach though complex, contributed the concept of morph and its' arrangement to morphological studies. 'IP' is concerned about elements and their arrangement according to their relationship within a structure.

'WP' is dependent on word forms and ideas like 'affixes' and 'stem'. It is noteworthy that; the approaches are applicable to morphological analysis and descriptions differently. 'IA' and 'IP' may not be applicable to all natural languages. 'IA' description of morphology is syntax based; it can not handle irregularities; Yule

(2000), affirms this in the statement below – this is further exemplified.

> *We have only considered examples of English words, in which the different morphemes are easily, identified ... what is the inflectional morpheme which makes sheep, the plural of sheep. (Yule 1985).*

REGULAR	***IRREGULAR***
i. Clap - Clapped	Ox - Oxen
ii. Fry - Fried	Man - Men
iii. *Ela* - *Ela* (Meat) (∅ morpheme)	
iv. *Ala* - *Ala* (Sheep (∅ morpheme)	

The review has been able to consider descriptions, definitions, and even proferred explanations on basic morphological concepts and some approaches employed by some Linguists. Other aspects that will be duly examined equally, in the course of this research, are lexical, affixation, inflectional and derivational morphology.

2.2.1 LEXICAL MORPHOLOGY

Lexical morphology can be defined as the study of the forms of the lexeme. Matthews (1991), considers lexical morphology as having two

subdivisions of forms of same paradigm and forms of separate paradigm. He prefers the term lexical formation to word formation. According to him, ‘lexeme is the root word in a distinct class which literally refers to the base form of word’. Lexical morphemes are open class words. They are morphemes of the 'Noun' Adjective' and Verb classes. To harmonize Yule and Matthew's terminologies Lexical Morphology is the level of analysis of lexical morphemes. English language has enriched its vocabulary by two broad processes of lexical formation, Matthews (1994):

i. Compounding – which is the joining together of two existing words to form a compound.
ii. Derivation - Which entails the making of new words out of an already existing one (old one) usually, by the process of affixation. - Wisely.

Root creation entails the invention of entirely new word, usually either initiative of some noise or suggestive by some instinctive feeling of expressiveness. Some examples are onomatopaeic words such as, 'tack' bang' boom' hiss' etc. Composition or Compound as a process of lexical formation occurs, when a word is formed by joining two or more words to express a meaning that could be rendered by a phrase of which, two simple words form part. There are seven types of compounding in English language: Five types are listed below:

a. Compounds formed by prefixing noun to another- kingdom
b. Compounds of Adjective and Nouns - Black board
c. Compound of Noun and Adjective - Penny-wise
d. Compound of Adverb and Noun - Slow-motion

e. Compounds of Adjective/Adverb and Adjective –

Dark-blue.

Haspelmath (2002:13), distinguishes between lexemes and word forms. He sees lexemes, as abstract entities that can be thought of as sets of words and word forms, as forms that can be concrete - Lexical morphology deals with forms of words in the open class - Nouns, Adjective, Verbs, Adverbs and Pronouns Tomori (1982:33), Fromkin and Rodman (1998:94). The notion of Lexical morphology hinges on the theory of the organization of Lexical properties which represent Lexical items, the form and functioning of WFRs. This comprise of DRs (Derivation rules), CRs (Compounding rules) and how they relate with IRs (Inflectional rules). Morphological operations, according to the theory, takes place in one component of grammar – the Lexical component, and that there are specific rules, which account for Morphological facts - WFRs. Scalize (1994:2585), asserts that, the Lexical hypothesis model, fully consistent with the theory was first developed by Halle (1973). Halle answered the question on 'How the morphological knowledge of a native speaker can be characterized. His answer to the question is outlined below:

a. The native speaker has the knowledge about words of his/her own language. (The researcher is that disposed to her language).
b. That words may internal structure (which is one of the concerns of the present research.
c. The structure is giving concatenating morphemes in a certain order. (This is being examined in this work).
d. That certain words are possible but not non-existent.

He also, originated another model of Lexical morphology which consists of sub-components.

i. A list of morphemes
ii. A set of WFR
iii. A filter, and
iv. A Dictionary

Halle's list comprised of all morphemes of a given language and its affixes, with each morpheme represented as a succession of phonological part of segment and given a labeled bracketing. Lexical morphemes are connected with all types of grammatical information. Grammatical items used are labeled with the word class to which they belong. A noun is thus labeled after the lexeme - The noun 'segment' or the verb 'fight' will be accompanied with the information of what

they are - (a noun will be marked N, a verb is marked V). Such grammatical markings, enable WFRs to combine certain affixes to the words: the Noun 'segment' will then, be combined with the affix 'ed' which equals 'segmented', the verb 'fight' will be combined with the affix 'ing' which equals to 'fighting'. The concluded segment will then be 'segment + ed', 'fight + ing'.

WFRs combines morphemes and affixes to form complex words. A consideration of the morpheme 'man' + the affix 'hood' or the morpheme 'girl' + the affix 'ish' or the morpheme fish + the affix 'ing' results to a complex structure of - man + hood - manhood, girl + ish - girlish, fish + ing - fishing. Here, the features of the abstract of the base of the above cited examples, are changed into the feature abstract of the forms, 'man', 'girl' fish' etc. These examples demonstrates a set of formal operations of WFRs, which involves a change of the sub-categorization features of the base.

Halle's theory of the 'filter' comprises two functions in lexical morphology. The functions include:

i. The provision of complex words with idiosyncratic meaning.
ii. It blocks all possible non-existing words as generated by WFRs.

According to his assertion, in his hypothesis of lexical component contains all the actual words of a language and their inflectional ready for lexical insertion.

Halle's (1973) and Aronoff's (1976), assertions on lexical morphology, did contribute immensely to this research. Halle's and Aronoff's contributions were from two different perspectives - Halle's formulated hypothesis stress that morphological processes are morpheme based, while that of Aronoff hinges on the word - word-base. Aronoff's argument was based on his observation of the morpheme and its eminent idiosyncracies. All morphemes do not follow the same pattern, some do not convey meaning while some yet are, irregular. Consider the following morphemes: 'believe, condemn, terminate, perceive, conceive, receive, permit. Likewise in the Igala language, the morphemes *'kpaka'* (strong) when affixed with 'o' to derive the noun *Okpaka* - *O* + *kpaka*, or the verbs *'ja'* (fight), *'ma'* (know) and '*ra'* (prosper) affixed with the morpheme 'u' to derive nouns - *'u* + *ja, 'u* + *ma'*, and *u* + *ra*. In isolation therefore, what will be the meaning of the morphemes, *'u'* and *'o'* respectively?

As inferred by Aronoff (p. 21), the theory formation is based on the fact that, word formation processes are

word based and new words are formed via the application of regular rules to already existing words and both words - new and old are members of major lexical categories. The immerse contributions of Aronoff is helpful to this research for obvious reasons:

i. SFRs based on 'word', must be already existing 'words'
ii. SFRs takes as bases only units that are not smaller or bigger than words.
iii. The input and output of WFRs must be members of a major lexical category.

It is important to note that, WFRs are applicable to 'open class words' they do not form new word class. Hence the concern of lexical morphology, includes the following word classes - nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. These will be discussed concurrently in the course of this research.

Some nouns according to Halle (1965), that assume plural forms by changing the base, maintains the regular plural (pattern) morphemes. An example of this, is the voiceless fricative /f/. Here, the base is changed into the corresponding voiced fricatives before the addition of the plural morpheme.

i. House - Houses = /haus/ and /hauziz/

ii. Knife - knives = /naïf/ and /naivz/

iii. Leaf - Leaves = /li:f/ and /li:vz/

Besides these, there is the zero allomorph or zero plural morphemes. Gleason (1980) explains that some nouns do not reflect or show any changes in the singular or plural (forms) morphemes. Such morphemes retain or maintain their original state. In the same vein, some Igala Morphemes do not change in form or meaning:

English

i. Sheep - sheep

ii. Mackerel - mackerel

iii. Salmon - Salmon

iv. Counsel - Counsel

v. Grouse - Grouse

vi. Series - Series

vii. Chassis - Chassis

Igala Morphemes

i. *Omi* - water

ii. *Alemu* - Oranges

iii. *Ebutu* - Dust

iv. *Ala* - Sheep

v. *Ela* - Meat

vi. *Ibe* - Wisdom/Counsel

The above examples show no morphemic difference between the singular and the plural forms.

THE PRONOUNS

The pronouns of English from morphological point of view, can be classified into three. They can be morphologically inflected to reflect their position, functions, gender and number in a given structure.

i. The personal pronouns
ii. The relative pronouns
iii. The demonstrative pronouns

The relative and personal pronouns assume inflections or are inflected according to the function performed in a structure or according to the position retained or maintained. Sometimes, the pronouns occupy or fill the space of subject/object and they indicate descriptive phrases especially adjectival phrases (possessive or predicative case). This can best be illustrated in a tabular form. Below is the illustration as expressed by Tomori (p. 37)

Table 1

Subjective	**Objective**	**Epithetic possessive**	**Predicative possessive**

I	We	My	Mine
We	Us	Our	Ours
You	You	Your	Yours
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Her	Hers
It	It	Its	It's
They	Them	Their	Theirs
Who	Who/whom	Whose	Whose
Which	Which		
That	That		
This	This		
Those	Those		
These	These		

Following Tomori's expression of the English pronoun (p. 37), the Igala personal pronoun is thus tabularized below:

Type	1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person
Nominative	***Oun, 'omi, u, ama***	*Uwe, uwe e*	***Oun, oun, I, u***
Genitive	*e –m – mi*	*e – we - we*	*e - u (e – un?)*
Accusative	***Mi (ame) oun***	*E*	*e, o, o, a*
Dative	*Mi (ame) (omi)*	***E***	*u, oun*
PLURAL			
Nominative	*Awa, awa a*	***Ame, ame me***	*ama, ama ma*
Genitive	*e – wa - wa*	***e – me – ma***	*e – ma – ma*
Accusative	*wa (awa)*	***me (ame)***	*ma*
Dative	*wa (awa)*	***me (uwe)***	*Ma*

The Igala pronouns can be classified into two major groups –

i. The emphatic and

ii. Unemphatic

Other aspects and types of pronouns shall be examined accordingly.

The Unemphatic Pronouns

These often occur before verbs in Igala sentences hence, they are sometimes called the pre-verbal pronouns. They include – *oun, e, i, o o* and u. The

emphatic case, admits the use of conjunctions where two items, are joined by using the conjunction *'kpai'*.

i a. *Igala // uwe kpai ama ki le //.* Translates for :

b. English: you and they should go.

ii a. Igala: // omi kpai uwe ch'a k'ol'ojo Ogwugwu //.

Translates for: you and I are preachers in Ogwugwu. But meaning:

b. English: You and I are preachers in *Ogwugwu.*

The proverbial or unemphatic are used for imperative statements and commands –

i. *Igala: // e kw'emi a lo //.* Translate for:

a. You leave here and go.

b. English: You go away (from here).

ii. *Igala: // Ka nwu ki kwomo na – lo //.* Translates for:

a. Tell him to leave there and be going. But meaning:

b. English: Tell him or her to leave (there and go).

GENITIVE PRONOUNS

These pronouns in Igala are introduced and followed by the possessive adjectives for emphasis

i. *e – mi* - Mine

ii. *e – we* - yours

iii. *e – we de i-* these are yours etc.

iv. *e wa* - Ours

Combined nouns also express some kind of relationships and indicate an idea of possession.

i. *Alu Okpe* - *Okpe's* mouth

ii. *Unyi Omale* - *Omale's* House

iii. *ere-oma* - Child's legs

iv. *owo-ona* - Door's opening knob/Doors handle

The emphatic and unemphatic pronouns differ one from the other, especially in genitive pronouns. Consider the following singular and plural forms:

Singular	**Plural**
Me – my (mine)	*omi* - our
We – your	me – *your*
Un – his/hers	*ma* – their

Dative

The Igala dative does not always make use of preposition between objects and pronouns. Consider the following.

D'ohi mi Answer me

K'ola mi Talk to me

I k' ola mi He talked to me

Mi ileta d a nwu Take the letter to him/her

The English equivalent of 'to' or 'for' is *`un'.*

Demonstrative Pronouns

Igala has two cardinal demonstrative pronouns. They are *e-i* (this) and *e-le* (that). These two give rise to the formation or creation of other demonstratives especially in the case of pluralization. These two though, – *e* – I and *e-le* are used interchangeably for singular and plural objects. See the following illustrations:

i. / / *Igala: e-le ch'onu i'che? ogbo meta? / /*

English: How many are those? Sixty?

ii. Igala: / / *e-le nyo n* / /.

b. English: / / That is not good / /.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

Reflexive pronoun is very productive in Igala as in many Nigerian languages though usage pattern differs. Below are examples in Igala and two other Nigerian languages – Hausa and Yoruba.

Igala:

ia / / *Omi onugo* / /

b. I myself

iia / / *Oun onugo* / /

b He himself. Etc.

Hausa:

ia. *Ni da kaina*

b I myself

Yoruba

ia	*Emi fun ra mi*	-	I myself
b	*Awon fun ra won*	-	They themselves

Another word commonly used in place of *Onugo* in Igala is, the word *'Ototo*',which is also reflexive in nature: *'Omi ototo mi* ?' – I myself ?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

There are only two relative pronouns in Igala and they are equivalent to the English 'who and whose', 'which' and 'that'. The forms 'ki' and 'ku' are used interchangeably.

i. a */ / Ene ku me ka le de I? / /*

b. Is this the person whom you talked about?

ii a */ / Oje ki du gwuna bie n / /*.

b. The food which he or she is cooking, is not well cooked.

