A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF AFEMAI AND ENGLISH MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURES WITH LEARNING AND TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

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OCTOBER, 2018

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA, NIGERIA

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER DEGREE (M.ED TESL) LANGUAGE ARTS (ENGLISH)

OCTOBER, 2018

DECLARATION

I declare that the work in this thesistitled; ***Contrastive Study of Afemai and English Morphological Structures with Learning and Teaching Implications*** has been performed by me in the Department of Art and Social Science Education. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this thesis was previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other Institution.

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AdeleganZibiril **Date**

CERTIFICATION

I declare that the work in this thesis titled; ***Contrastive Study of Afemai and English Morphological Structures with Learning and Teaching Implications***has been carried out by me in the Department of Arts and Social Science Education. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and the list of references provided. No part of this thesis was previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other institution. The research is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the Glory of The Almighty God, the Father, the Son and the Holy Spirit.Amen.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I acknowledge the Grace of Almighty God, whose infinite Mercy uphold me with a high hand throughout the study. His name be praise forever. Amen.

My profound gratitude to my lecturers, supervisors, amongst whom are, Hajia Prof. R. Jibir- Daura, Prof. Sadiq Muhammed,Prof. Olaofe Dr. S.T DanAbdul, Dr. B I Yerima, Dr. Hauwa, Dr. Jonah A, Dr. Isa, Dr. Ugiomoh C, Dr. U Ginga, Mallam Auwal and others too numerous to mention. God will reward you all immeasurably.

I acknowledge the following persons; My parent Chief Ofunovoh,the Okueyegbe of Ebelle kingdom,My family, friends and students whose contributions are considered invaluable. Also, I thank Fr. Aligamhe Fr. Innocent, Sir Ikuabe, Pst Ladewo,Pst. Itenuma, the Odamas, Mal. D A Saliu, Hassan Omogie,Dako V.I. etc. I appreciate you all.

ABSTRACT

The study aimedat Contrasting Afemai and English Morphological Structures with Learning and Teaching Implications.Morphology is the study of words,how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language.It analyzes the structure of words,inflection, stems, root words, and affixation. This work contrast English and Afemai morphology to determine the points where they differ. It also examined the areas of similarities and discussed where they differ using a contrastive analysis model. These differences werepredicted as major causes of difficulties in the learning of the second language. Taxonomic model of CA was used to critically examine the two languages structures, and comment on the implication for teaching and learningthe second language. Corpus for the research was mainly Swadesh (2016) world list and first-hand information of Afemai speakers of the language studied. Afemai was found to posses morphological properties that relate to the English morphological structures. The research studied and contrasted affixation structures found in both languages.To this end, the similarities and differences that exist between Afemai and English in preffixation, suffixation, inflection and derivational morphemes were examined. The data of both English and Afemai used in this work were collected through oral interview and direct observation of the dialect of Afemai. Through the application of James (1983) in Al-khresheh (2016) theory of contrastive analysis, the investigation reveals that both languages have certain similarities and differences in word formation processes.

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DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

First Language (L1): The first language acquired by an individual. In some cases, it is the language of the parents' linguistic community.

Foreign Language (FL): A language spoken outside a learner's linguistic community, but learned for the purposes of reading, listening, traveling, business etc. The language might be used in the learner's community for administration, education etc. An example is French, Arabic, Englishetc in Nigeria.

Interlanguage (IL): This is a system resulting from a learner's attempted production of the target language (TL) norms.

Target Language (TL): A system as spoken by native speakers which the learners strive to acquire and speak as the native speakers do. In this study, English language is the TL for Afemai speakers.

Inter-lingual: This means operating between one language.

Morphology: This is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of words.

TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language

ABBREVIATIONS

C.A. Contrastive Analysis

M.T. Mother Tongue

LIC Language of the Immediate Community

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EA. Error Analysis

CLA- Contrastive Linguistic Analysis

SDRH- Similarity Differential Rate Hypothesis

CAH- Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

NL- Native Language or First Language of the Child or Learner

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Language could be studied from diverse dimension. It is the universal fabric that holds a community together. It is a medium through which, ideas, thoughts, culture, traditions of its people are expressed. Language influence the way things are perceive in once environment. Language is an arbitrary representation of human vocal organ in writing or speech Lyons (2007). It is used systematically and conventionally by a speech community for the purpose of communication. As a symbol of unity, it marks out an ethnic group even where there is distance in settlement, between speakers.

The study of how languages were differently structured began out of the interest to classify language families across the world Paki(2006). Nothing seemed of greater potential value to language learners than a comparative and contrastive description of the learner's mother tongue and the target language. Linguists such as Adeyanju(2002),Yule(2007) and Jibir-Daura(2012) generally acknowledge the complex nature of language. Students of foreign languages soon findout the nature first language of the learner interferes in specific and predictable ways at acquiring a second language. Therefore, it is necessary to identify some problem areas where learners of foreign language are likely to find difficulty. Cross-language differences are prominent in Morphology. What is habitually a lexical meaning in one language may be a morphological in another.The National Policy on Education (2009) emphasizes the importance of language in the education process:

> *In addition to appreciating the importance of language, government shall ensure that the medium of instruction is principally the mother-tongue or the language of the immediate community and to this end will develop the orthography of many more Nigerian languages and produce textbooks in Nigerian languages (NPE, 2004:08)*

In spite of the importance of language in preserving culture and educational process, less has been done to encourage the study of minority languages. The written form of the child's mother-tongue is important as well as the spoken form. So long as some of these minority languages are not studied with the possibility of reducing them to writing, such languages are becoming extinct. Contrastive Analysis (CA) of the morphological structures of English and Afemai languages might indicate those morphological features possing learning difficulties to Afemai learners of English. The result would save such languages from the brink of death.

A contrastive study is concerned with a pair of languages and founded on the premise that languages can be compared. Ellis (1966) a comparativist cited in James (1983). Language may have its individuality; all languages have enough in common for them to be compared. Olaofe (2010) affirms that second language learners are more concerned with written system of the language than the spoken one. This consciousness drew the researcher taking keen interest on the complexity of Afemai language with English in the areas of Morphology. Morphology is the study of grammatical rules of word-formation in any language.

Remarkable scholarship on the present state of African languages commenced towards the end of the World War II (Paki 2006). Greenberg (1963) in McGregor(2010) identifies five language families on geographical basis rather than linguistics affinity. They include Afro Asiatic, Niger-Congo, Nilo Sahara, Khoisan and Austronesian. Afemai language belongs to the ***Kwa*** groups of the Niger-Congo.

Linguistic typology reveals that human languages are classified into several types according to which grammatical, phonological, morphological or lexical features they show preference for. Adeyenju (2002) observes that comparable description of two languages can be guaranteed if identical methods of description are used for the two.

In describing any language, Mathew (1974) is of the view that the four major aspects of Language- sounds, constructions meanings and forms of words should be given due attention. This implies a comprehensive description of Syntax, Semantics and Morphology. These four aspects do not function in isolation, but relate to one another. This interrelatedness is noticeable in Morphology.Morphology is concerned with the study and analysis of the structure, forms and classes of words. Morphology entails the breaking down of words in parts and establishing rules that govern the co-occurrence of those parts. Language can be compared morphologically by looking at their systems of affixations and the nature of the affixes themselves. This in turn, may lead to whether the Language employs prefixes and suffixes only or even infixes and to what extent. Hence, the classification of Language typology are either agglutinating, synthetic etc. Language use the morphological process of affixation to modify or elaborate on the meaning of words. For instance, 'omo' meaning child, 'ivia' means children. Therefore 'omo' is a singular and 'ivia' plural.