Igala has only three clear indefinite pronouns. They are – 'One', which is equivalent to the English 'one', 'E', which is equivalent to English 'you', and *'Ma'*. This is used to achieve passivisation. Also, Igala has four interrogative case and they are: '*Omi'*, *'Uwe*', '*Oun*', and

'*Ele*. While English pronouns remain 'she', 'he', 'it', in Igala, all becomes *'ele'*. See table and example below.

TABLE 1

1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person	4th Person
Omi	***Uwe***	***Oun***	***e ele***
Awa	***Ame***	***Ama***	***M e ele***

Ia. Igala: *// I che ka ke I ka un-uma n //.*

b. English: He said he did not tell them.

VERBS

In English, the verb is one of the most productive forms of inflection. It is inflected for number, case and tense mostly, and the morphology of the verb in any language constitutes a complex process. The English verb utilizes different morphological processes in expressing different grammatical ideas. Here, the notions of tense, number, concord, case etc is established. Examples are:

i. The third person singular [-s] reads, sits, goes, smiles, bakes, walks, beats, etcetera.

ii. The present participle form, the [ing] form: Reading, baking, smiling, writing, walking, sitting, beating, etcetera.

iii. The [to] infinitive: to each, to sit, to read, to walk, etc.

iv. The [ed] form which is referred to as the past form: talked, devoted, basked, married, etcetera. Also, the [en] form, which is the part participle - went, written, given, stolen, gotten, etc.

The allomorphs of the third person singular [s] like the case of the plurals and possessive are the same - /s/, /z/ and /iz/. The [ed] form has three allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned; they are /t/, /d/ and /id/. The past form of irregular verbs as in the past participle do exhibit the same phonological condition or same allomorphs as above - the /t/ sound is used after voiceless consonants. Examples are:

i. parked - /pa:kt/

ii. talked - /tɔ:kt/

iii. baked - /bakt/

iv. walked - /wɔ:kt/

The /d/ sound is used after voiced consonants and some vowels.

i. housed - /hausd/

ii. rolled - /rəuld/

iii. robbed - /rÞbd/

The /id/ sound comes after the same /t/ or /d/ sounds;

i. packaged - /pa:kagid/

ii. rounded - /raundid/

iii. rented - /rentid/

iv. compounded - /kompoundid/

There are also cases of the irregular forms which are commonly known as suppletives or morphologically suppletives, Bloomfield (1933:212 - 218). According to Palmer (1971:118-119), some English verbs show vowel sound replacives -

i. /kum/ - /keim/ - /come/came

ii. /teik/ - /tuk/ - /take/took

iii. /gəʊ/ - /went/ - /went/ - go/went

iv. /a: (r)/ - /wə(r)/ - /are/were

v. /is/ - /wÞz/ - /is/was

Equally worthy of note is the zero allomorph which is still considered an allomorph of the past form [-ed] - some examples are:

i. cut - cut = /cut/

ii. come- came= /kum/ and /keim/

iii. sit - sat = /sit/ and /s t/

iv. take - took = /teik/ and /tuk/

v. see - saw = /si:/ and /sɔ:/

vi. sweep swept /swi:p/ and /swept/

From the above analysis, it is obvious that English language is morphologically composed of inflected verbs. Comparatively therefore, Igala language unlike its English counterpart, uses other grammatical categories to express the ideas of number tense, case. etc. Consider the following Igala verbs in paradigmatic relations.

i.	Igala:	*Gba*	*gba*	*gba*	*gba*
	English:	Take	taking	took	took
ii.	Igala:	*Be*	*be*	*be*	*be*
	English: peeled	Peel	peeling	peeled	

Verbs in Igala can be classified into several groups – the monosyllabic, polysyllabic, and compounds. Verbs are not derived in Igala, rather, morphemes are made to function as verbs. Some examples of the verbs as mentioned above are, Monosyllabic verbs: *'Ja'* – *fight*, *'ba'* – boast, *'fa'* – crawl, etc. Polysyllabic verbs: *'Dabi*' – turn back, '*gworu'* – climb down , '*dachi'* – to sleep, etc.

Compound verbs: *'J' ujeun'* – to eat, *'n' ona'* – to dream, *'g'igo*' – to sight see, etc.

The language like most African languages, mark tense by action. Some of the tenses are:

i The ‘A’ tense: this equates English present continuous tense, expresses future, and illustrates permanent truths and states.

ii the *‘Ma’* tense: this tense is used in proverbial structure.

iii the *‘Fu’* tense. The *‘Fu’* is equivalent of the English present perfect tense, it is sometimes used for emphasize. See examples below:

ia Igala: *Oma le a*

ADJECTIVES

The adjectives of English language are usually inflected in comparative and superlatives forms or degrees. The [er] and [est] morphemes are used to indicate the comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives. Adjectives in natural human languages are usually descriptive words (modifiers) they are all constituents of Lexical Morphology. Not all adjectives of English employ the comparative and superlative degrees, others make use of the lexical items like; 'more' and 'most' to indicate comparative and superlative degrees while some others, make use of suppletion. The morphologically infected degrees of the adjectives are illustrated below:

Table 3: Example one - Adjectives with comparative and superlative degrees.

Positive	**Comparative degree**	**Superlative Degree**
Small	Smaller	Smallest
Fat	Fatter	Fattest
Low	Lower	Lowest
Smart	Smarter	Smartest
Kind	Kinder	Kindest
Great	Greater	Greatest
Happy	Happier	Happiest

Table 3: Adjectives that make use of lexical items

Positive	**Comparative degree**	**Superlative Degree**
Difficult	More difficult	Most difficult
Spacious	More spacious	Most spacious
Beautiful	More beautiful	Most beautiful
Comfortable	More comfortable	Most comfortable

Handsome	More handsome	Most handsome

Table 4: Adjectives that show morphological suppletion

Positive	**Comparative degree**	**Superlative Degree**
Little	Less	Least
Good	Better	Best
Many	More	Most

The above examples are referred to as the irregular forms of adjectives. These display features of morphological suppletion (Tinuoye p. 33-34). Some other forms like the polysyllabic, also have regular forms - cruel, handsome, etcetera.

Cruel Crueller Cruellest

Handsome Handsomer

Handsomest

Comparative adjectives are used in the context of two objects while the superlative adjectives are used in the context of two or more objects. Equally, some other adjectives are outstanding in their right so, are not gradable. Examples are words like 'unique' excellent' etc. Adjectives with Lexical items e.g. ‘more’ ‘most’ as inflections, are periphrastic and exhibit syntactic features rather than morphological - see table 3. The Igala also

exhibit periphrastic features. The words used are 'tule' and 'tumale' example

i. Igala: // *Eju mi a-gane tule* //. Translates for: My eyes sees better. But meaning;

   b. English: My eyes are brighter

ii. Igala: // *E' imoto gbiti tumale* //. Translate for:

   a. The infant (child) is stronger than them all. But meaning;

   b. English: The youngest is the strongest.

The Adjectives of Igala are a reversal of that of English. There are a great variety of Adjectives in Igala, some of which can not be definitely classified to fit that of English. However, here are some classification:

c. i. Descriptive

d. ii. Demonstrative

e. iii. Qualitative

f. iv. Distributive and

g. v. Adjectives for comparison.

Examples are cited below:

Descriptive: *Dudu* - black *Edudu* - blackness *Kpikpa* - red *Ekpikpa* - redness or fairness.

Demonstrative: These are very few in the language, they are: *'ei'* and *'e-le'*. These are equivalent of the English, 'this and that'.

Qualitative Adjectives: These express the notion of number, 'whole – *odukulu'*, 'slightly reduced - *edabu', 'full – eko'*, 'half – ukpereji', etc.

DISTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES

Most distributive adjectives in Igala are achieved through repitation of morphemes or reduplication:

i. Every morning – *Odudu – odudu',*

ii. Different types - *Ojoji – ojoji.*

COMPARITIVE ADJECTIVES

These are very few in Igala language. Some of them are equivalent to that of English – the superlative and comparative forms as earlier indicated: *`er'* - *`tule'* and *'est' – 'tumale'.*

2.2.2 AFFIXATION

Affixation is very important to morphological studies because it acts as the pivot on which morphological processes are realizable. It comprises three other processes: Prefixation, Infixation and Suffixation, Kess (1991:74). Haspelmath (2002: 18-19), described affixes as short morphemes with abstract meaning He identifies four types of affixes and posits as follows:

i. Suffix: follows the base

ii. Prefix: precedes the base

iii. Infix: occurs inside the base

iv. Circumfix: occurs on both sides of the base

Haspelmath (2002), exemplifies with the following languages: Russian, Classical Nahuath, Tagalog, German etc. This research however, shall illustrate with the languages under study only. Prefixation a sub category of affixation shall be treated extensively, because it is the most productive morphological process in Igala language. The parts of word to which an affix can be attached is called the root or base. The affixes as mentioned by Haspelmath is thus illustrated below.

i.	man -	manly	Suffix is 'ly'
ii.	man -	unmanly	prefix is 'un'
iii.	man -	unmanliness	Infix is 'li'
iv.	man -	unmanliness	circumfixes are *'un', 'li'*, and *'ness'*

In Igala, the processes of affixation is productive, especially in the case of prefixation. Infixation and circumfixation does not exist. Except some traces of Suffixation, which are mostly realised through the process of reduplication. Most Igala morphemes are prefixed. For instance, see the under listed words.

Akpiti (Singular) - *Am'akpiti* (plural) - Ants.
Enekele (Singular) - *ab'ekele* (Plural) - men
Tiki (Adjective) - *Otiki* (noun) - Small/smallness
Imoto (singular) - *Ab'imoto* (Plural) - Children

More on Igala and her properties will be discussed extensively later, in the course of this research under the sub-topics inflectional and derivational morphology. Also, prefixation which is the most productive in both languages under study, and a 'sub' of affixation, shall be treated extensively.

PREFIXES

Words and elements in English are not haphazardly arranged. They follow specified word order - prefixes are elements that usually occur before free morphemes to which they are attached and not after. So, in English, we have forms like; 'reappoint', unmarried, disapprove, unmanly, illegal, important, interdenominational etc. The above cited examples are so arranged and not the other way round - appoint - re, legal-il, approve-dis, such arrangements does not exist and is not acceptable in English word order. Prefixes always come before the morphemes to which they are attached. See examples as cited above.

The prefixes of English can also be classified according to the functions they perform in a form or structure. The bound morphemes *'un', 'de'*, and *'dis'* signifies reversion, *'non' 'dis' 'im', 'un', 'ir'*, signifies negation, 'under', *'su', 'mini',* 'out', 'hyper', - indicate degree, 'ex', 'post', 'pre', 'for', signifies time or order, 'inter'-, 'intra'-, indicates location, 'mal', 'pseudo', indicates mistake or elements like, 'anti', 'counter', 'co', indicate an individual's attitude. The above-cited examples shall be enumerated and briefly discussed.

Prefixes as discussed above, are herein classified as follows:

i. prefixes of degree
ii. Negative prefixes
iii. Attitudinal prefixes
iv. Reversative prefixes
v. prefixes of time or order and
vi. prefixes of location

i. PREFIXES OF DEGREE

The prefix of degree tells about the state or status of persons or a thing. Such prefixes include: 'out', 'over', 'ultra', 'super', these prefixes precede morphemes to which they are attached.

ii. NEGATIVE PREFIXES

Some prefixes when attached to words or free morphemes, express the negative, that is they express the meaning 'not'. The morphemes to which they are attached indicate the opposite of their form-negative rather than positive, that accounts for why they are identified as negative prefixes examples are:

Unmarried	-	not married
Insane	-	not sane
Impossible	-	not possible
Illegal	-	not legal
Non-fanatic	-	not a fanatic
Non-conformist	-	not conforming/not a Conformist

The only form of expressing negation in Igala language is the '-n' morpheme. This happens to be one of the very few cases of suffixation in the language. It comes at the end of any form or structure it accomplishes, see the following examples:

i *// U je n //*

b would not eat.

ii. *// I le n //*

b. He did not go.

ATTITUDINAL PREFIXES

Prefixes that express attitude or action or reactions of persons are referred to as attitudinal prefixes. Such actions may be positive or negative to whatever is so directed. Examples are enumerated below:

Re-premand

Co-operate

Mal-treat

Anti-robbery

Re-access

Pro-activist

Pro-communist

iv. REVERSATIVE/REVERSIVE PREFIXES

As the name suggests, it denotes reversal in action or event. The word 'do' for instance, means carrying out an event or action but, a reversal will therefore carry the prefix 'un' - undo. Examples of morphemes or prefixes that express such meanings are: dismantle, decongest, disconnect, de-emphasize, defrost, unroll, dethrone, decode, untie etc.

v. PREFIXES OF TIME OR ORDER

These are prefixes like, former, again, after, etc. Examples include post-poned, pre-war, post-war, fore-armed, fore-warned, ex-wife, re-claim, post-independence, etc.

vi PREFIXES OF LOCATION

These are morphemes that express location with regards to relations to or with other things - trans - s in trans-Sahara, transplant, trans-

Atlantic, intra-, as in intra-linguistic, intra-language, intra-venous, and inter- as in inter-house-sport, inter-national, inter-marriage, inter-play etc.

2.2.3 INFLECTIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Inflectional affixes are usually identifiable in sets of paradigmatic variations, associatable with a particular part of speech like nouns, Kess (1991). Inflections never change the word class of the morpheme to which they are attached. They only show the grammatical function of the word. English only has number and the singular, having zero and plural ending which is shown by a final -s in the written form. Usually, infected forms demonstrate regular patterns. Inflections in English language are limited in number. There are eight inflectional endings in English.

i. Plural and Possessive case,
ii. Adjectives; comparative and superlative case
ii. Four verbs categories - past tense, past participle, the third person singular ending and the progressive.

The allomorphs of inflectional morphemes are equally, equitably regular, (Kess 1991). According to Yule (2000: 77), inflectional morphemes never changes the grammatical category to which they are attached. He further opinions that, after the addition of inflectional suffix, the word to which it is attached, closes no further form can be added again.

The adjective 'fat' taking on the -er suffix became 'fatter'. In the same vain, the root 'boy' takes on -s, and becomes boys, the postulation of linguists like Kess, Yule, Haspelmath, Tomori and so on, is that no other element can further be added or attached to these roots. 'boys' remain 'boys', 'fatter' remain fatter. Morphologically speaking the morpheme is closed after the inflection. Examine the following examples:

i. King - King + dom - Kingdom - Noun
ii. Priest - Priest +ess - Priestess - Noun
iii. Tall - Tall + er - Taller - Adjective
iv. Girl - Girl + s - Girls - Noun
v. Box - Box + es - Boxes - Noun/plural etc

The analysis above shows that, all the original roots despite the additives, still maintained their different word classes, the following sentences illustrates more:

i. The tall girl passed her examination
ii. The taller girl passed
iii. The girl fought the coach
iv. The girls fought gallantly.

Malmjaer (1995:318), asserts that, the inflectional component such as tense, voice and number play important role in syntax. They are called

morphosyntactic categories because they affect the words around them and the words within which they appear. Inflectional morphology are very productive in English. The Igala morphological processes is examined extensively in this work and then, a conclusion with regards to which of the two languages that utilize it more, is drawn.

English inflectional suffixes always close the word after being attached to a root, no further form, (morpheme) can be added. Inflectional suffix comes at the end of a word. Take for example, the word - application. The root is 'apply', the 'cation' after the root 'apply' is derivational when 's' is added to the original form, 'apply' apply + s = applies, the 's' is the inflectional suffix. According to (Tomori 1977), an inflectional morpheme is a morpheme that performs a grammatical function...; this concors with fact that English words are inflected or, tense, aspect, number and case. These are seen in nouns, pronouns, verbs, some adverbs and adjectives. The researcher will attempt an explanation with regards to how inflectional suffixes affect these different word classes.

Bloomfield (1932:222), cited in Aliyu (1999), sees inflections as the outer layer of the morphology of word form. Hartman and Stock

(1973) sees inflections as the process of adding affixes to the base or root of a word to determine or limit its grammatical significance. However defined or described, inflectional morphology, remains the process by which words are inflected according to the requirements of grammatical notion of tense, number, case, and mood. In addition, inflectional suffixes are past tense morphemes. Examples are 'ed', 'd', 'ies', 'es' and 's' - walked, returned, baked, defined, babies, companies, boxes, benches, pens, books, chairs, etc. Allerton (1979:226)

Nouns in English language, are inflected for number. Inflections attached to roots actually tell their states; whether singular or plural.

i. boy /bɔi/ - boys /bɔiz/

ii box /bÞ ks/ - boxes /bÞkiz/

What accounts for the different phonetic forms as transcribed above, is the different or alternate phonetic form. This has been tagged allomorph. Allomorph as described by Haspelmath (2002) is one of the possible shapes that a morpheme can have, depending on the circumstances. Fromkin and Rodman (1978:155), describes the allomorph as alternate phonetic forms. In sum, it can be inferred that inflections are added when all processes of word formation are completed.

2.3.0 DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY

Derivational morphemes have types. This and the class of words to which they can be attached in order to derive other words class shall be treated moderately.

Morphologically, English words can be classified into two different classes.

i. The primary words and
ii. Derived words

PRIMARY WORDS

Words belonging to this group, (primary words) sometimes may or may not consist of a free form. This is largely because some primary words, which are derived, contain more than one bound form. Consider the following examples.

i.	re + tain	=	retain
ii.	per + ceive	=	perceive
iii.	pe + destal	=	pedestal
iv.	con + cieve	=	conceive
v.	ad + mit	=	admit
vi.	de + tain	=	detain
vii.	re + late	=	relate
viii.	con + tain	=	contain etc.

Derivational morphology is the process in which affixes are attached to stems or roots to derive new words. Derivational processes can be class maintaining or class changing. In English, the word class of forms changes from the former to another or a new one when

derivational suffixes are added. Tomori (1977:33) - some examples are:

	Nouns	**Adjectives**
i.	Frost + ty	Frosty
ii.	Health + y	Healthy
iii.	Nation + al	National
iv.	Ragg + ed	Ragged
v.	Hope + ful	Hopeful
vi.	Legend + ary	Legendary
vii.	Friend + ly	Friendly

DERIVED WORDS

Some morphemes consist of single words, these single words are known as, free morphemes. Such words include; 'boy', 'ran', 'sit', 'man', 'read', etc. Usually a derived word contains at least, a root and a number of bound or free morphemes. Examples of such words are given below:

i. Impossibility
ii. Re-examination
iii. Inability
iv. Irresponsible

The underlined elements are bound morphemes respectively. The elements 'im', 'ity', re, ation, in, ity, ir, ible, able, un, inter, al, are derivational affixes - They include prefixes, and suffixes respectively.

The morphemes or root, moveable consist of two free morphemes - root + root: move + able. Likewise, such roots as Housewife, Blackboard, Headmaster, Classroom, Football which are compound words are a combination of morphemes which has remained as a form or one word, as a result of long usage.

House + wife = Housewife
Foot + ball = football
Black + board = blackboard
Black + bird = blackbird
Penny + wise = pennywise

The markers of derived words are easily identifiable in English. Below are more examples of markers and derived words: they include, morphemes that form nouns from nouns, those of nouns from verbs, nouns from adjectives, adjectives from verbs, and adjectives from nouns.

Example 1

Nouns formed from Noun

i. King - Kingdom - [-dom]

ii.	Chief	-	Chieftaincy	-	[-cy]	
iii.	Sister	-	Sisterhood	-	[-hood]	
iv.	profit	-	Profiteer	-	[-eer]	
v.	Trick	-	Trickster	-	[-ster]	
vi.	Priest	-	Priestess	-	[-tess]	
vii.	Star	-	Stardom	-	[-dom]	
viii.	Prophet	-	Prophetess	-	[-ess]	etc

Example 2

Nouns formed from Verbs morphemes

i.	leak	-	Leakage	[-age]
ii.	Sell	-	Seller	[-er]
iii.	Maintain	-	Maintenance	[-ance]
iv.	Employ	-	employment	[-ment]
v.	Lie	-	Liar	[-ar]
vi.	Contest	-	Contestant	[-ant]
vii.	Sail	-	Sailor	[-lor]

Example 3

Nouns derived from Adjectives

i.	Happy	-	Happiness	[-ness]
ii.	Great	-	Greatness	[-ness]
iii.	Mean	-	Meanness	[-ness]
iv.	Sane	-	Sanity	[-ity]
v.	Persistence	-	Persistency	[-cy]
vi.	Brave	-	Brevity	[-ity]

Example 4

Morphemes that form Adjectives from Verbs

i.	Solicit	-	Solicitous [-ous]
ii.	Deceive	-	Deceptive [-ive]
iii.	Surmount	-	Surmountable [-able]
iv.	Space	-	Spacious [-ous]
v.	Admire	-	Admirable [-able]
vi.	Commend	-	Commendable [-able]

Example 5

Adjectives gotten from Nouns

i.	Orderly	-	order	[-ly]
ii.	Rational	-	Ration	[-al]

Broadly speaking, morphological processes are the methods or processes through which morphological rules are applied to elements and thereafter, classified according to verification of analysis.

Igala unlike her English counterpart, has fewer bound Morphemes which are prefixed to roots, to derive words. Like the English prefixes, they are either class maintaining or class changing. While some change from one word class to the other, others indicate change in tense and number:

	PREFIX	**ROOT**		**NEW WORD**
i	*'Abo'*	*Enekele*	-	*Ab'ekele*

Man/men.

ii. *'Ab'* *Imoto* - *Ab'imoto*

Infant/infants

iii. *'Ama'* *Akpiti* - *Am'akpiti*

Ant/ants

iv. *'O'* *Tiki* - *Otiki*

Small/smallness

v. *'U'* *Ja* - *Uja*

Fight/fighting.

Examples 1 through 3 though derived, still retained their word class, though indicative of number (pluralisation). The adjective, *'tiki'* and verb, *'ja'*, after the addition of the prefixes *'o'* and *'u'* change to abstract nouns. Other prefixes in Igala language are: *'e', 'I', 'a', 'd', 'ak-'*, *'anya-'*, *'ach-* etc. The phenomena of suffixation, is not common in Igala language. Suffixation which is a sub-category of affixation is not very productive in the language. The occurrence of suffixation is very minimal. See illustration below:

'Akp' eja-ta' – 'Akpa', one who kills or a killer of fish,

'Eja', - Fish,

'Ta' – seller

'Ak'on'ewn' – 'Ako', one who teachs or a teacher

'one' – someone,

'Eun' – something.

'*Hika-hika'* – quick-quick as in English quickly.

From the above cited examples, it will be fair to infer that, the process of suffixation, as realized in Igala language, entails a combination of lexical items in some cases.

Class maintaining morpheme are morphemes that maintain the former word class, to which it belongs: 'king' noun, 'kingdom' - noun, 'star' - noun, 'stardom' - noun, 'man' - noun, 'manhood' - noun, 'boy' - noun, 'boyhood' - noun etc. The class changing derivational process on the other hand connotes the idea of change. The words to which suffixes are attacked are changed to for a new category: 'solicit' - verb, 'solicitous' - Adjective, 'commend' - Verb, 'commendable' - Adjective, 'computer' - Noun, 'computerize' - verb etc. Derivational affixes are sometimes erratic in meaning and distribution.

Derivational affixes which are larger in number than inflectional affixes, is more productive. Most nouns, take on some inflectional affixes to express plurality but there are a few exception:

i. Mass nouns
ii. Those that co-occur with derivational affixes - ship, -dom, -ling, -let- eer, -er etc.

English derivational affixes can be either prefixed or suffixed and can also be compounded on one another.

(Kess 1991:80) Kess illustrates compounding on one another with the word, 'un-pre-meditated and 'kind-li-ness. Haspelmath (2002) however, prefers to use a substitute of the affixation process, circumfixation for the word un+pre+meditated, and infixation for the word, kind-li-ness.

The end product of derivation process is always resultant in change of the derived word from former to a new category. The function of derivational morphology however is to create new words. Derivational affixes vary in their productivity. The [-hood] of English noun endings are few and new ones are unlikely as are adjectives that comprise of negative prefix [-ig] as in [ignoble] and the suffix [-ose] as in 'jocose', 'verbose'. Unlike the [-ist] [-ize] whose forms are very common and very productive as in 'communist', jurist', 'linguist', and 'centralize' computerize', capitalize. etc Baurer (1988)

Baurer further opinions that, conversation or speech is a derivational process because words in use change their word class without any apparent affixation. Taking the words 'hoover' and 'service' for example, may be 'hoover' as a noun or verb, or `service' as a noun or 'service' as a verb. This process is known as internal derivation.

On the issue of productivity, Aronoff (1982) as cited in Kess (1991:81) is of the view that, the feature of productivity acts with the frequency in determining how words are coined or scrapped from the language. He also pins down the issue of productivity to the willingness of native speakers readings to accept potential words as real words in the language. Using the English affix [-ose] for example, it will be fair to opinion that, reaction of the language users to their affix vis-à-vis the rate of use is largely responsible for its less productivity. The combination of forms (words) especially independent forms is known as compound. In English language forms are combined to achieve compound morphemes. The combined words, usually consist of two or more forms. Malmjaer (1995:319) such words include: bathroom, housewife,, football, blackboard, etc. these words, function as single words and they are treated as such. Compound words 'occupy single grammatical slots in sentences (Bolinger and Sear 1981:62). Sometimes, compound words may comprise more, than two free morphemes, which may be partial or complete: consider this examples:

i. Inter-house-sport
ii. Inter-depended-ness
iii. None-the-less

iv. Truck-pusher

As seen above, in English, a derived word should at least consist of one root and a number of bound morphemes.

Igala derivational processes are productive but more productive is the process of prefixation. The morphemes of Igala language comprise of bound and free forms, while the words are comprised of single free morphemes or a combination of morphemes. This and some of the Igala properties including the processes of inflection shall be treated consequently.

Morpheme identification is possible via the comparison of pairs or sets of utterance, which demonstrates incompetence contrast in expression and content. The analytical procedure adopted in this study shall distinguish the smallest differences of expression that exist in a partial difference of content since the morphemes constitute the smallest meaningful unit in expressions, that are complimentary with any partial difference in a given content arrangement or structure Gleason (1961:52-58), Langacker (1972:56-57). The structural procedure for identification and isolation of morphemes in natural languages, as proposed by Gleason and Langacker, shall not be heavily utilized in

this study. The study seeks to rely on prepositions of Nida (1946), and Halliday, (1961), Nida's six principles as explained and employed by Tomori, (1982:25-30, 46-56) are the sum of the theoretical techniques employed in this research.

2.3.1THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research shall examine some linguistic theories and the procedures adapted by the theorists in the identification of morphemes in natural languages, and their relevance to the research. Also, the techniques employed by both languages shall be examined. A theoretical framework through the electric approach shall be formulated for the presentation, investigation and analysis of data.