Adegbija (2013) is of the view that the four major aspect of language-sounds, constructions, meanings and forms of words should be given due attention. This implies that a comprehensive description of any human language must include its Phonology, Syntax, Semantics and Morphology. These four aspects do not function in isolation, they relate to one another, noticed in Morphology. Hoberman(2013) argue that morphology is concerned with the study and analysis of the structures, forms and classes of words. Morphology entails the breaking down of words in parts and establishing rules that govern the co-occurrence of those parts.

The Nigerian speech community is multilingual. There is still linguistic controversy regarding the numbers. Adegbija (2013) declares that ignorant of the actual number of languages in Nigeria has been an embarrassing enigma to linguists, government and policy

makers. Jibir-Daura (2012) observes that Nigerians have negative attitudes towards investigation, teaching, and learning of indigenous languages. They are contemptuous of their mother tongue and see no intrinsic value of its use as medium of instruction even at the initial stage of literacy. This supports Emenajo (1999) claims, that one either use his language or lose it. It is indisputable that minority languages are not studied with a view to reducing them to writing. Therefore, the likelihood that they would gradually be reduced to the state of extinction may have begun.

Languages can be compared morphologically by looking at their systems of affixations and the nature of the affixes. This, in turn, may lead to whether the language employ prefixes aid suffixes only or even infixes and to what extent. Hence, classification of language typology as agglutinating or synthetic. Languages use the morphological process of affixation to modify or elaborate on the meaning of words. For instance,***'omo'*** means child, ***'ivia'***means children. Therefore ***'omo'*** is singular and ***'ivia***' plural. Moreover, a derivational morpheme in a prefixes/suffixes position of adjective could be derived. For instance '*omo no somi'*(suffix) 'egbe gbo omo' (prefixes).

Another fundamental value of comparing, is the discovery and description of the problems that learners of the languages would encounter. Ogundipo (2015) note, that we can predict and describe the problems that will cause difficulties by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learnt. Learners and speakers tend to transfer the forms, meaning and the distribution of forms and meanings of L1 to the foreign language. A contrastive study could reveal the nature of the ideal learner-speaker basic knowledge competence. It is assumed that teachers who went through the painful "business" of comparison of the languages (L1 and L2) will know better what the learning problems are. Olaofe (2010) assume that learners of foreign language find some features quite easy and others extremely difficult because the patterns are different fromtheir L1.

English language is arguable one of the most valuable assets left by Nigeria's colonial master. According to Aliyu (2006), it is a result of the multi-lingual and multi-ethnic nature of Nigeria and for administrative purpose, the English language has been adopted as L2. Babatunde (2002) affirms that the role of English language in a multi-lingual and multi-ethnic country such as Nigeria has been one of integration. Oyedokun-Alli (2014) substantiates this that English is the most enduring of the legacies of colonialism. He maintains that English remain the language of government, politics, mass media and all sort of social engagement for people from different languages.It is the language of education and medium of instruction in schools. This corroborates Adeyanju (2002) who states that English language in Nigeria has long championed the course of human co-operation in performing effectively the above roles. These show that the English language has such prominence in Nigeria than other Nigeria languages. In fact it is the official language of Nigeria.

In view of the importance attached to English, an average Nigeria is expected to have more than just a working knowledge of the language. To fulfil ones' role effectively in the society, one needs a good command of the language. It has become so important that we cannot avoid speaking and writing it in a way that is universally accepted. These presuppose that an appreciable degree of competence is expected from Afemai speakers and learners of English language.

Factors which indeed need more examination include knowledge and the effect of the learners' mother tongue on the target language (English). This confirms Oyedokun-Alli (2014) submissions that a bilingual speaker is probably never equally competent in both languages. Lado (1957), Langakar (1972), Bollinger(1972), James (1983), Afolayan(1968), Banjo (2004) and Aliyu(2006) had through their works highlighted the importance of these factors. Therefore, more works need to be done, as recent evidence

point to these as factors responsible for the infelicities experienced in students language use.

In the view of Brown (2014), mother tongue interference continue to be regarded as the most obvious causes of difficulty which cannot be ignore. Little wonder, Williamson (1990) declares that the speech and writing of the foreign language has many mistakes which can be traced to the mother tongue. Lado (1957) in James (1983) underscores the effect of L1 on L2. He remarks that:

> *Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning and the distribution of forms and meaning of their language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by the natives (James 1983:14)*

1.2 Brief History of Afemai

Afemai also spelled *Afenmai* are group of people living in the Northern part of Edo State, South geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Afemai people occupy six local government areas: Etsako West, Etsako Central, Etsako East, Owan East, Owan West and Akoko Edo. These make up the Edo-North Senatorial District. They are a multilingual speech community with dialects that are clans-based but mutually intelligible Acheoah (2012).

Afemai are also known as the Afenmai, Etsako, Estakor, Iyekhee, or Yekhee people.In Benin, they are known as Ivbiosakon. Afemai peoplehas several documented dialects such asAuchi, Avainwu, Ekperi, North Ibie, South Ibie, Weppa-Wanno, Uneme, Uzairue, Owan, Ora and Okpella Okpamiri etc.Afemai is made of several kingdoms and clans with large villages and townships ruled traditionally by monarchs. Historical accounts claimed that they migrated from Benin, during the tyrannical rule of Oba Ewuare the great. A warrior, legend and the most outstanding king in the history of Benin Empire. The title Ewuare (Oworuare), meaning "all is well" or *the trouble has ceased* and as a

result the war is over. The title symbolize an epoch of reconciliation, reconstruction and the return of peace among the warring factions in Benin between 1435-1440 (Abiri 1996).

Afemai has a cluster of several interrelated dialects. There is insufficient literature highlighting her morphological structures to enable effective teaching and learning. This study will attract natives and non-native learner's attention to carry out more research on the language potentials. It could pave way for the standardization process of Afemai language and other minority languages in Nigeria and Africa in general.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Most second language learners encounter various problems while trying to acquire the second or target language, particularly in non-native environment. The major influence is usually MT interference, sociolinguistic and or cultural environment where the learners live. Cross-language differences are prominent in Morphology. What is habitually a lexical meaning in one language may be a morphological item in another. Speakers and learners of other languages assume not only that the meanings are the same, but that they will be classified the same way. In English, words often appear in their root or stem form, which is the most salient form. But in more morphological complex languages like Afemai the root or stem form may not be free. The lexical item might be encountered in different compounding or inflected forms. For example boy – boys, market – markets, farmer – farmers. Similarly, afemai has ozao – igi vizao, aki – aki nebu.

English and Afemai language belong to different phyla. Irrespective of the genetic non- relatedness, they might have certain similarities and differences enough for comparison and classification. Afemai is a major language in Edo state with a large population of learners that would need to effectively use English. It is envisaged that students may encounter difficulties in the grammatical rules of word-formation in English

as L2. However, the problems are surmountable if points of difficulties in the target language are identified.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to:

i. Identify types of morphological structures in English and Afemai languages.

ii. Describe areas of similarities of the structures between English and Afemai language.

iii. Analyse areas of differences of the inflectional structures between English and Afemai languages that might pose problem(s) to their learners.

iv. Predict areas of difficulties for the learners of Afemai and English languages.

v. Suggest pedagogical implications for teaching and learning morphological structures in Afemai and English languages.

1.5 Research Questions

i. What are the morphological structures of English and Afemai language?

ii. What are the similarities between the morphological patterns of English and Afemai languages?

iii. What are the differences between the morphological structures of English and Afemai languages?

iv. What are the areas that pose difficulties to Afemai learners of English as L2

v. What are the learning and teaching implications of the similarities and differences in the morphological structures of English and Afemai languages?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study would be of immense significance to learners, teachers, educationist etc. with regards to the best strategy for teaching indigenous languages. It would expose learners to the structures, word-formation, plural of English and Afemai, morphemes etc. The study would help curricular developers especially with the new system of education in designing the curriculum to reflect the objectives of using indigenous language. Moreover, the study would provide insight to teachers of Afemai languageto select, evaluate or supplement existing teaching materials. Williamson (1990) lends support to this fact, that in the preparation of teaching materials comparison of patterns of both languages and cultures enable the hurdles to be surmounted.