The researcher used the procedures or theories propounded by such linguists like, Banathy, Gleason, Halliday, Yule, Langacker, Kess, and Nida. These all subscribe to the fact that morphemes are linguistic units that are segmentable, isolatable and analyzable into meaningful construct. Morpheme identification shall be achieved via the tool of comparison of pairs. The smallest difference of expression that exists in a partial difference of content shall be distinguished. Gleason (1961:52-58) Langacker(1972:56-57) The study shall rely on Nida’s six

principles of identifying morphemes as explained and employed by Tomori, and Halliday's (1961) scale and category theory. The following symbols shall be used to indicate each rank and its constituent parts;

// //	equals sentence boundary
;	equals group boundary
	space equals word boundary
-	Equals morpheme boundary
>	Becomes
VP	Verb Phrase
N	Noun
V	Verb
∅	Zero morpheme

2.3.2 SCALE AND CATEGORY THEORY

Halliday categorized grammar into four crutial subs; they include, 'units', 'structure', 'class', and system. He termed this categorization as 'categories of the highest abstraction'. The categorization evolves round three scales; 'rank', exponence and 'delicacy'. This will be extensively examined and applied to the work. The theory, has been most fruitful in its application to the study of the grammars of natural languages.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The methodology used in any study (procedure) is very important to the research.

> *The procedure section is perhaps the crux of the research report. It is the background against which the reader evaluates the findings and conclusion, Osuala (1982:32).*

The chapter comprises the following:

i. Methodology
ii. Sources of data
iii. Sampling and analytical procedure

The theoretical framework and literature that is relevant to the theme of the research have been considered in the previous chapter. In this chapter we shall present the procedure adopted by the research. The study of any natural language can be approached, using different methodologies, based on the aim of the study. Whatever the case is, language studies can be synchronic, diachronic or comparative. In the same vein, the empirical basis of any linguistic field research of any language, is to investigate and discover the system of the language. Field linguistics is therefore related to

descriptive synchronic linguistics which is aimed at studying the description of concrete languages. This research addresses some aspects of English and Igala morphologies. That is, the investigation of the comparative features of some English and Igala morphologies. Here, the investigation of morphemes, is the main focus. The researcher is not just familiar with the languages under study but, is an indigenous or native speaker of Igala and an L2 (second language) speaker of English. Hence with regards to Igala data collection, the researcher also depended on and employed among other methods, the introspective method, which is partly based on self observation.

Usually, the method of introspection is not plausible or recognized in descriptive approach to the study of language. However, because of lack of sufficient working materials in the Igala, the research drew a bit of inspiration from introspection. However, the research in its field work, depended on materials collected through random sampling as discussed below.

3.1 SOURCES OF DATA

The study is a 'comparative' study of English and Igala Morphological processes. To achieve a worthwhile research, the researcher depended on primary and

secondary sources. These methods were employed simultaneously because there are many related (materials) literature on the topic of research in English but very minimal or almost non on the same topic in Igala. Therefore, the primary and secondary methods was employed as the secondary method alone cannot handle the work of this magnitude.

PRIMARY SOURCES OF DATA

The first source of data collection for this study was by introspection. This implies that, the researcher relied on personal acquaintance with both languages especially, as a native speaker of Igala language. In order to produce a worthwhile work, some native speakers of Igala who are well disposed to the language were used to authenticate the data generated on Igala language.

SECONDARY SOURCE OF DATA

The secondary sources of data consist of written records which include the use of textbooks, dissertations, and pamphlets. Some of the written materials collected on Igala were wordlists as proposed by some authors like *Omeja* (1984). Besides these, consulted equally are the Igala Bible, tape recorded music and sermon.

Data collected on English were gotten from textbooks. They are listed accordingly under the bibliography. Most of the books used in this research work, were by English authors as English itself, is the base from which the research draws its inspiration. The only comprehensive and worthwhile text on Igala is titled, A New Look at Igala Language by Etu, (2002) unpublished. The books most used in this study include those of Matthew (1991) Fromkin and Rodman (1978), Tomori (1982) Joseph (1991), George (2001) and Haspelmath (2002).

3.2 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUE

For a work of this volume, a single technique will be grossly inadequate. Therefore, a combination of techniques was employed coupled with the researcher's 'introspection' as discussed in 3.1. An unstructured interview technique was also used. The researcher used the unstructured interview technique to gather relevant linguistic data from informants.

3.3 SAMPLING AND ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

The research is based on the comparison of two languages – Igala and English. As a comparative work therefore there is need for a clear dichotomy between the structures of both languages under study, especially with

regards to the points of divergence and convergence. Hence the data we used in this work were initially presented in Igala language, compared with forms and structures of the target language to ascertain points of disparities and similarities. The data was then, finally transmitted into the target language (English). The study is aimed at providing answers to our research questions. In order to answer these research question accurately, the researcher used Nida's six principles of identifying morphemes to examine some morphemes in both languages – English and Igala. Principle one was therefore, used for sampling. Principle one shows forms that exhibit common semantic distinctiveness and identical phonemic forms. In addition to Nida's six principles of identifying morphemes, the researcher used comparison and translation method.

The English [-er] in most cases shows common semantic distinctiveness and same phonemic forms. On the contrary, the Igala morphemes *'ak*'(o)', 'e'(l)', 'agw'(e)', 'agw'(a)' which equate with the English [-er] meaning doer of an act, exhibit only same semantic distinctiveness but different phonemic forms. Below are some examples:

	English	**Igala**
i.	fighter	*Aj'uja*

ii. farmer *E'luche*

iii. teacher *Ak'on'eun*

3.3.1 COMPARISION AND TRANSLATION OF MORPHEMES

The research establishes that the grammatical features/structure of Igala in some aspects compares fairly well with those of English. According to Halliday's (1961) scale and categories of grammatical description, and Nida's six principles for identification and isolation of morphemes, Igala like English is described hierarchically from the level of the morpheme to the sentence.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In chapter two and three, the researcher discussed the theoretical framework, processes through which the data used for the research were gathered, and the methodology adopted. Here in chapter four, the eclectic analytical model as mentioned in the previous chapters, is used for the identification, isolation of morphemes and analysis of some morphological processes of Igala and English comparatively. Comparison and translation are part of the analytical model employed in this chapter. However, data as gathered especially on part of speech and some sentences shall be presented before analysis.

As already mentioned in chapter two, Igala grammatical structure, can in some aspects fairly, compare with that of English. More and detailed attempts to establish the extent to which divergences and convergences occur in both languages, are herein examined. Whatever, the two languages are described hierarchically from the point of the morphemes, sentence units, to the points of the processes they both employ. The 'scale and category' model of grammatical description

as already indicated is used alongside with Nida's six principles, for identifying morphemes. However, every natural language has its unique morphosyntactic rules and morphemic variations, corelatable with a parallel system of variations in environment. These variations which are a series of change in the shapes of linguistic forms matched with a series of change in position, are common in English morphemes but almost non-existent in Igala morphemic system. However, morphological processes as present or absent in both languages shall be discussed.

This research establishes the fact that Igala morphological processes do not subscribe to inflections, rather, it lends itself to derivational processes such as:

i. Prefixation
ii. Compounding
iii. Reduplication
iv. Calquing etc.

4.1 INTERPRETATION OF DATA (ENGLISH AND IGALA MORPHEMES)

Igala unlike English employs the use of derivational processes mostly. However examined, despite the similarities in some processes, there still exists some distinct uniqueness of morphemes in both languages.

Below are some data presented for analysis: some Igala verbals.

1.	**English:**	fight	fights	fighting	fought
	Igala:	*Ja*	*Ja*	*Ja*	*Ja*
2.	**English:**	Talk	Talks	Talking	Talked
	Igala:	*Ka*	*Ka*	*Ka*	*Ka*
3.	**English:**	Burn	Burns	Burning	Burnt
	Igala:	*Jo*	*Jo*	*Jo*	*Jo*
4.	**English:**	Read	Reads	Reading	Read
	Igala	*Gba*	*Gba*	*Gba*	*Gba*
5.	**English:**	Walk	Walks	Walking	Walked
	Igala:	*Ule*	*Ule*	*Ule*	*Ule*
6.	**English:**	Cook	Cooks	Cooking	Cooked
	Igala:	*Hi*	*Hi*	*Hi*	*Hi*

The above listed morphemes in paradigmatic relations, are further illustrated in the following structures.

7. a. **Igala:** *// Ma j'uja //* literarlly, this structure translates as: 'They will fight a fight' but meaning,

   b. **English:** They will fight

8. a. **Igala:** *// Ma na j'uja //*. Literarlly meaning, 'they are

fighting a fight', but, meaning,

b. **English:** They are fighting

9. a. **Igala:** *// Ma ja (ma j'uja) //* Translating into English

as; 'they fought a fight' but meaning,

b. **English:** They fought

10. a. **Igala:** *// Ma a k'ola ololo //* Translate into English as; They talk word too much. But meaning,

b. **English:** They talk too much

11. a. **Igala:** *// Ma na k'ola l ugb' oun //* Translate

into English as; They are talking word about it. But meaning,

b. **English:** They are talking about it

12. a. **Igala:** *// Ma k'ola l ugb' oun //* Translate into

English as; They talked word about it. But meaning,

b. **English:** They discussed about it

13. a. **Igala:** *// Ma che k'ola l ugb' oun //* Translate

into English as; They did talk word about it. But meaning,

b. **English:** They did discuss about it

14. a. **Igala:** *// F'egbe gw' jo //* This literarlly translates for; 'lite the bush'. But meaning,

b. **English:** Burn the bush

15. a. **Igala:** *// Egbe le, na jo //*

b. **English:** The bush is burning

16. a. **Igala:** *// Ma f'ebge le gw' jo //*

b. **English:** They have burnt the bush

16. a. **Igala:** *// Ma f'ebge le gw' jo //*

b. **English:** They had burnt the bush

17. a. **Igala:** *// I ch' agb'otakada hika* //Translate as;

He usually reads book fast. But meaning,

b. **English:** He reads fast

18. a. **Igala:** *// I nagb' otakada (I'ugb') ohiaula Igala//*

b. **English:** He is reading a book about Igala history

19. a. **Igala:** *// Ma ki, ma hi oje un El'ojo //*

b. **English:** They said they will cook for El'ojo

20. a. **Igala:** *// I na hi oj' emi* //Translate as; She/he

is cooking cornmeal mine. But meaning,

b. **English:** She/He is cooking my food

21. a. **Igala:** *// Ma f ‘ oje le hi me //*

b. **English:** They have cooked the food

22. a. **Igala:** *// I f'' oje le hi me //*

b. **English:** He had cooked the food

23. a. **Igala:** *// Ma l’ule (le) //*

b. **English:** They will walk

24. a. **Igala:** *// Ma na l’ule //*

b. **English:** *They will be walking*

25. a. **Igala:** *// Ma l'ule le //*

b. **English:** They walked away

26. a. **Igala:** *// I f'oje le hi me //*

b. **English:** He/she (had) cooked the food

The morphemes as analyzed in paradigmatic relations and sentences above, shows that English makes use of inflections and vowel replacives to express grammatical notions of tense in it's verbal class, Igala is not that inclined. Rather, she leans on lexical items or pre-verbal elements to express tense. Therefore, it can be expressed that, Igala verbals are not morphosyntactic and does not mostly show morphemic variations and a syntactic function with regards to the indication of tense, case, and number.

IGALA PRONOUN SYSTEM

The pronoun system of Igala does not make provision for gender and case distinctions. This is expressed in sentences 17(b) and 22(b) respectively, 'I' represented he in 17(b), and 'she' in 22(b) as illustrated above. Igala makes use of 'oun' 'u' 'i' which are equivalent of English 'he' 'she' 'it'. Below is a tabulated illustration of Igala pronouns and some exemplification:

Igala Pronoun System

Type	**1st person**	**2nd Person**	**3rd person**
Nominative	*Oun, omi, u, ama*	*Uwe, uwe e*	*Oun, oun, I, u*
Genitive	*E – m – mi*	*E – we – we*	*E – u(e – un?)*
Accusative	*Mi (emi) oun*	*E*	*E, o, o, a*
Dative	*Mi (emi) (emi)*	*E*	*U, uwe*
Plural			
Nominative	*Awa, awa a*	*Ame, ame me*	*Ama, ama ma*
Genitive	*E – wa – wa*	*E – me – me*	*E – ma – ma*
Accusative	*Wa (awa)*	*Me (ame)*	*Ma*
Dative	*Wa (awa)*	*Me (uwe)*	*Ma*

All nominative pronouns can be used as subjects but can be occasionally and rarely used as objects of emphasis. Examine the under listed sentences:

i. *// E che lui omo?//*

Did you see him/her there?

ii. *// E che n'owo we d'un?//*

Did you give him / her yourself?

iii. a. // *E che n' eju we li* // Translate into English as;
Did you see it with your eyes? But meaning,
b. Did you see it yourself?

NOUN

The convention of Igala nouns (proper, common, abstract, descriptive, action nouns), conforms with that of English; all the rules that apply to proper nouns in English strictly apply to that of Igala including the notion of capitalization. All proper nouns in Igala begin with capital letters. Examples are:

Ele - ojo - Gift of God / God's gift - human name
Adejo - Slave of God / God's servant - human name
Ojonegon - God has no equal - human name
Ogwugwu - name of a town

Most common nouns in Igala are disyllabic. Some equally have more than two syllables. Consider the following:

'Obe' - Knife
'Olu' - Sun
'Ategwu - Uphill
'Ugane' - Sight etc.

Abstract nouns in Igala can be grouped into two, disyllables and three syllable nouns. Some are known as the primary abstract because unlike the others, they are not gotten from already existing forms; they stand on their own. The following as used in sentences – are primary abstract nouns. 'Ura - prosperity, 'obata' - suffering.

27 a. **Igala:** *// Onobule i' a j'ura na-na //* Translate into English as; Women this is prospering greatly. But meaning,

b. **English:** This woman is a prosperous woman

28 a. **Igala***:* *// Ene le ach ' obata gbalii //* Translate into English as; Person that is suffering seriously. But means

b. **English:** That person is experiencing difficult times

Primary abstract nouns are very few in the language. Below are some examples of the second category of Abstract Nouns (ABN) which are gotten from other formation.

i. Gane (v) to see - Ugane (ABN) sight

ii. Chimuu (Adj) quite - Ochimuu (ABN) quietness

iii. Jo (v) burn - Ejo (ABN) burn/(2 burn)

iv. Mi (v) breath - Imi (ABN) breath

Descriptive Nouns

This category of nouns has to do with the description of persons or events. Descriptive nouns are usually formed from already existing structures or nouns. The prefix ‘ene’ shortened to en' after applying the process of elision is attached to the forms. Some examples are:

Ejumomi (N) Pity - *Ene jumomi* (DN) a piteous person

Uja (N) Fight - *En'ajuja* (DN) fighter

Okpokpa (N) Righteousness- *En'okpokpa* (DN) a righteous person

ACTION OR POLYMORPHIC NOUNS

This category of nouns is formed from common nouns. The category also conforms to the rules of the English gerund except that, Igala gerunds, are made up of nouns

29 a. // *Oji e-ji un yo n* //

b. Theft stealing is bad / not good. (His act of stealing

is bad)

30 a. *// e-ji un yo n //*

b. Stealing is bad.

31 a. *// Ola e-ka un tabale //*

b. His talking is much. (He talks too much)

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Again this class of noun conforms to that of English. Here you have a name or an item, representing a group. Consider the following:

Collective nouns – *'ado'*- heap, *'oti*' - sheaf,

'Uche' - many different / group

'Ile' - very large number / world

Unlike English that has large number of collective nouns ranging from the animate to inanimate, the Igala has very few. See examples below:

32 a. *// 'Uche a' imoto ki wa ch'edudu //*

b. The group or class of children that came are black.

33 a. *// Uche kaa na tido //*

b. Some group (of people) were dancing.

34 a. *// Ile che wa un ujeju //* (The world did come for

the conference)

b. The conference was well attended.

Other examples are:

Ad'uchu	-	a heap of yams
Ad'elanyi	-	a heap of sand
Ad'okwuta	-	a heap of stones
Oti - oka	-	a bunch of millet
Oti - okili	-	a bunch of guinea corn

The morpheme 'ado' can also be used for items like, millet, maize, etc.

COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Again, this conforms to the English rule. Countable nouns are things that can be itemized while uncountable nouns are non-intermizable things. Below are some examples:

	COUNTABLE	**UNCOUNTABLE**
i.	*Am'apiti - ants*	*ochikapa - Rice*
ii.	*Am'oma - children*	*omi - Water*
iii.	*Abobule - women*	*Elanyi - Sand*

Apart from the consideration of Igala nouns as listed above, they are set in paradigmatic relations below:

i.	**ENGLISH:**	Ant	-	Ants
	IGALA:	*Akpiti*	-	*Am'akpiti*
ii.	**ENGLISH:**	Child	-	Children
	IGALA:	*Imoto*	-	*Ab'imoto*
iii.	**ENGLISH:**	Woman	-	Women
	IGALA:	*Onobule*	-	*Ab'obule*
iv.	**ENGLISH:**	Goat	-	Goats
	IGALA:	*Ewo*	-	*Am'ewo etc.*

Worthy of consideration also, is the English possessive which is indicated in Igala by three major lexical items (morphemes):

'eun' - his

'ewa' - ours

'ema' - theirs.

Aside these, lexical items are used to express possession. These are exemplified below:

35 a. **IGALA:** *// Akara ey'oma //* (Bean cake child). But means;

b. **ENGLISH:** The child's bean cake

36 a. **IGALA:** *// Unyi (le ch' ey') om'igbele I //*

(House girl). But means;

b. **ENGLISH:** The girl's house.

37 a. **IGALA:** *// Oko ma (oko ch'ema)//*
(Money theirs). But means

b. **ENGLISH:** The money is theirs

The inflectional morpheme [-s] equates the Igala 'Abo'. All the possessive morphemes of English, is represented in Igala by inflectional prefixes. This implies that, Igala has no supletive elements in her morphological processes and she subscribe to inflections differently. Igala uses prefixation while English uses suffixes - '*imoto* - child, *'ab'imoto'* - children, *'oma'* - infant '*am'oma* - infants', *'enekele* - man, *'ab'ekele* - men'.

The above analysis establishes the fact that, there exist more similarities than differences between the English and Igala nominal - as expressed in the pluralization and possessive cases. The pronoun system of Igala language deviates from that of English in gender aspect. The Igala 'I' represents both sexes, unlike English 'she' 'he' and 'it'. 'oun' also represents English 'her' or 'him'.

Equally worthy of note is the Igala plural system. This systematically deviates from that of English. While English uses supletion and suffixation to achieve

plurality, Igala language heavily depend on prefixation. Consider the forms below:

	SINGULAR	**PLURAL**
i.	*Ewo - (Goat)*	*Am'ewo (goats)*
ii.	*Ajuwe - (hen)*	*am'ajuwe (hens)*
iii.	*Igbele - (girl)*	*ab'igbele (girls)*

Some common affixes of Igala plural system include, *'Abo', 'Abi' 'Ama'* etc. When the process of elision is applied to the above listed prefixes, they change or contract to, *'ab', 'ab'* and *'am'.* This can further be exemplified as follow:

Onekele - (man)	*Ab'ekele* (men)
Onobule - (woman)	*ab'obule* (women)
Igbele - (girl)	*ab'igbele* (girls)
Ela - (animal)	*am'ela* (animals)

The methodology of comparison and translation of morphemic forms with accurate meaning have contributed immensely towards the identification and isolation of morphemes in natural languages. However helpful and result oriented the tool of comparison and translation may be, like any academic pursuit, they are not devoid of short comings. Comparison and translation

therefore, is lacking in sophistication and rather naïve, therefore, will not and cannot handle difficult situations. Hence, the research leans on the analytical models of Halliday's scale and category theory and the six principles of morpheme identification and isolation as proposed by Nida.

4.2 NIDA'S SIX PRINCIPLES OF IDENTIFYING MORPHEMES AND HALLIDAY'S SCALE AND CATEGORY GRAMMATICAL MODEL

Both methodologies are applied to morphemic analysis here. The morphemes identified and isolated through Nida's principles, are further analyzed according to Halliday's scale and category grammatical model. The analyzed morphemes will also be used in sentences to show their syntactic and semantic significance. Nida's principles will be followed accordingly.

PRINCIPLE 1

Principle one identifies forms that show common semantic distinctiveness and identical phonemic forms. The [-er] element which in most cases, indicates the doer of an action, has been identified as a morpheme, based on the fact that, the element [-er] expresses, same phonemic forms and common semantic distinctiveness. Such commonality and distinctiveness are expressed in

words like: teacher, reader, driver, singer, baker, worker etc. Since this principle accounts for a doer of an act or performer, it is therefore evident that it will be applicable to all natural languages which will ordinarily subscribe to the principle. Igala like any other natural language conforms to this principle. Though unlike English phonemic form which is attached to the end of the morphemes, [-er] those of Igala, are prefixed to words: 'Ai'uja' - fighter, '*akp'one*' - killer, *'ak'one eun'* - teacher, *'ak'ola 'ojo'* - Preacher etc. The above cited examples are analyzed, isolated and classified into their constituents accordingly.

i. *Aj'uja'* - fighter
aj' - [-er]
Uja – fight

38 a. **Igala:** *// Aj'uja le de //* (or *'En'ajuja'* meaning, fighter).

b. **English:** This is the fighter.

i. *'Akp'one'* – Killer
'*Akp'*['A'] - [-er] doer
'One' - person
'kpa' - kill

39. a. **Igala:** *//ma m'akp'one le du t'unyi-dudu //*

(They put the killer of the person into black house). But means;

b. **English**: They jailed the killer

The above analysis implies that, he/she is a killer, but literarily means, killer of person/persons. Also, it's important to note that, the Igala analysis of doer is sometimes more semantically encompassing, than that of English. Here, the doer of the act is not only mentioned, but the act itself is specified.

ii. *Ak'one-eun* - Teacher
Ak'(o) - doer
'One' - person
'eun' - something or somethings.

40. a. **Igala:** *// ak'one'un le, ch'ek-pa yoyo ololo//*

(Teacher of person (one) the fat very). But means;

b. **English:** The teacher is very fat.

This analysis interprets for, 'one who teaches people or one something or somethings; but means 'teacher of things'.

i. *Ak'ola-ojo* - Preacher
Ak'(o) - [-er]

'Ola' - talk or word

Ojo - God

This translates in English for, Preacher but in Igala goes further to identify what the teacher or Preacher does - The analyzed structure, means, 'A teacher of the word of God - A religious Preacher.

41. a. **Igala:** //*Oya ak'ola,-ojo le ch'edudu kpoli*//

(wife preacher word God the is black to a bad taste). But means;

b. **English:** The preacher's wife is a very dark

Complexion woman.

According to principle one, of Nida's hypothesis, the Igala *'Ak(o)'* can be equated with the English *'er'* - doer. Aside the *'Ak(o)* which represents the English element *'er'* (doer). The element *'e'* is commonly used with the word 'farm' as in farmer *'eluche'*. This translates into English as, 'farmer' but meaning one who farms; '*Agw'ekpe'* translates into English as tapper but literarily means

palm wine tapper or one who taps palm wine. The above discussed can be analyzed as follows:

iv. *E'luche'* - farmer

'e'l' - *[-er]* (doer) farmer - 'eluche'

42. a. **Igala:** *//E'luche le de i//* (Farmer (the) this is).

But means;

b. **English:** This is the farmer

v. *'Ekp*e palm (tree) or palm (wine)

Agw '-er' - clipper or tapper of palm wine - *Agw'ekpe.*

Aside the above mentioned, other forms in Igala language, that connotes, the sense of a 'doer' are 'Ab' ifa' 'Ach'ukolo' 'Ab'ifa' means a diviner, 'ach'ukolo' means a worker. See analysis below:

'Ab'ifa' – diviner of oracle (priest)

vi. *Ab'(i)* - *'-er'* - diviner.

'ifa' - oracle

43. a. **Igala:** *//Ab'ifa le I ch'ene okpakapa n//* (Oracle priest the is not a eighteous person). But means;

b. **English:** The oracle priest is not a righteous person.

Equally worthy of mention under principle one of Nida's hypothesis, is the morpheme *'Atama'* meaning a priest but translates in Igala language as 'One who functions as a priest'. The following Igala morphemes, functions in the above stipulated capacity.

vii. *'ule'* - (walk), *'alule'* - one who walks.

viii. *'ule' - run, 'ar'ule'* - a runner

ix. *'anyi'* - laugh, 'any' anyi - one who laughs

x. *'ilo'* - fear.

ar'ailo - one who fears

These morphemes are further analyzed in the sentences below, showing the word classes of each morpheme as used:

44 a. **Igala:** *// ule e ra n biene //.* The morpheme *'ule'* is a noun. The structure, translates in English as: 'Running his is bad'. But meaning;

b. **English :** His act of running is impressive.

45 a. **Igala:** *// I ya r'ule//* Here, *'ule'* functions as a verb.

b. **English:** He or she runs.

46 a. **Igala:** *// Anyi un nana (biene)//* This translates into English as: Laughter his/hers is too much (impressive). But means;

b. **Englsih:** He laughs too much (impressive).

47 a. **Igala:** *// ma yi // The example 'anyi' is a noun,* while *'yi'* is a verb.

b. **English:** They laughed.

48 a. **Igala:** *// ule e le yo //*. Ule (walking) functions as a noun.

b. **English:** Walking is good or 'the act of walking is good.

49 a. **Igala:** *// l'ule // 'L'ule'* can act as both verb and noun, depending on usage. (The structure can mean a command or a statement).

b. **English:** You walk or you walk fast.

From the above analysis, it is ascertained that Igala morphemes (under principle 1), display the same

semantic distinctiveness but not same phonetic forms as expressed by Nida's principle 1. In Igala therefore, it is affirmed that, morphemes are identifiable, isolatable and analyzable. The data as analyzed here and in the previous illustrations, show that the following are equivalent of the English morphemes (-er):

'Ak(o)' *'Ab(i)'*

'Akp(a)' *'At(a)*

'El(-)'

'Agwu-'

'Ach-'

Principle 2

The morphemes categorized under this principle shows common semantic distinctiveness, but different phonemic forms. This implies that, the differences in the phonemic forms, does not affect the semantic implication of such morphemes. Equally, the differences in forms are accounted for by the law of phonological conditioning.