The findings would be of immense benefit in making available linguistic data about Afemai language. This could trigger off further research and documentation on the language and by extension other minority Nigerian and African languages on the verge of extinction.Findings of this study would have considerable implication to Afemai language learning and development. Ogundipo (2015) observed that comprehensibility of language should be the goal of any linguistic study, no matter the dialect learned.

The researcher has a firm belief that this study could enhance the maintenance of such minority languages. The work would be documented in print copies. Beside, generations would benefit from the study and give room for others to look at areas related to their study. Nigeria is a multi-lingual nation, to develop languages the National language policy stipulates that the child first three years of educational instruction be done in the mother tongue (MT). A contractive study of English and Afemai morphological process could be of immense importance to examination bodies, authors, and parents.

Schools would find this study relevant in making decision relating to contents selection, materials, and methods. Similarly, findings could be directed toward the most effective grammatical constructs that could influence best practices in preparing national

examinations. Textbook writers could focus on materials that could enhance real grammatical construct and authentic for Afemai language development (Jegede 2013). This could be achieved by incorporating aspect of morphological forms different and possibly difficult for users of English.

1.7 Basic Assumptions

It is assumed that where there are points of differences in the two languages, contrastive analysis of this nature would be necessary, invaluable and worthwhile.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation

Afemai language has several dialects. The scope of the study would centre on selected morphological structures common in the dialects of Weppa-Wanno, one of the largest clan in Afemai. More so, that, there seems to be mutual intelligibility among the dialects (Acheoah2012).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The chapter study the morphological structures of Afemai and English language with implication for teaching and learning. It used Contrastive Analysis (CA) model of investigation as its conceptual framework. It explores the theories of CA, examine its hypothesis and controversies; the strength and weakness. It also review some previous researches on CA, their relevance and processes. It also discuss the suitability for conducting linguistic studies within well-established framework.

2.2 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

The concept of Contrastive Analysis (henceforth C.A.)was first introduced by Fries (1952), and fully described by (Lado 1957).Contrastive analysis is a systematic branch of Applied Linguistics which deals with the linguistic description of the structure of two or more different languages. Such descriptive comparison serves to show how languages differ in their sound system, grammatical structure and vocabulary. The analysis can be used in language teaching among others, to point out areas of similarities and contrast between the two languages. Contrastive analysis examine structures of two languages from two different families in order to determine the points where they differ. These differences are the chief source of difficulty in learning a second language. Lado states that we assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language… and these elements that are different will be difficult.

Linguists view C.A. from different but related perspectives. Acheoah (2012) opines that the literature of C.A. does not indicate that the field of linguistics analysis has been extensively explored. Lado (1957) in Udoudon (2012) marks the inception of contrastive analysis as an aspect of contrastive linguistics. The word establishes a culture of

comparingsand contrasting two or more different languages. Several other linguists have attempted examining this concept from different perspective. Halliday (1964) and Katamba (1994) in Essien (2013) highlight the basic roles of CA. It includes the comparison of equivalent portions of two languages for the purposes of isolating the probable problems speakers of one language have acquiring the other.

Quite a number of researches have examined and experimented on this theoretical tool for contrastive investigation using different languages (Nikel, 1969; Corder, 1969; Olaofe, 1982; Odlin 1989; Banjo 2004; Al-Khresheh, 2016). The results of such investigation have been described in two separate hypotheses: Similarity Differential Rate Hypothesis (SDRH) and Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). These Hypotheses draw the conclusion that similar phenomena are required at faster rate than dissimilar ones; and that differences between L1 and L2 usually give rise to difficulties (Obong and Oduodon 2015).

Contrastive analysis is concern with the study of a pair or more languages. It is founded on the assumption that it is possible to compare languages regardless of their different phyla and genetically unrelated (Olaofe 2010). CA examines the way in which NL affects FL learning in the individual. The effect exerted by the NL on the language being learnt, FL. Dulay &Burt (1974) in James (1983) support this caveat quoting Haugen (1956) that the language of the learner that is influenced, not the language he learns.

However, when CA procedures and predictions were put under the lens, cracks in the framework became evident. First, opponents were able to show that Contrastive Analysis theory not only over-predicted nonoccurrent errors but also under-predicted manifest errors. Secondly, errors were just as arguably traced to the developing nature of learners' intra-lingual system rather than to any supposed inter-lingual source. Thirdly, learners from a variety of linguistic backgrounds displayed similar acquisition patterns

suggesting that there was an equally important process of "creative construction", along. While its claims on inter-lingua errors were accepted, it is by no means the only source of L2 error. For instance, Allen (1972) in Olaofe (2010) declares that CA might predict errors than Generative Models (Chomsky, 1957) depending on the type of linguistic item(s) being contrasted. He finds CA capable of predicting global and local errors in Yoruba students learning English verbs.

This study therefore is a CA which might fully subscribes to the strong hypothesis tenets despite the various criticism labelled against it. CA is viable in predicting most, if not all learners' errors or language problems Al-Khresheh (2016).

2.3 Conceptual Foundations of CA

Historically, CA was first developed by Lado (1957) in James (1983) as an integral component of the methodology of FL teaching (Al-khresheh, 2016). It was noted that in learning a FL, the learner tended to bring in the knowledge of the L1. This should be taken into consideration in teaching the L2. So, the psychological foundation of CA is transfer theory, substituting the L1 for the prior learning and the L2 for the subsequent learning. According to proponent of CA, the most effective materials for teaching a L2 are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learnt. They should be carefully compared with a parallel description of theNL of the learner. CA is a tool for assessing linguistic relationship existing between two or more languages. The best way to achieve this was to undertake a comparative analysis of L1 and L2. Given this, CA assumes that those elements that are similar to the NL will be simpler to the learner, and those that are different will be difficult. It is recommended that pedagogical materials be designed to address the target language (TL) in a systematic fashion based on the predicted difficulty of structures.The analyses were envisioned to be carried out in terms of forms, meaning and distributions of linguistic and cultural units in both L1 and L2.

Three major sources contributed to a general rationale for conducting CA studies. First, the observation by students of language contact of the phenomenon of interference. Such a phenomenon was defined by Nickel (1971) as those instances of deviation from norms of either language. These occur in the speech of the bilinguals as the result of their familiarity with more than one language (Bowers, 2002). The practical experience of teachers of FL and their identification of deviations attributed to the learner's mother tongue.This provide the second source, whilst the learning theory of interference within L1 based on findings in psychology constitutes the third dimension. Di Pietro (1971) views CA in terms of two separate approaches: the purely linguistic approach and the new knowledge it might provide.

Bell (1981) observes a third position between these approaches. He contends that CA has been relegated too high a position in language learning in the past, and further, on its own merits. CA does not hold a legitimate position in the general scheme of language teaching. James (1983) identified two types of CA i.e Theoretical and Applied. The theoretical CA looks for realization of a universal category in both languages A and B. Applied CA addresses itself to the problem of how a universal category X realized in language A as Y is rendered in language B. fig 2. However, James (1983) cautioned that the two should not be treated independently because Applied CA are the interpretation of Theoretical CAs. Theoretical CA is founded on the assumption that L2 learners will tend to transfer the formal features of their L1 to their L2 utterances. Simply put, the notion of 'transfer' means carrying over the habits of the MT into the L2. It can also be defined as the influence of the learner’s L1 on the acquisition of L2 (Al-khresheh, 2016). Transfer can be considered as an important part in language learning at all levels. It is considered as a language learning strategy used by FL learners in order to facilitate their language learning.