The English morphemes 'il-', 'im-', 'ir-', 'in-', 'un-' connote one sense (these morphemes express) - the sense of 'not'. Consider the following morphemes:

WORD	**NEW STATUS**	**SENSE**
Legal	il+legal = illegal	not legal

Possible im+possible = impossible not possible

Responsible ir+responsible = irresponsible not responsible

Adequate in+adequate = inadequate not adequate

Common un+common = uncommon not common

From the above analyses, it is ascertained that, the forms ['il-', 'im-', 'ir-', 'in-', 'un-'] though expresses the sense of common semantic distinctiveness, shows uncommon phonetic forms. The words listed below, also expresses the sense of ‘not’:

il + logic + al	illogical	
il + legible	illegible	
il + advise + d	iladvised	
il + mannered	ilmannered	etc.
im + possible	impossible	
im + partial	impartial	
im + practicable	impracticable	
im + measurable	immeasurable	etc.
ir + rational	irrational	
ir + reconcilable	irreconcilable	
ir + redeemable	irredeemable	

ir + relevant	irrelevant
ir + regular	irregular
in + animate	inanimate
in + accessible	inaccessible
in + active	inactive
in + accurate	inaccurate
in + appropriate	inappropriate
un + inviting	uninviting
un + intentional	unintentional
un + impressed	unimpressed
un + important	unimportant

The bound forms as cited above, though expresses the same semantics, connoting the sense of 'not', are explained by the law of phonological conditioning as follows, the element [il-] is used before the alveolar voiced sounds, 'logical and legible' (il + logical, and il + legible); the element [im-] is used before bilabial plosives like - 'possible and partial' (im + possible, im + partial); the [ir-] element is used before post-alveolar approximants, 'rational and reconcilable' (ir + rational, ir + reconcilable); In the same vain, the bound form [in-] is used before vowels - 'animate and accessible' (in + animate, in + accessible), etc. These illustration ascertains the

appropriateness of the law of phonological conditioning in the different forms assumed by the above cited elements.

In the same vain, the Igala exhibit common semantic distinctiveness and different phonemic forms in its use of negative markers. There are two ways of expressing negative in the language - the direct and indirect way. The direct method employs the emphatic and unemphatic which include the markers, 'No' and 'N'. The bound morphemes 'no' and 'n' usually comes at the end of structures. 'No' is the emphatic while the nasal 'N' is the unemphatic. The second way is the use of negative to express positive, and the use of the variants, (morpheme) *'ma', or 'ki ma'.* The two forms, are sometimes used together.

In Igala, the emphatic and unemphatic morphemes 'no' and the nasal 'n' though expresses common semantic distinctiveness, shows different variants /no/ and /n/. Consider the following illustrations.

50 a. *// I ch' omi che no //* (It is I that did it). But means;

b. I didn't do it

51 a. // Me ki je no // (You don't agree). But means;

b. Don't agree (You collective - 2nd persons)

52 a. *// I na je no //*

b. He won't agree.

The emphatic is used especially in denials.

53 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'uwe uka no //* meaning;

b. **English:** I did not mention you' or, I didn't talk about you.

54 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'oun che no //* meaning;

b. **English:** 'He is not the one who did it or, he did not do it.

55 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'ama je no //*(meaning;

b. **English:** They didn't eat it.

The unemphatic nasal /n/ is illustrated in the following data:

56 a. **Igala:** *// U che n //* meaning;

b. **English:** I won't do it.

57 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'oun n //* meaning;

b. **English:** Not him or her.

58 a. **Igala:** *// U ka n //* (meaning)

b. **English:** I won't say it

59 a. **Igala:** *// u ka n //* (meaning)

b. **English:** I didn't say it or, 'I said it'. (In response to verifying an argumentative issue.

The *'ma'* or *'ki ma'* which is used indirectly to express negatives in the language, is mostly employed in proverbial concepts and structures. See illustration below:

60 a. **Igala** : *// Uji oko ki ma gb'afu //*

b. **English:** Male kite does not feel cold

61 a. **Igala :** *// Ukpahiu obuko ki ma, kw'ola iye-un //*

b. **English:** The he-goat got the strength it knows

from its mother.

62 a. **Igala:** *// Ukpeta ki ma gb'ogbe //*

b. **English:** Famine does not mind thinness.

The Igala nasal /n/ which equate the English velar nasal /n/, are used to express regards and salutations:

63 a. **Igala** : *// E le, e gwo ke n //*

b. **English:** If you arrive extend my regards.

64 a. **Igala :** *// Chikokeju de ke n //*

b. **English:** Till we see then. Etc.

Equally worthy of note, is the dual grammatical function of the Igala 'no'. The morpheme ‘no’ which is used to express negative state, is also employed in expressing positive state:

65 a. **Igala:** *// Ich'ulu no //*

b. **English:** The smell is very bad

66 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'ali no //*

b. **English:** The character is very bad

67 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'unyo no //*

b. **English:** It is indeed ugly

68 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'unyo no //*

b. **English:** It is indeed very beautiful.

From the data so far analysed, it can be implied that, variants under principle two do exhibit semantic distinctiveness and phonemic differentiations due to the environment of occurrence.

Principle Three

Principle three indicates forms that are semantically distinct but whose phonemic forms cannot be phonologically defined. This is reflected in some English words which shows some irregularities in their plural state or word class;

SINGULAR	**PLURAL**
Ox	Oxen
Memorandum	Memoranda
Child	Children
Duck	Duckling (smallness) etc.

This principle applies fully in the Hausa language especially in some plural forms, where, there is no specific form. The singular morphemes, when assuming their plural state, change completely;

SINGULAR	**PLURAL**
Bature (Whiteman)	Turawa (Whitemen)
Saurayi (Youngman)	Samari (Youngmen)

This principle expresses the notion of inflection. Here morphemes are inflected to indicate plurality - the grammatical notion of more than one. Therefore, the following variants, /n/, /r∂n/, all expresses common distinctiveness but because of the differences in their forms, are not phonologically definable.

The grammatical notion of more than one is also expressed in Igala. But, Igala language does not make use of allomorphs. The idea of plurarity is achieved by prefixation of (bound) morphemes to words. Igala plural prefixes are listed and exemplified fully below; *'Abo', 'Abi', 'Ama', 'O'*, and *'U'.*

PLURAL FORMS

'Abo' contracts to Ab' as in *Ab'ekele*

'Abi' contracts to Ab' s in *Ab'imoto*

'Ama' contracts to Am' as in am'akpiti

when the morpheme *'O'* is attached to the word *tiki* (small) expresses the notion of 'smallness', while *'U'* when attached to words, changes the class of words to which they are attached automatically - 'ja', to fight (v), *'uja', 'a fight'* (N), *'ba'* to boast (V), *'uba'* 'boast (N). Some examples are clearly outlined in the following sentences.

69 a. **Igala:** *// Ab'ekele wa n? //*
b. **English:** The men did not come?
70 a. **Igala:** *// Ab'imoto na j' uja //*
b. **English:** The children were fighting a fight
71 a. **Igala:** *// Am' akpiti le jo I //*
b. **English:** Here are the ants etc.

The singular forms for the above illustrated are; *Enekele* (man), *Imoto* (Child), *Akpiti* (Ant).

The grammatical notion connoting the sense of more than one as expressed here, do conform to that of English. But some English forms as illustrated above are not phonologically definable. The differences are expressed in their complementary distribution - one cannot occur where the other has.

72 The child<u>ren</u> <u>are</u> fighting
73 Here <u>are</u> the memoran<u>da</u> for the meeting.

As illustrated in the sentences above, both languages exhibit the grammatical notion of agreement (concord).

Aside the differences in the ways pluralization is achieved in both languages, and allomorphs, which does not exist in Igala, it can be emphatically implied that, this principle (principle three) is well employed by both languages.

PRINCIPLE FOUR

This principle expresses the idea of zero morpheme (∅) all words whether singular or plural under this principle, retains the same (shape) phonemic forms but expresses the sense of more than one. Though some English morphemes that come under this principle do exhibit some phonemic change - G<u>oo</u>se - G<u>ee</u>se, F<u>oo</u>t - F<u>ee</u>t, t<u>oo</u>th - t<u>ee</u>th etc. Forms that exhibit constant structural phonological forms are; 'sheep - sheep', 'furniture - furniture', 'information - information', aircraft - aircraft', 'air - air' etc. Hausa also exhibits the zero structure; 'ruwa - ruwa', water, 'toka - toka' - ash. The ovart structural suppletion of vowels as expressed in 'foot - feet', 'goose - geese', all constitute morphemes as propounded by this principle (principle four).

The overt ∅ structure as expressed by this principle is also exhibited in the Igala. The only exception is suppletion which does not exist. Uptill the time of this study there is no known case of suppletion. Examples are listed below:

	SINGULAR	**PLURAL**	**ENGLISH**
i.	*Omi*	*Omi*	Water
ii.	*Okuta*	*Okuta*	Stone
iii.	*Elulu*	*Elulu*	Ash
iv.	*Ebutu*	*Ebutu*	Dust
v.	*Ura*	*Ura*	Prosperity
vi.	*Alemu*	*Alemu*	
	Orange/oranges		
vii.	*Ekete*	*Ekete*	Sand
viii.	*Oj'akpa*	*Oj'akpa*	Corn meal
ix.	*Otakada*	*Otakada*	Book/Books
x.	*Obata*	*Obata*	Suffering etc.

From the above illustration, it can be expressly stated that morphemes in Igala are easily identifiable and isolatable like those of her English counterpart.

PRINCIPLE FIVE

This principle has to do with linguistic forms that sound alike (homophones). Homophonous forms are

identified as the same or different morphemes on the basis that;

i. Homophonous forms with distinctly different meanings constitute different morphemes. Consider the following English forms.

   a. Bank - A river side
   b. Bank - A financial house
   c. Allowed - To permit
   d. Aloud - To speak audibly.

The above examples, are homophonous morphemes, though sounds alike means different things. In the same vein, examples 'A' and 'B' (Bank, Bank) despite the same homograph, still constitute different meanings and different morphemes.

ii. That, homophonous forms that are related in meaning, connote a single morpheme, depending on distributional differences but if otherwise, (if morphemes meaning classes are not equaled by the distributional differences) constitute multiple meanings. The sentences below best illustrate this;

74. He watered the flowers.
75. He jumped into the water. (N)
76. Adamu walked rather briskly (V)
77. Adamu ran down the walk (N)
78. He eats well (v)

79. He will soon stop eating (N)

The above sentences clearly demonstrate the fact that, there exist some grammatical differences in order of occurrence of the above underlined morphemes in the strings they appear. The morphemes in distribution, assumed the status of nouns and verbs respectively but, still constitute the same morphemes. What is responsible for this occurrence, is the fact that, they constitute the same meaning though equaled by distributional differences. However applicable, this second aspect of principle five, has been criticized by modern linguists. Some argue that, a form appearing in different grammatical classes, should constitute different morphemes and but same lexeme.

The concept of homophonous forms are not restricted to English language alone. The etiquettes of this principle, (principle five), are also observed in Igala. The language exhibits homophonous forms with same homographs and yet constitute different meanings respectively.

i. *Oji* - Head
ii. *Oji* - Thief
iii. *Edo* - Bravity
iv. *Edo* - Liver

v. *Odo* - Wall

vi. *Odo* - Heart

vii. *Ela* - meat

viii. *Ela* - Fool e.t.c

In the same vein, the second condition of distributional differences which refers to grammatical differences in privilege of the occurrences of morphemes in a grammatical string of sentence, can also be identified in Igala.

See sentences below for better clarification.

80 a. **Igala:** *// Adigo f'oji eun gwe me //*

b. **English:** Adigo has washed her head.

81 a. **Igala:** *// Oji Adigo ch' egwe //*

b.**English:** Adigo's head is washed.

82 a. **Igala:** *// Edo a w'osuma //*

b. **English:** Osuma has liver problem.

83 a. **Igala:** *// Edo e'je ch'ogwu e yo //*

b. **English:** Its rewarding to be patient.

84 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'edo no, I n'owo kp'idu? //*

b. **English:** What brevity, he killed the lion with bare hands?

85 a. **Igala:** *// Enekele de I n'owo kp'ejo. I ch' edo*

no// (this is a man, he used his bear hands killed snake. What brevity!)

b. **English:** What a brave man, he killed a snake with bear hands.

86 a. **Igala:** *// Oga odo kp'Abu i //*

b. **English:** Abu died of heart disease

87 a. **Igala:** *// Ojo a – d'ide eun //*

b. **English:** God guides His own.

88 a. **Igala :** *// Enini ch'ojo, oya e – ne Alilu //*

b. **English:** Today, is the day of Alilu's Marriage.

89 a. **Igala:** *// Janebu f'oma ela bi //*

b. **English:** Janebu gave birth to an inbecile/fool.

90 a.**Igala:** *// Me f'ela hi me? //*

b. **English:** Have you cooked the meat

91 a. **Igala :** *// Afu Osuma t'akpa? Ojo che-gbe //*

b. **English:** Osuma is healed of the ailment? Thank God.

92 a. **Igala:** *// Afu a'ju emi ololo //*

b. **English:** There is too much wind here.

The second condition of distributional differences, which refers to grammatical differences in privilege of the occurrences of morphemes in a given string, (of sentences) can be identified in Igala. The Word 'ane' in a given string can mean 'luggage' at the same time mean floor of a place. Also the Igala word "Idu" can mean Lion" and "he won, or victory", and even a human name respectively. See the following examples:

93 a. **Igala:** *// Ane mi jo i? //*

b. **English:** Are these my luggage?

94 a. **Igala:** *// U lo n, ane ata mi jo i //*

b. **English**: I will not leave, these are my father's property

95 a. **Igala:** *// Agba, d'ane momoh nwu mi //*

b. **English:** Please, show mi momoh's land

96 a. **Igala:** *// Agba, na gwugwu ane //*

b. **English:** Thanks, I will sit on the ground

97 a. **Igala:** *// Me f'ane gba enini me? //*

b. **English:** Have you swept the floor today?

98 a. **Igala:** *// Idu i kp one meta i? //*

b. **English:** Is this the lion that killed three persons?

99 a. **Igala:** *// Apeh f'uja le du //*

b. **English:** Apeh won the fight.

100 a. **Igala:** *// Idu a – rule biene //*

b. **English:** The Lion is a good or terrific runner.

101 a. **Igala:** *// E-du ch'ewa eko du //*

b. **English:** Victory is ours always.

Equally the morphene 'Eju' can mean 'eye' a 'surface', 'condition' 'extraordinary' 'caring' as shown in the following strings:

102 a. **Igala:** *// Eju mi //*

b. **English:** My eye.

103 a. **Igala:** *// Eju mi I kwu i //*

b. **English:** He died in my presence.

104 a. **Igala:** *// Abutu ad'eju t'oya gbe //*

b. **English:** Abutu is a very caring husband.

105 a. **Igala:** *// Eju un a – t'one ola ololo //*

b. **English:** she is a ery critical person

106 a. **Igala:** *// Eju de i? Ab 'uwe le? //*

b. **English:** It's been a long time we saw, how are you

107 a. **Igala:** *// Eju omi I fe t'ele le I //*

b. **English:** This water surface is clearer than that.

108 a. **Igala:** *// Eju oga Oseni I yo n //*

b. **English:** Oseni is critically ill.

109 a. **Igala:** *// Agbe de i? Eju 'n yo n //*

b. **English:** What an injury? It looks bad.

In the same vein, the morphene 'Efu' represents the following: 'siblings' of same parents, (Ogwugwu dialect), stomach, relations or mind. See examples below:

110 a. **Igala:** *// Efu wa I che I //*

b. **English:** He/She is our distant relation.

111 a. **Igala:** *// Osuma I n'efu e yo n //*

b. **English:** Osuma has a bad mind.

112 a. **Igala:** *// Janebu ka ki efu oma ebi a che oya Abu //*

b. **English:** Janebu says Abu's wife is experiencing labour \pains.(travail)

113 a. **Igala:** *// Efu mi, d'ewo am'enefu //(Ogwugwu dialect)*

b. **English:** My brother/sister is abroad.

From the above morphemic analysis, it will be accurate to infar that, (both conditions under this principle), Igala language, quite fairly equate with homophonous morphemes in English. Hence, principle V is applicable to both languages.

PRINCIPLE SIX

This principle expresses the fact that, certain words are not isolatable (Classical fallacy). In English, words like; receive, conceive, ladder etc. falls under this category. Any attempt to split any of the words listed above, will alter the meaning. Same is applicable to the Igala Morphemes that fall under this category; 'Ugbiti'ere, or 'Achugbiti'ere, 'Achijita' Akpejata' 'Achubienefu (Ubienefu Ach'obochi' Ukoche' etc. translates into English as: "Stubborness, a stubborn person, one who fetches and sells words, a killer and seller of fish (fisherman) etc.

114 a: **Igala:** *// Oma ki 'a ch'ugbiti'ere le de I //*

b. **English:** This is the stubborn child/ This is a child that constitute a nuisance.

115 a. **Igala:** *// Iye Alami ch'Ach'ijita //*

b. **English:** Alami's Mother is a wood seller.

116 a. **Igala:** *// Omiashi a'Kpejata //* (Omiashi kills

and sells fish).

b. **English:** Omiashi is a fish seller.

117 a. **Igala:** *// Ene ki a' chubienefu le de I //*

b. **English:** This is that cruel stingy man.

118 a. **Igala:** *// Ach' Obochi //*

b. **English:** Native Doctor.

119 a. **Igala:** *// Akp'omita //* (One who fetches and

sells water)

b. **English:** Water seller.

120 a. **Igala:** *// Ak'ajo //* (One who judges)

b. **English:** (a Judge)

121 a. **Igala:** *// Ak'olojo //*

b. **English:** A preacher

122 a. **Igala:** // Ach'eun'won one // (One (someone)

who saves people)

b. **English:** An Usher.

123 a. **Igala:** *// Omamaya akp'one // (Omamaya* –

lightening)

b. **English:** Lightening kills (as a result of Thunder)

124 a. **Igala:** *// Okpabana f'unyi Ejura gw'lo // (Okpabana* - Thunder)

b. **English:** Thunder destroyed Ejura's house

125 a. **Igala:** *// Ojo wa ch'Ojo inaina //(Inaina)*

b. **English:** Our God is awesomely Mighty

126 a. **Igala:** *// I ch'okolobia no // (Okolobia)*

b. **English:** What a fine young man.

In Hausa some morphemes, also fall under this Category ' Tambanya – Question, fartanya – hoe'

Godiya – appreciation, etc.

Some of the Igala words as exemplified above (Cf Ach'ugbiti'ere) if separated, will leave a meaningless structure. The word 'ugbite'ere', if splitted, will be grammatically meaningless. However, the structure, *Ach 'ugbiti ere'* can be splitted into *Achu* + *Ugbitiere*. Another word to consider is the word *'Olafe'* meaning 'good luck', while this structure is meaningful and can be treated as two morphemes in English, 'good' + 'luck', it is not that applicable to it's Igala counterpart-'*Olafe'.*

Considering the data as analysed above. It will be just alright to insinuate that Igala though agglutinative, has morphemes that do conform to principles VI.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This research has delved into the investigation of some aspect of Igala and English morphological processes. The investigation of the research, led to the study and discovery of such processes that are common and uncommon to both languages. The study served as a bases on which the researcher ventured some deductions, inferences, conclusions and recommendation for future linguistic researchers specifically, on comparative works in this arm of linguistics study, (morphology) both in foreign languages and other Nigerian languages.

5.1 SUMMARY

The research in the previous chapters had been able to establish the aims, objectives, and justification for the study.

The extensive review of related literatures on the concerns (Morphological processes) of research was also tabled. The analytical model adopted was also cited – Halliday's 'scale and category' grammatical theory, and Nidas six principles for the identification and Isolation of

morphemes. The methodology employed in the data collected for the research work, was presented, analysed, examined and discussed extensively in the previous chapter, (chapter 4)

Conclusively, the importance of morphology as an arm of linguistics and equally equitable with the other arms- syntax, phonology, pragmatics, etc was established. Morphology a sub – field of linguistics as investigated in the course of this research is so relevant to the fact that, languages, especially, Igala and English, and such languages that are word based, depend heavily on it, for the identification, grouping and classification of words into their different, grammatical classes. e.g., nouns, pronouns, verbs, e.t.c. This accounts for the reason why, morphological processes in both languages were examined and highlighted and the concepts (definition of morphemes and morphology) coupled with points of divergence as raised among linguists were critically discussed or analysed. Equally, processes like affixation, inflection, derivation, e.t.c and how words combine along side the resultant realization in both languages were equally examined. The conclusions as discussed below, was drawn from points of divergence and convergence in both languages as highlighted.

5.2 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The researcher in the course of this study, made such important observation that are relevant to linguistics studies. The observation or findings are based on treated data and, they are as follows.

i. That the component of morphology in the study of natural human languages is exhibited in the structure of the two languages (Igala and English).

ii. That the concept of universality of morphology as widely acclaimed in the study of natural human languages, exists in the structure of both languages.

iii. That not all morphological processes are applicable in both languages. While there exist some Points of commonalities, there equally exist points of dissimilarities.

iv. That, though the concept of morphology is eminent in both languages it is unique to both respectively. Igala languages is more agglutinating and semantic inclined than its English counterpart which is more, syntactic and inflectional.

The table below best explains the above stipulated findings.

Table (Iv)

Morphological processes	Igala	English
Inflectional prefixes	+	-
Inflectional suffixes	-	+
Derivational prefixes	+	-
Derivational suffixes	Occurs in cases of reduplication or compounding	+
Supletion	-	+
Replacives	-	+
Compounding	+	+
Reduplication	+	Very few traces.

The concept of inflections as illustrated in the table above, shows that both languages employ the process of inflections but obviously differently. Why English inflect to show morphosyntactic ideas, the notion of number, tense, gender and case, Igala inflects only for number.

Differences as highlighted are shown in the sentences below,

ENGLISH

ia. The boy ran away.

det. + Sing. + Past + Adv.

iib. The boys ran away

Det. + Plural + Past + Adv.

IGALA

ia. *// Enekele le rule le //* - Sing + det + Pres + Adv.

The man ran away.

iib *// Abokele le rule le //* - Plu. + det. + Past + Adv.

The men ran away.

Igala's notion of inflection is a little deviated from that of English. As shown in the table, the language does not exhibit inflectional suffixation, rather, inflections are arrived at, by prefixing morphemes to forms; *'Enekele* - Man' *'Ab'ekele* – men' *'Akpiti-ant' Am'kpiti* –ants' *'Ewo – goat Am'ewo* – goats' '*imoto* – youth Ab'*imoto*- infants' etc. the idea of allomorphs does not exist in Igala Language at

all but English language enjoys a number of allomorphs respectively; [-ed] past morphemes the [-s] plural morphemes. Etc. Igala though not marked overtly in structure as in English language, the notion of tense, is well presented in Igala like most African languages, through actions. The following are Igala tense as used:

a. The 'A' tense equates the English present and progressive tense and is used to also express futuristic tense. Some times the second person unemphatic pronoun is used in place of the 'A' tense. The following sentence best illustrate these;

i. *Adejo a – wa*
Ade is coming

ii. *Ebi a – kpa' Ali*
Ali is hungry

} present tense

iii. *Afu a- ju*
The wind blows

iv. *Una a – jone*
Fire burns (People/Persons)

} Permanent truth

v. *Ab' a –cho*

What shall we do

vi. *Ona ma a – lo t'Ogwugwu*

They will be going tio Ogwugu tomorrow

Futuristic

vii. *Ojo e lo*

When are you going or when will you be going

viii. *Eko e wa*

What time will you come or what time

are you coming (the unemphatic pronoun)

The Unemphatic Pronoun

The '*fu'* tense is equivalent to English present perfect tense. Aside '*fu'*, 'me' is sometimes used. This is clear from the sentences expressed below:

i. *Ele – ojo f'ola gwe me*

Ele has taken her bath

ii. *Aduku f'oje je*

Aduku has eaten

iii. *I f'omi mo*

She/He drank water

Aside, the above exemplified, the *'fu'* tense is also used sometimes for emphasis and to express surprise. The researcher has also been able to establish the fact that, the English '*er'* which means 'doer' in some cases, is also equitable in Igala. But, unlike the English 'er' morphemes which are suffixed to (forms) structures, the Igala equivalent are prefixed to the structure they indicate. See examples below:

i.	*Akp'one*	-	Killer
ii.	*Agw'ekpe*	-	Climber of palm tree/ one who claimbs palm tree
iii.	*El'uche*	-	Farmer
iv.	*Ak'olojo*	-	Preacher
v.	*Ak' one eun*	-	Teacher
v.	*Abi – ebi*	-	Begger etc.

But as concluded in the course of this work, the morphemes 'er' is quite erratic especially as used in some instances in both languages under-studied. While the morphemes signify doer in some cases, they indicate degree in some others. And yet, in some more are quite debatable and insignificant; the English structures; sister, brother, father, etc. canot be split to indicate doer' neither are they 'doers' even if splittable. In the same vein, as shown in the table above, the notion of derivation

is not evenly utilized in bother Languages. While English employs both preffixation and suffixation, Igala makes use of suffixation only in few cases especially in reduplication and compounding, significantly, for emphasize. The following examples best illustrate this,

i. *Okpo – lump - Okpo-Okpo* - Lumps
// Oje k' hi ch' okpo-okpo //
The Food she/he cooked is full of lumps

ii. *Unyi – house – Unyi – unyi* – houses
// Ogwugu ch'unyi – unyi //
Ogwugwu is full of houses?
'There are many houses in Ogwugwu

iii. *Otakada* – book – *Otakada – Otakada*- books
// Oji tabulu Alacha Ch'otakada – otakada //
'Alacha's table is full of books?
Compounding and reduplication are sometimes used in cases of pluralization and emphasis.

Another feature of derivation in Igala, can be described as superfluous, as the nouns used, go hand-in-hand with their verbs. See the words and sentences below:

Verbs **Nouns**

i. *Ja* – to fight *uja* – a fight (Abn)

ii. *Ma*-to know *Uma* – Knowledge (N)

iii. *Gane* – to see *Ugane* – sight (N)

iv. *Ra* – prosper *Ura* – prosperity (N)

Sentences

v. *//Lo nya j'uja//* Go and fight a fight

vi. *//Lo nya g'igo//* Go and see a sight

Igala language is more semantic than syntactic in most morphemic formations. Unlike English Morphosyntactic forms, such words in Igala, are inseparable. The examples below best illustrates this;

i. *Ugbitiere* *A' ch' ugbitere*
one who is stubborn or a nuisance

ii. *Achiubienefu* One who is stingy
(wickedness or stinginess)

iii. *Achijita* one who fetches and sells fire-woods.

From the above examples so far tendered, it can be concluded that, both languages according to the widely acclaimed universality of morphology, do exhibit aspects of morphology. Aspects as exhibited are unique to each in

such a way that, there are points or areas of divergence and convergence in their linguistic description. Here, the six principles for identifying and isolating of morphemes, were applied in the study of both languages. The principles could not accurately account for all aspects of Igala morphemes as much as it does that of English. Also, some of the principle did not apply to the morphemes of both languages equally.

5.3 Limitation of the Study

This research is limited in scope to an aspect of linguistic study - morphology. Hence, the examination of some aspects of the morphology of both languages comparatively. This therefore accounts for why other aspects of language description - phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, etc. were not examined. The research cannot conclusively claim to have treated all morphemes in both languages. However, it can venture to express the fact that, it has in its own little way, contributed to the study of Igala specifically and Nigerian languages at large.