Learners start learning L2 by transferring some sounds and meanings (semantic transfer).For instance: come here = vhare ana; stand up = kpa to.

Contrastive Analysis is derived from the audio-lingual method of teaching and learning. It sees language learning as involving the acquisition of a set of rules or habits. This is supported by an aspect of psychology that deals with the study of human behavior. The behaviorist psychologies support the audio-lingual method of teaching. Bolinger (1970) states that if Language is a set of habit and learning is essentially a process or conditioning, then the apparatus of drill and reinforcement becomes the logical way to teach it.Corder (1984) supports this, saying that learning a second language, the learners will produce alternatives which are ungrammatical. This is obvious not only to the teachers of language but to any native speakers of the TL.

2.4 Contrastive Models

Thetwocontrastivemodelsare taxonomic model which identifies the items present and non existence in the two languages It is specifically designed for descriptive models that are autonomous or one plain and not generative grammar and operational model that is designed for generalized descriptive model like the two-level plane transformation generative grammar. Thus the taxonomic model can be used with structural grammars like tagmemic grammar must be made operational, using transformative generative grammar. Depending on the linguist's theoretical orientation,CLA can be operational, for generalized model like TG or taxonomic,for autonomous model. In Banathy's taxonomic model which is a very popular one,actual learning tasks of a learner determined by substracting the in-put competence of the learner.What has already been mastered in the target language due to the similarity or sameness of the items from those of the target language. That is inventory of tasks which are learning tasks that the language learner is expected to learn in the target language .The nature sameness may be assessed in terms of meaning,forms,medium,item

and distribution. Taxonomic models may be applied to both autonomous and generalized descriptive or linguistic models.

To make CLA operational, contrasts will have to be expressed as a series of conversions performed on the source language in order to produce the forms of the goal language.In taxonomic model, the analyst seeks those elements that are shared and unshared by the source and the goal languages and identifies them according to hierarchy of difficulties,(Di Pietro,1971). Withman (1970) proposed a distinction between the strong version and the weak version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. In its strongest formulation, the contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that all the errors made in learning the L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be sustained by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid- and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by contrastive analysis were inexplicably not observed in learner's language. Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L2. It thus became clear that Contrastive Analysis could not predict all learners' difficulties but was certainly useful in the respective explanation of error.

The CA hypothesis has been predominant in L2 learning theory with ramifications in pedagogy as well. In the strong version of the paradigm, researchers believe that errors in L2 learning could be attributed to patterns in the NL. It was considered theoretically possible to predict what errors would be made by making a careful detailed comparison of a learner's L1 and L2. Differences would constitute potential sources of errors. The weak version is a model with an explanatory power as opposed to a predictive power. That is, it is claimed that researchers can look at errors once they have been combined and offered explanations why those errors occurred (Mattar 2005). Furthermore, the strong version of CA refers to areas of complexity in the TL, which are expected by comparing L1 and L2.

The areas of contrast will then form the basis for teaching materials. In contrast, the weak version of CA attempts to account for observed errors. Starting with classroom data and using the differences between the two linguistic systems to clarify the errors. Critics of the Strong Hypothesis include, among others, Kreshen (2008). They saw the SH as over bearing approach to the analysis of errors. It failed to recognized factors influencing learning such as individual learning pace, slow or fast learners, the physical state of the learner, motivation etc. According to Nickel (1971), the strong version of this approach is not only a resource of exploring errors but also a method for expecting them.

The weak version presumed that teacher will have a comprehensible depiction of the trouble area before the learner start learning them Al-khresheh(2013). The above indicated that the strong version of CA involves the process of expecting the area of complexity in the TL by comparing the L1 and L2. The expected problems or predictions, however, have been found to be inadequate. The move was then towards would the weak version. A comparison between L1 and L2 systems was made to explain errors after they had occurred, rather than to predict them. The weak version of CA hypothesis therefore seems to be closer to Error Analysis theory (EA) in that both start with students' errors. Proponents claim that errors are not only inter-lingual but also inter-lingua or developmental. Also, the intra-linguistic factors like informality, handicap etc. ought to be considered in the process of analyzing errors (Coder 1967; Richard 1970; Selinker 1972; James 1983 &Odlin 1989).

Critics of CA argue that neither of these assumptions is valid. However, proponents of CA have never claimed that CA can necessarily predict all errors in L2 production. Problems resulting from comparing the FL with NL should be regarded as hypothetical until concluding validation is accomplished by checking it against the real speech of learners. The weak version of the CA hypothesis does not assert that CA has any predictive

power. Rather, it claims that CA can only identify errors resulting from L1 interference. Thus, Chao (2013) explains that the weak version of CA hypothesis requires the teacher to have adequate knowledge about the language. This would enable him to address the difficulties in L2 learning.

2.5 Steps for Contrastive Analysis

Steps for Contrastive Analysis can be used to understand the differences as well as the similarities between the learner's NL and the TL. Knowledge of the similarities and differences can be of great help in understanding L2 errors, (Aliyu 2015). CA procedures give a great systemic description to both languages (L1 & L2). CA can be broken down to a set of component procedures. Al-khresheh (2016) gives five steps for making a systematic comparison and contrast of any two languages. They are selection, description, comparison, prediction and verification.

The first step is to select or take the two languages, L1 and L2, and writing formal descriptions of them. Writing a formal description needs choosing a special theoretical model which can be traditional, structural or transformational. In this step, there is a need to decide what is to be contrasted and compared. That is because it is quite difficult to compare everything (sound, word, structure...etc.) so the analysis should be limited to a specific category. Once the selection is done, the selected linguistic units and structures can be described. This step is called 'description'. The two languages should be linguistically described within the same theory. The main focus should be on the differences (Tinuoye 1991 & Yusuf 2008).

Secondly, having described the linguistic-selected units, it is crucial to compare the structures with each other. This step is called 'comparison'. In this step, the differences and similarities can be compared in form or meaning. Here, the term 'form' refers to any

linguistic unit of any size. It is impossible to clearly compare the two languages without giving a full description (Ibrahim, 2013).

The next step is 'prediction'. It is about making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast. The CA can noticeably predict for the similarities and differences of the two compared languages. Based on the researcher's knowledge, he/she can judge if the differences and similarities are problematic or not. Stockwell (I965) proposes a 'hierarchy of difficulty' based on the notions of transfer, optional and obligatory choices of certain linguistic units in the two languages in contrast. When the structures of two languages are similar, positive transfer will occur but with those different, a negative transfer will take place. Where there is no relation between those structures of the two languages, zero transfer will occur. The following criteria suggested by Stump (2014) can be used to establish the 'preferred pedagogical sequence': hierarchy of difficulty, functional load, potential mishearing and pattern congruity.

2.6 C.A. Procedures

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2.7 Weak and Strong Version of Contrastive Analysis.

The weak version of C.A. hypothesis does have the same requirements as the strong version. Therefore, the approach used by the weak version, in theory, makes fewer demands on C.A. than the strong CA version does. The weak version uses the evidence provided by the linguistic interference. It use this evidence to explain the similarities and differences between the two languages. Types of Tran Language transfer is generally divided into two main categories- positive or negative. According to Gass & Larry (2001), positive transfer results in correct utterances and facilitates language learning. Basically, the learner's L1 might facilitate L2 learning. This study considers strong hypothesis as results oriented because several studies have been completed in support of the SH. For instance, Adeyanju (1971) finds CA capable of predicting global and local errors of the Hausa students learning English sentence patterns.

Similarly, Olaofe (1982) justified the support for the use of CA in predicting verbal errors of Yoruba students learning English verbal patterns. He justifies Lado (1957)

assertions that, the basic premise of CA hypothesis is that language learning can be more successful when the two languages – the native and the foreign – are similar. Nevertheless, negative transfer results with incorrect outcomes. It results in deviations from the TL. Ibrahim (2013) points out that there are four types of divergences that are caused by differences between NL and TL. They can be summarized as overproduction, underproduction, misinterpretation and production

Fries (1952) express this awareness in more practical terms, that "the most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learnt, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". In this statement lies the root of CA;that L2 learners tend to transfer the characteristics of their NL into the FL. The learners transfer the forms and meaning of their NL and culture productively when attempting to speak the FL (Bowers, 2002). These two statements are often quoted to show the need for CA in teaching and learning a FL. According to Gass & Larry (2001), contrastive analysis compare languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learnt. They discuss the two positions of CA, which they call "predictive" and "explanatory", and "strong" and "weak" version, respectively.

Despite the criticism, there are several studies in CA that cut across almost all aspect of linguistic in relation to man. Oller & Reading (1971); Dulay & Burt (1974); Olaofe (2010) state three students' performances in written test on English language articles. They submitted that speakers of language with "articles" tend to use the English articles more accurately than speakers of language not having articles. Makattash (2016) discusses the differences between the strong and the weak versions of CA. The strong version claims to be able to predict errors, whilst the weak one able to diagnose the errors after they have been made. However, he states that CA is always predictive, whereas the

job of diagnosing errors after they have been made belongs to Error Analysis (EA). So, it could be understood that CA must be done prior to EA, in order to avoid problems with error-identification. Jamal (2013) explains the differences between theoretical CA and applied CA, and claims that theoretical CA is static, whilst applied CA is unidirectional. Briefly, CA assumes that L2 learners' errors are the result of negative interference from the NL. Accordingly, CA predicts errors before they happen and it tries to eliminate them by focusing the instruction on the areas of differences. Fig. 1 below illustrates CA procedures.

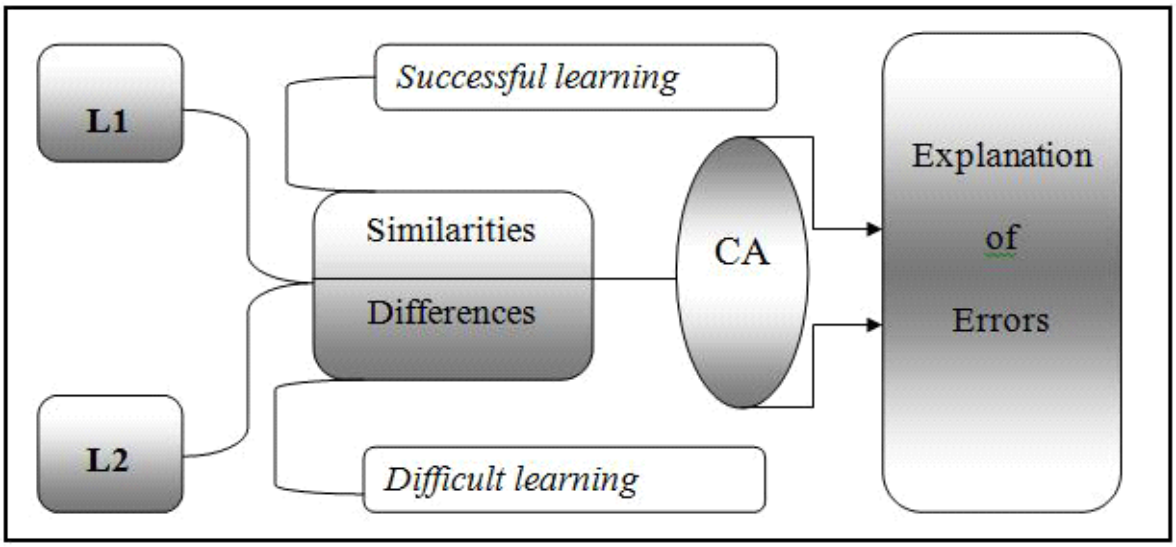


Fig. 1 C.A. Procedure (Al-khresheh, 2016)

The diagram shows CA as pedagogical, explaining errors committed by L2 learners by comparing between the two systems of the TL and NL of the learners. CA is a linguistic comparison of the structures of two or more languages so as to demonstrate their differences and similarities. Ibrahim (2013) analyses Turkish language with English and confirmed that when the L1 and L2 are different, learning might be relatively unsuccessful or difficult. Adeyanju (1970) identifies areas of difficulty for Hausa native speakers learning English. He noted areas of past tense with non-past, word often in noun cluster. In another development Olaofe (1982:215) contrast English and Yoruba verbal system. He

discovered that Yoruba and English have similar notion of tense marker and the two language use different items in the expression of tenses.

Similarly, Fromkin(2013) discovers French interference in the morphological processes of using "s" affixation. Learners omit the "s" affix where its uses is necessary, but over generalization of the affix to exceptional situation in relation to verbs. In other word, learners face difficulty in inflection of verbs to indicate the various verbs forms like – *ed*markers to irregular verbs. At the discourse level, Lindfors (1972) submits in a CA of fourteen novels written in English by Yoruba and Ibo authors. He found that Ibo use proverb to add emphatic weight to situations proportionally. Yoruba authors engage in verbal excesses in their background. CA study provide useful and highly perceptive information about the language they compare.

2.8 Relevance of Contrastive Analysis.

In spite of criticism, it should be noted that current research has revived interest in CA as a complementary and necessary part of the theory of SLA, that cannot be ignored. CA comprises a series of statements about the differences and similarities between two languages. There has always been a component of CA in FL teaching. Johnson (2015) asserts that CA is being reassessed, and its applicability to language teaching is viewed in a different light. CA has been widely used for constructing the previous studies' theoretical framework. Adopting CA theory by some of the latest studies is a good indicator to its effectiveness in describing L2 learners' errors. There are numerous studies that show the effectiveness of CA, such as Adeyaju (1971); Olaofe (1982); Kharma & Ali (2014) & Chao (2013) etc. The knowledge about the kinds and degree of differences between languages on a number of linguistic levels help in predicting possible difficulties faced, with pedagogical relevance .

Kharma &Ali (2014) look from the pedagogical perspective, and revealed that CA help students to see clearly some of the problems they might face. They may avoid making interlingual errors if they are completely aware of the possible difficult areas. They claim CA to provide access for EFL/ESL teachers to diagnose students' errors. Teachers may not expect students' errors in advance, but at least they can have the ability to explain or diagnose students' errors through CA. Identification of differences and similarities between languages might have a great contribution to the linguistic theory. This fact has been clearly acknowledged by several researchers, such as Al-khresheh (2015), Chao, (2013) and Matter, (2016). They declare that it might be helpful to compare L1 and L2 in the classroom to highlight differences and similarities. Therefore, CA remains an influential construct in the field of SLA. CA may contribute to a better understanding of the acquisition process of English L2 structures. It could be said that one of the undoubted merits of CA is the fact that it offered a natural explanation to the errors committed by L2/FL learners (Obong & Oduodom 2015).

CA regards most errors to be the effect of a phenomenon of inter lingual interference. These patterns existing in the learner's L1 are transferred as such into his/her use of the language to be learnt. Viewed from this standpoint, EA had no appropriate status. It was a mere addition to CA. Mihalache (2014) asserts that the main purpose of CA studiesis not only a better understanding of the linguistic structure, but also applied deductions, meant to raise the entire teaching activity above the empirical and occasional practice, to outline fundamental teaching programs based on the scientific knowledge of the language.

The researcher suggests that CA should rest on language universals; otherwise, there is only arbitrariness in the surface manifestation of the contrast. The purpose of CA, then, is to show that universal deep structures manifest themselves in surface structures via

transformational rules Di pietro(1971). At that level, transformational rules must be contrasted to see where the problem areas will appear.