Despite the limitation of the research, it is note worthy to infer some generalization in regards to morphemes in Igala and how they combine. This was well illustrated in the previous chapter and appendix.

5.4 Suggestion for Further Research.

This research as presented by the researcher is mainly concerned about the comparative study of two languages – Igala and English. Therefore, it can be opined that, the research is concentrated on an aspect of linguistic description of both languages. It is therefore, pertinent that further linguistic research in these languages under study and other Nigerian languages, (that will be all encompassing - syntax, Semantics, Phomology, pragmatics, dialectology, etc) be studied.

The need for investigation into other aspects of linguistic description cannot be over stressed. Therefore, the researcher suggest, that there be further and deeper exploration of other aspects and level of the languages (Igala) under study and other Nigerian languages, not only for linguistics description, but also for pedagogic purposes. Moreso that the policy on education stresses the need and importance of language studies especially in primary and post – primary levels.

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APPENDIX A

IGALA ORTHOGRAPHY FROM 1984 TO DATE

The orthography of Igala, is greatly influenced by those of Yoruba and English. Early attempt of Igala study was an attempt to examine the mutual intelligibility between Igala and Yoruba, and their English cognate. The study then, was done through the use of word lists. This accounts for why Yoruba alphabet system to some extent was used to write Igala language.

Igala was faced with orthography problem. The problem of which orthography should be adopted as most correct form - The old orthography with most of it's letters in modern English, the Oj' Okodo (Ankpa) style which is mostly infuenced by other neighbouring languages, (Idoma, Igbos, languages etc) or the current orthography, of the Idah 1984, conference on the Igala orthography? That of Idah (1984 version) was generally adopted as the standard orthography.

THE CURRENT ALPHABET

Igala alphabet comprise of thirty one (31) alphabet. The alphabet comprise of seven (7) short vowels, fifteen (15) single consonants, four (4) nasals and eight (8) diagraphs.

ALPHABETS

a [a] as in ala - sheep

b	[b]	as	in	abia	-	dog
ch	[c]	as	in	ichamu	-	Eight hundred
d	[d]	as	in	adu	-	slave/servant
e	[e]	as	in	ele	-	python
e	[Σ]	as	in	ele	-	four
f	[f]	as	in	ifa	-	oracle
g	[g]as	in	iga		-	Weaver-bird
gb	[gb]	as	in	agba	-	basket
gw	[gw]	as	in	ogwo	-	deceit
h	[h]	as	in	ahima	-	lice
i	[i]	as	in	imi	-	breath
j	[j]	as	in	aju	-	grandchild
k	[k]	as	in	ika	-	fown name
kp	[pg]	as	in	ukpahiu	-	strength
kw	[kw]	as	in	akwu	-	to cry
l	[l]	as	in	alu	-	mouth
m	[m]	as	in	ama	-	the conjuction ‘but’
n	[n]	as	in	ene	-	who
nm	[nm]	as	in	unmi	-	holiday
nw	[nw]	as	in	anwago	-	examination
ny	[ny]	as	in	enyi	-	tooth
n	[n]	as	in	anyi	-	laughter
o	[o]	as	in	olo	-	poison
o	[o]	as	in	olo	-	neck
p	[p]	as	in	opa	-	groundnut
r	[r]	as	in	ere	-	leg

t [t] as in ata - father

u [u] as in uchu - yam

w [w] as in awa - we

y [y] as in iye - mother

Current Orthography

a b ch d e e f g gb gw

h i j k kp kw i m n nm nw

ny n o o p r t u w Y

(15 – 18th June 1984 version)

Vowels : Igala language comprise of 7 vowels, 14 consonants 4 nasals and 8 diagraphs

i. a e e o o u

Consonants

ii. el f g h j k l m n p r t w y

Nasals

iii. n nm nw and ny

Diagraph

iv. ch, gb, gw, kp, kw, nm nw ny d last 3 are nasalized

APPENDIX B

IGALA WORDS AND THEIR ENGLISH GLOSSES

1. // na a lo t'aja // - I am/ will be going to the market
2. // Na a lo // - You can go
3. // u fu li pee // - I saw it clearly
4. // I gwugwu yee// - He sat quietly/ calmly
5. // Ad'ojo ch'edudu kinii// - Ad'ojo is very black
6. // I j' eun pioo // - He/she did not eat despite all odds
7. // I le pioo// - He has gone forever (He left against all odds).
8. // Ochenia a lo chuu// - Ochenia will go by all means
9. // Aduku nyi woolo wane // - Aduku gradually collapsed
10. //I na j'eun// - She/he is eating
11. // I j'eun // - She/he ate
12. // Ma f'eun je me// - They have eaten.
13. // Ejura na gw'ola // - Ejura is bathing
14. // Ademu gw'ola // - Ademu bathed
15. // I gw'ola n? // - He/she did not bath?
16. // U ne n // - I will not marry him/her
17. // U ne n // - I don't have (it)
18. // U le n // - I will not go
19. // Ma le n// - They will not go

20. / / I le n / / - He/she did not go
21. / / Ma ka ki ma le n / / - They said they will
22. / / I j'eun n? / / - He/she did not eat?
23. / / I kaki I j'eun / / - He/she said he (she) will not eat.
24. / / I f' okone / / - She married a husband
25. / / Ma f' oko n'eun / / - They got her a husband (she got married)
26. / / U f' okone / / - I got a husband (I got married to a husband)
27. / / I f' okone mi / / - He got me a husband (He married a husband for me)
28. / / Lo hika / / - (you) Go fast
29. / / Lo hika-hika / / - (you) go quickly
30. / / Rule lo hika – hika / / - (Hurry) run, be very, very fast
31. / / U na l'ule / / - I will walk
32. / / U na l'ule / / - I am walking
33. / / U l'ule / / - I walked
34. / / U ni u na l'ule / / - I said I will walk
35. / / Ma ni ma l'ule / / - They said, they will walk
36. / / A ni a l'ule / / - We said we will walk

37. // A l'ule // - We walked
38. // A na l'ule // - We shall be walking
39. // I ya d'mi // - He/she will give me
40. // Ma ya d'mi // - They shall give it to me.
41. // Ma d'mi // - They gave it to me
42. // Ma d' un ma // - They gave them
43. // I na ch'ukolo // - She/he is working
44. // U ch'ukolo // - I worked
45. //Ma nya ch'ukolo // - They will be working
46. // Ma ch'ukolo onale // - They worked yesterday
47. // Na lo t' Ogwugwu // - I will go to Ogwugwu

48. // I ya lo t' Idah ona // - He/she will be going to Idah tomorrow
49. // Maa w' Okpo ane I // - They will come to Okpo this evening
50. // I gbo n // - He/she did not hear
51. // I gbo n? // - He/she did not hear?
52. // I ne n // - He/she does not have it
53. // U ne n // - I don't have it
54. // Ma ne n // - They don't have it
55. // I ya l' emi // - He/she will sleep here
56. // U na l' emi // - I will sleep here
57. // Ma l' emi // - They will sleep here
58. // A le emi // - We slept here

59. / / Me le omo / / - You (2nd person singular) slept there
60. / / E wa / / - You came
61. / / E wa n / / - You did not come
62. / / Me wa / / - You (3rd person singular) came
63. / / Ma neke ma n / / - They cannot know
64. / / I neke ma n / / - He/she cannot know
65. / / A ma n / / - We do not know
66. / / Rakia nana t' umale / / - Rakiya is bigger than them
67. / / I na gb' otakada / / - He/she is reading a book
68. / / I gb' otakada / / - He/she read a book
69. / / A ya gb' otakada le / / - We are going to read the book
70. / / Anyi eyi ma gbe / / - (Their laughter laugh is too much). They laugh a lot.
71. / / Ej' momi n gbe / / - He/she is too compassionate
72. / / Ej' momi ma biene / / - (Their compassion is terrible). They are too compassionate
73. / / Atama ch' oko' un i / / - Atama is her husband
74. / / Aladi ko fa me / / - Aladi is crawling
75. / / Agba t' owo mi no / / - please leave my hand

76. // D' otakada Eli-uyo (ab'olojo) mi// - Give me the christian song book
77. // I d' otakada ohiaula Igala mi// - He/she gave me the book on Igala history.
78. // Ojonegon ch' ekpa yoo // - Ojonegon is a very fair complexioned girl
79. // Ailo era ma gbe// - (Their fear is too much). They are very fearful.
80. // Rule lo // - (You) run away
81. // Titi l' afe odo // - Titi bought a green dress
82. // Ukolo e che ch' eyo// - It is good to work
83. // Edo mi ch' ebo// - I am happy
84. // Eun ch' ete uyo ma ta// - What is the reason for their celebration/happiness?
85. // Edu ch' ewa pioo // - Victory is ours always
86. // I ch' eyo ka ra' ilo ojo// - It is good for us to fear God

87. / / Ukpo Jenebu ch' eyo/ / - Jenebu's cloth is fine
88. / / Ademu gb' okobia ololo/ / - Ademu is very handsome
89. / / Ma neke lo cnini / / - They may go today
90. / / I neke n' oya ikodu/ / - He may marry anytime
91. / / Kwa' ne, na gw' ane/ / - Stand up let me sit down
92. / /Ebiene I yo e che n/ / - Wickedness is not good (it is not

good to be wicked)
93. / / Odu e-yo t' eun du le/ /- Good name is better than all
94. / / I ka k' iya rule / / - He said he will run
95. / / I kaki olu gbe / / - (She said the sun is too much).

The weather is

hot/unbearable.
96. / / Odiniya le t' Ogwugwu/ / - Odiniya went to Ogwugwu
97. / / Ote emo ololo yo n/ / - (Too much drinking is not good).

Much drinking of alcohol is not

healthy.
98. / / Acheneje mu gb' ogbe filii to du oga/ / - Acheneje lost so

much weight as a result of sickness

99. // Ali ebiene a kp' one bie // - Bad character destroys one's reputation

100. // Uji eche yo n // - (Cheating is not good (bad)). It is not good to cheat

101. // I ya r' ule biene // - He is a terrific runner

102. // Me j' eun ololo // - You (3 persons plural) eat a lot

103. // I ya j' eun gbe // - He/she eats too much.

Correct spellings of some Igala words (1984 version)

Place names

Correct	**incorrect**
Abejukolo	Abajikolo
Anyigba	Ayangba
Afo	Afor
Akpa	Ankpa
Ejema	Enjema
Ida	Idah
Odekina	Dekina
Ogbagana	Bagana
Ogwugwu	Ogugu
Ugwolawo	Gwadawo/Gwolawo

Names of persons

Correct	**Incorrect**
Aba	Abah
Achimugwu	Achimugu
Acho	Achor
Ako	Akor
Ogwuche	Oguche
Ogwu	Ogu

Other words

Correct	**Incorrect**
Gwugwu	Gugu-(sit)
Ogwugwu	Ogugu-(bone)
Oogwu	Ogu – (twenty)
Ekwu	Eku (need)
Ogwu	Ogu (medicine)
Gwuche	Guche (break)
Gwu	Gu (pound)
Egwaka	Eguaka (eleven)
Egwu	Egu (masquerade)

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEXT FOR COMPARISON

OHIALA ANE ILE KPAI OJALE

Egba ka domo k'ojale mer'ane dedede. I ch'eun k'one kwo dago, om'owo'un ko ny'ojale ma bo kee ku ma kad'ojale. Ojo ka d'omo iye ogijo a tene ki gw'a 'akpa oun I ka un ojale oun y ny'ate dabalu kuma tete a che. I m'akpa-un du. I m'akpa-un duny'agwu. I chane e gwu oun om'agwu oun y ny'ojale re, ny' k'ojale ke.

Oun ojale ni iye ki ch'oun ihianyi n. Ama ebi na kp'iye, ila tene gw'aakpa-un-ki du hi oje. Todu-abele, I n'eti r' eun k' ojale na ka I n. I m'omagwu oun y'ojale I no le nya k'ojale. Om'agwu I ye no le nya k'ojale, ojale no be, I no f'iye f'efi ama, ebi je n un 'iye ki a gbomu ojale n, oun ojale ra t'ate i. (1984 Version)

Ohiaulu Ane ile kpai ojale. Egba ka domo k'ojale mer'ane dedede. Ich'ewn k'one kwo dago, om'own ko ny'ojale ma bo kee ku ma ka d'ojale. Ojo ka d'omo iye ogijo a tene ki gwu' akpa, own I ka nwu ojale ki te ny'ate dabalu kuma tete ache. I m'akpa – nwn du ny'agwu.

I chane e gwu own om'agwu ki du ny'ajale re, ny' k' ojale ke. Own ojale ni iye ki ch'own ihiayi n. Ama, ebi na kp' iye, ila tene gw' aakpa nwn kid u hioje Todu abele, I n'eti r'ewn k'ojale ny'ojale, oma agwu iye no le nya k'ojale, ojale no be, I no f'iye f'eti, ama ebi je nw iye gb'amu ojale n, own ojale ra t'are;
(Oj' Okodo Version – Ankpa)

TRANSLATION

Once upon a time, the heaven was very close to the earth. People's hands almost touched the sky. One day, an old woman who was hungry wanted to pound maize for food. Usually, during such task, the sky moves higher up until such task is completed. But, this day, the sky didn't move up and the old woman's pestle keeps hitting it.

Despite the sky's complains, the old woman could not hear because she was hungry. The sky out of anger (decided to go very far from humans) went higher up.