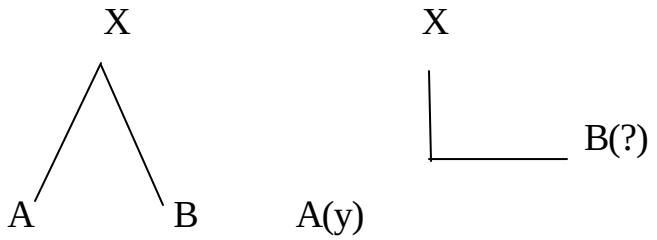


Fig a:theoretical C.A. *fig b: applied C.A.*

Fig 2. Transformational Rules.

- *L1 has a rule, L2 an equivalent.*
- *L1 has a rule but L2 has no equivalent.*
- *L2 has a rule not matched by L1.*

C.A. can be of importance even to the theoretical linguist who looks for some support for his theory of language. Researchers in SLA maintain the position that CA can contribute to 'translation theory', language typology, the description of particular languages and the study of language universals.Once the differences have been identified, it is the job of the FL teaching program writer to develop such materials that can help students reduce these differences. Furthermore, it is the job of the teacher to be aware of these differences and rules so that he/she is better prepared to teach the language (Mihalache, 2015).

The past studies of Afemai language have focus mainly on the historical, proverbs, culture and phonology of Afemai. Oseni (2003) & Anhemhome (1981) write on orthography. The morphological aspects of the language remain unexamined fully. The consequences are obvious that the Afemai morphological structures and processes are not brought to lime-light even for the orthography to be a reality. The present study would contrast the structures of both languages in other to identify their similarities and differences with their teaching implications.

2.9 Weakness of Contrastive Analysis

1. Contrastive predictions cannot be solely based on the assumption that whatever is similar easy and whatsoever is different is difficult. The continuum same similar different is not parallel with the continuum no problem easy different, rather they form matrix.
2. CA predicts some errors never observed in actual classroom situations. Its statements are dubious in quality.
3. It relies on out-modelled behaviourist model and lacked unified theory.
4. Doubts are expressed about the validity of the contrasts which is termed not so accurate. Some differences do not lead to difficulty. Some language difficulties are not due to language interference.Child bilingualism shows only minimal evidence of language transfer.

2.10 Concept of Morphology

The term morphology is generally attributed to the poet and philosopher,Johann Wolfgang Goethe (1749 – 1832). He coined it from biological context. Its etymology is Greek: morph meaning 'shape, form'. Morphology therefore means the study of form or forms. In biology, morphology refers to the study of the structure of organisms. In linguistics, Morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation, their internal structure and how they are form, (Fudema 2014).

One major way of investigating words, their internal structural formation, identification and study is through morphemes. This is defined as the smallest linguistics pieces with a grammatical functions.

Yule (2007) defines Morphology as the identification, analysis and description of the structure of words. He sees morphology as the study of morphemes and their arrangement in forming words. Morpheme is the minimal unit of meaning of grammatical

functionTomori (1977), Mattew (2004) and Omoniwa (2004) in Aliu (2004) state that morphology deals with morphemes and how they function in the structure of words. This involves the pattern of word forms, their formation, origin, and grammatical forms. Morphemes, therefore is the study of the smallest unit of speech having semantic or grammatical meaning and their formation into words. Omoniwa (2004) posited that *salt. salts, salting. salted, trader* as different morpheme because the unit and phonemic form – s,-ing,-ed,-ə exhibit same semantic distinctiveness.

2.11 Morphological Processes

Morphological processes are methods through which words are formed in a language,(Quirk & Greenbaum 2000). It is also seen as the changes that occur in words when they are found in a given environment. Morphological processes concerned with how a root changes its form to fit into syntactic and communicative context. The kerned of a word is the root or base (Anshen 2010).Every language has its own set of morphological rules which is strictly adhered to by its users. Morphology is the branch of linguistics that study the compatibility and rule of word formation. It is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of a given language's morphemes and other linguistic units. Morphemes are the minimal grammatical and meaningful units of words that can be analysed. Theyare the building blocks in expression(Jibir-Daura 2012). Lyons (2007) gives a classification of morpheme as shown in Fig .3

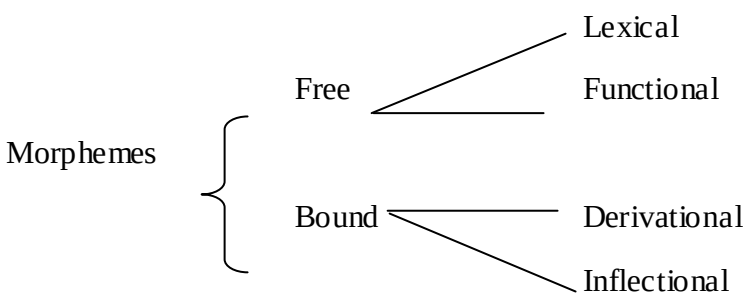


Fig. 3 Classification of Morpheme

Morpheme as a fundamental unit of morphological process is defined according to Nida (1974) as "the minimal meaningful unit out of which a language is composed". An example of Afemai morpheme can be seen in the word ***'oyime'*** (farmer). This can be segmented as ***'ime'*** (farm) ***'oyi'*** 'doer' prefix and an English equivalent to derivational suffix (er) in farm-farmer.The devices by which the constituent words of a paradigm are differentiated from one another are known as morphological processes. Five kinds of morphological processes may be distinguished.They are affixation, internal change, compounding, suppletion, zero-modification.

2.12 Affixation

Affixes are the recurrent formative morphemes of words other than roots. Affixes are of three types, which are:

i. Prefixes: Prefixed to the root, e.g., incomplete, illegal, dishonest, etc.

ii. Suffixes: suffixed to the root, e.g., houses, boyish, darkness, etc.

iii. Infixes: Inserted within the root, and found frequently in many languages but not in English.

2.13 Compounding

Words in English are generally head-final. This means that the lexical category of the form as a whole matches that of its final constituent. There are two type of compounding in English–endocentric and exocentric. These terms are related to the notions of motivation and compositionality. An endocentric compound is one that has a head. The head expresses the core meaning of the word. For example, 'goldfish'. It has a head 'fish', which determines the meaning and the lexical category. Compounds whose lexical category or meanings are not determinable from the head are exocentric suh as figurehead. Other examples include blackboard, post office, blackbird, blue tooth, icebox, typewriter, etc.

2.14 Suppletion

Suppletion may be regarded as an extreme kind of internal change, in which the entire base- not merely a part ofit is replaced by another form. The English paradigm: 'go, goes, went, gone' going, shows irregularity. One of its irregularities is that the past tense of 'go' is replaced by a completely different base 'went'. In English, there aresuppletive affixes as well as suppletive bases. The suffixes /-s, -z, -iz/ forms the plural of most nouns in English but the plural of 'ox' is formed with the suffix /-en/, and the plural of 'child' with /-ren/. This is accompanied by internal change of the base. The suffixes /-en and -ren/ are suppletive to the regular suffix /-s, -z, -iz/.

2.15 Zero-Morphemes

It is always useful to speak of zero-modification, (zero-suffix, zero-change, etc.), in describing the morphology of a language. Most English nouns form their plural by adding /- s/suffix to the base, but sometimes a few words form their plural by the addition of a zero suffix symbolized as /0/,e.g., deer, sheep, fish, etc.

2.16 Derivation

This is the most common word- formation process to be found in the production of new English words. This process is called derivation. It is accompanied by means of a large number of small 'bits' of the English language which are not usually given separate listing in dictionaries. These small 'bits' are generally described as affixes, (Yule 2006).

Affixes are of two types: inflectional or derivational. Inflectional affixes are grammatical in nature and occur after the root, and no further affixation can be added to the form, e.g., 'develops', 'drinks', 'cups'. Inflectional affixes are terminal, and no other suffix can be added after the inflectional suffix is used. Inflectional suffixes donot change the word class. Derivational suffixes, can occur medially, finally or initially, Furthermore,

derivational affixes make new stems, e.g., 'organize, organizer, organization', 'equipment', 'manly', 'irregular', 'darkness, 'employment'.

Derivational affixes may or may not change the word class. Class-maintaining derivational suffixes are those that produce derived forms of the same class as the underlying form. They do not change the class or parts of speech. Thus, the suffixes/-hood/ and/-ship/ in 'friendship', and 'childhood', are class-maintaining derivational suffixes, they produces nouns out of nouns after affixation. Class-changing derivational suffixes are those that produce form of another class. Thus, the suffixes/-ish/ and /-ment/ in 'boyish' and 'development' have changed the nouninto adjective, and the verb into a noun respectively.

2.17 Inflection

The word ‘inflection’ comes from traditional Latin grammar. Its root ‘flect’ means bending. Every sentence is a syntactic frames with position for a series of words. To fill one of those positions, a lexeme from the lexicon is taken and bend to fit in. Hence, inflectional morphology is determined by syntax. Examples are ‘book+s,fox+es,load+ed,see+n,drink+ing etc.English nouns are inflected for four categories Number, Gender, Case and Person

2.18 Number

English number system comprises singular, which denotes 'one', and plural, which denotes 'more than one'. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns. Count nouns are variable, occurring either singular or plural number 'boy-boys', or have invariable plural 'cattle' (Quirk & Greenbaum 2000).In English, the regular plural is formed by the addition of the sibilant suffix /-s/ to the singular .It has three allomorphs which are phonologically conditioned, i.e., the choice of /-s, -z, -iz/ is determined by the final sound of the nouns to which plural forming suffix appears. For

instance, 'books, boys, roses', etc. In other words, theplural morpheme has three allomorphs, i.e., /-s, -z, and –iz.In addition to singular and plural, we may distinguish dual number in case of both, either, and neither.Besides the regular plural morpheme /-s/, there are a number of irregular formations that are as follows:

1. Stem modification, by adding /-s/. e.g., 'thieves, knives, baths'.
2. Adding /-en/ with or without additional internal change in the stem, e.g., 'oxen, brethren, children'.
3. By mutation, a change of vowel in the following nouns: 'foot - feet, man - men, woman - women, tooth- teeth, louse - lice, goose - geese, mouse - mice'.
4. By adding a zero morpheme to nouns, i.e., the plural is identical to the singular, 'fish, deer, sheep'.

Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are commoner in technical usage, whereas the –splural is more natural in everyday language; thus formulas (general) ~ formulae in mathematics), antennas (general and in electronics) ~ antennae (in biology), (Quirk & Grenbaum, 2000).

2.19 Gender

English makes very few gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close, inas natural sex distinctions determine English gender distinction. In English, the gender of nouns as a grammatical device is defined solely in terms of pronouns substitutes -he, she, or it, which may be used in its place. Gender has little role of grammatical significance (Jamal, 2013).

Similarly, Afemai language has nouns that are complex and often correspond to a full sentence Anaemomhe (1983) . The following examples indicateAfemai with English meaning.

Afemai Nouns	**English Meaning**
Onoshothona	the one God has blessed
Asenogena	lets praise our creator
Esikhena	I fear the Lord only
English Nouns	**Afemai Meaning**
Foolishness	*ad eke o nwu na anyo*
Great farmer	*ogwime no kua ne kpo*
Provider	*ono le na mhe*
Happiness	*egbe ne whume*

2.20 Identification of Morphemes

Morphemes are the ultimate elements of morphological analysis. Jibir-Daura (2012) identifies morphemes as building block of meaning and grammar. She observe that some meanings are very concrete and can be describe easily while others are abstract and more difficult to described. Thus:

Binabi	-	beatle (Tiv)	
Ihe	-	Thing (Igbo)	free, concrete and easy
Kwano	-	bowl (Hausa)	
alo	-	House (Afemai)	
aibu	-	(Tiv)	
ri	-	(Kanuri)	bound, abstract and difficult
ono	-	Afemai	

In structuralists tradition, interests lay more in morpheme as the basic unit of syntax, rather than its role within the word Harris(1969). The ultimate purpose of grammatical construction is to express meaning, Afemai morphemes have meanings even when that meaning is abstract. For instance:

Afemai Words		**English Equivalent**
eghenumhe	-	rabbit
agua	-	dog
iza	-	evil

okabo	-	town crier	free,concrete and easy
aghu	-	stomach	
omosi	-	girl	
otsemhi	-	cricket	
egba	-	gathering	

Afemai Morph			**EnglishMeaning**	
- a	*as in*	*iyom**a***	(our mother)	
- to	-	***to** bona*	(give help)	
- khe	-	***khe** me*	(wait for me)	abstract and difficult
- re	-	***re** na me*	(give me)	
- le		*ule **le** me*	(deceive me)	
- bi		***bi** no na me*	(watch for me)	

These are bound morphemes that are inflected to other morphemes. They cannot exist in isolation. English examples of prefixes and suffixes include – **un, - dis, – ness, - ful, - ment, - ly, - s, - er,** etc. Thus:Happi**ness**, manage**ment**, faith**ful**, angri**ly, dis**organize, **un**limited and teacher**s**

Afemai language poses some more abstract morphological facts. Jibir-Daura (2010) refers to them as bound morphemes. They are embedded in the language and deeper and more complex, but functional and meaningful as parts of words or sentences.

Nida (1974) provides six principles on how a morpheme could be identified. Firstly, they noted that forms that exhibit common semantic distinctiveness and identical phonemic form are similar morphemes. Using / Ə / sound in such words as 'dancer', trader, farmer, singer etc. He observed them as having the same semantic meaning and identical phonemic forms. Thus,thecommon meaning of 'doer of something'. Omoniwa in Aliu (2004;40) posit that there are words sharing this same phonemic form / Ə / but does not

have the sense of 'doer of something'. The following examples of **mother**, **brother**, **sister** lend support to the argument.

Morphemes that have semantic distinctiveness and identical phonemic forms include the sound /s/ as found in **jumps**, **comes,** etc. of the third person singular verbs.They are not the plural formation of such words. Yule (2007) makes a broad distinction between two types of morphemes: **free** and **bound** morphemes. The free morphemes can stand by themselves as single words. For example **open, tour, free, boys, head, man, table** etc.

2.21 Morphemes of English

Root Words	**Suffixes**	
Open	open + ed	opened
Tour	tour + ist	tourist
Free	free + dom	freedom
Boys	boy + s	boys
Head	head + ing	heading
table	table + s	tables
Farm	*farm+s farm+ing farm+ed*	
Kill	*kill+s, kill+ing, kill+ed*	
Happy	*happi+ly, happi+ness*	
Book	*book+s, book+ish, book+ing*	
Child	*child+ren, child+ish, child+ren+s*	
Play	*play+s, play+ing, play+ed*	
Dance	*dance+d, danc+ing*	
Run	*ran(past)*	*run+ning*

From the above analysis, Tomori (1977) in Aliu (2004) posited two requirements for the description of the morphology of a language:

- Identification of the grammatical morphemes, their allomorphs, and conditioning factors, and
- Specification of the possible shapes of words as combination of morphemes of various types.

In the above illustration, the lexical morphemes are in along with the lexical words .Grammatical morphemes give mainly information about the grammatical structure of the utterances. They are generally demanded by grammar and contribute relatively abstract schematic meanings concerning the functions of the lexical items. Hence they are often called *function* morphemes. Like the lexical morphemes, they can be either free or bound. Thus:

Afemai Words	**B/Morph**	**Prefixes**
usomi	*+/i/=*	***i****somi*
umago	*+/i/=*	***i****mago*
obo	*+/a/=*	***A****bo*
ekoi	*+/a/=*	***A****ko*
oma	*+/e/=*	***E****ma*
otha	*+/e/=*	***e****tha*
omo	*+(change)*	***i****via*
omofe	*+/i/=*	***I****mofe*
aki	*+(zero morpjeme)*	***a****ki*
oji	*+/i/=*	***i****ji*

2.22 Morphemes of Afemai

One important aspect of morphology is the morphemes and morphs. According to Fudeman (2001) a 'morph' sometimes used to refer specifically to the phonological

realization of a morpheme. For instance, the English past tense morpheme -ed has various morph it is realize as /t/ after the voiceless /p/ of jumped, /d/ in repelled and /t/ in rooted. Unlike English, Acheoah (2012) submitted that Afemai verbs do not undergo inflectional process in tense. Instead it is the context of use that tells whether the verbs are future e.g.

Afemai	**Meaning**
ma-la	they went
i-la :	I went
i-la :	I went yesterday
:u-la :	you go

The fact that a speaker added ***enode*** or***enekpode***communicated to the learner a past action and time adverbial.eg:

Ila enode	-	yesterday
Ila enekpode	-	day before
Ila akwelek use	-	four days past
Ila utumo ele	-	eight days past

Also, it is noted that a stem may be morphologically simple or complex. A morphologically simple stem is often called a "root". An "affixes" is an inflectional or derivational morphs added to a stem. Affixes which precede their stem are "prefix" and those which follow their stem are suffixes and inserted affixes are "infixes". Below is an example in English and Afemai.

Afemai		**English**
oti	-	good
oati	-	bad
ogba	-	big

oshe - small

okeke - little

Tomori (2004) posit that the very heart of a word is known as the root of the word. In a further development, the stem of a word is that part of the word to which the last morpheme in the word is structurally added.

English			Afemai	
Base		***Base+morph***	***Base***	***Base+morph***
Boy	-	boy+s	**ava(gun)**	**iva /a/ change /i/**
calf	-	calves/change/	**ukhomi (head)**	**Ikhomi /u/ " /i/**
foot	-	feet /"/	**Ugwugwu (basket)**	**igwugwu /u/ " /i/**
sheep	-	sheep /O/	**ogiede (hunter)**	**igiede /o/ "/i/**
larva	-	larvae /"/	**osuma (sheep)**	**isuma /o/"/i/**
day	-	day+s	**ogbele (day)**	**egbele /o/"/e/**
axis	-	axes /"/	**omo (child)**	**ivhie(change)**
child	-	children/"/	**omose (man)**	**emose /o/ "/e/**
man	-	men /"/	**ashama (louse)**	**ishama** /a/"/i/

louse -	lice /”/	**ikho (house**	**ikho** () (zero morpheme)
ox -	**oxen /”/**	**aki (market)**	**aki(markets)(zero morpheme)**

Languages operate differently even though their basic aim of effective communication cannot be denied. Lyons (1992) provides a fairly good insight into the nature of Language types, but the fact remain that there are no perfect or pure types. Classification of languages according to isolating, agglutinating, inflection etc. is based on the degree to which such language reflects towards one category.

2.23 Prefixes

Prefixes are added to the beginning of a word. Some common prefixes are 'mis', 'dis', 're', 'for', 'anti', 'ante', 'sub', 'un' and 'in'. New words are made by placing a prefix in front of a word. It is helpful to know the meanings of prefixes. Prefix **'re'**means **again,** therefore **reappear** means to appear **again.** Common prefix meanings.

pre – before

mis – bad (ly)

sub – under

inter – between

semi - half

The following prefixes of **'im', 'ir', 'il', 'in'** and **'un'** can be added to the beginning of words to make them into a negative:

Im + possible = impossible

ir + responsible = irresponsible

il + legal = illegal

in + active = inactive

un + happy = unhappy

dis + appointment = disappointment

2.24 Suffixes

Letters added to the end of a main word are called suffixes. Common suffixes are: **'ed', 'ful', 'ly', 'ing', 'able', 'ance', 'ence', 'ness'.** When 'full' is added to a word you drop the final 'l'. If you add 'ly' to any word ending with 'ful' you keep the existing 'l'. Other examples are:

hand + full = handful

rest + full = restful

restful + ly = restfully

Fashion+-able = fashionable

Friend+-ly = friendly

Expect+-ed = expected

Fortunate+-ly = fortunately

Fool+-ish = foolish

Manage+-ment = management

High+-er = higher

Doubt+-ful = doubtful

Announce+-r = announcer

Agriculture + ral = agricultural

2.25 Circumfixation

A **circumfix** is an affix which has two parts, one placed at the start of a word, and the other at the end. Circumfixes contrast with prefixes, attached to the beginnings of words; suffixes, attached at the end; and infixes, inserted in the middle. Circumfixes are uncommon in Afemai and English language.

2.26 Derivational Morpheme

English words can be grouped into two morphological classes:

- Base words eg child, house, demand teach etc
- Derived words- one root+ bound morpheme(s) eg.

  friendly= friend + ly;

  bookshops, = book+shop+s

Afemai has some derived words in nouns:

Base	**Base+Morph**	**Meaning**
omoti:	omo + ti	(child good)
esikhena:	*esi +khena*	(God protect)
anopogena:	*anopo + ogena*	(fear God)
ape nosomi	*ape+nosomi:*	(house)+ nosomi(good)
bhe amho:	*bhe+mho*	(come)+ mho (take)

Similarly studies of Afemai words show evidence of derived words in its kinship:

Base	**Base+Morph**	**Meaning**
Inyoma	inyo+ma	mother
Inyio kpama	inyo+kpama	our brother/sister
Inyio kpamame	inyo+kpame	my brother/sister

2.27 Infixes

Yule (2007) discuss this type of affixation as not normally to be found in English, but fairly to be observed in some other languages. This is an affix which is incorporated inside another word. Jibir-Daura (2012) explains that infixes are affixes that occur within other morphemes, and not between them. For instance Afemai has this as infix:

onoti (good) +/a/ onoati (bad) ″

2.28 Loan Words

No language is an island. Every human language is known to have borrowed words and expression from other languages through contacts(Banjo 2004). Afemai has borrowed words from English, while English has done the same from French, Latin Greek etc. Because most Afemai words end with a vowel and consonant cluster are not usually observed. Most borrowed words of English into Afemai undergo some morphological changes reflecting this phenomenon. The consequence of this is that Afemai learners of English tend to pronounce the original word in English as adapted when borrowed into Afemai language. Thus:

English words		**Afemai(equivalent)**
Motor	-	*Umoto*
Nail	-	*Ughanei*
Bucket	-	*Iboketi*
Mango	-	*Umago*
Radio	-	*Iradio*
Television	-	*Itelevishio*
Window	-	*Iwido*
Drum	-	*Iduromi*
Cashew	-	*Icashu*
Cup	-	*Ikopu*

2.29 Compound Formation

One type of derivational process common in English and also noticed in Afemai language is compound formation. Two separate words are joined together to form a single word, or a new word with a new meaning. It involves the stringing together of at least two

root which occur elsewhere as independent words to form a new word. Palmer (2014) describes it as a complex lexeme thought to consist of two or more base lexeme. It is the most productive morphological processes in both English and Afemai. Examples in English and Afemai are shown below.

English	**Afemai**	**meaning**
playground	*ibedi othe/ibedi akui*	(iron bed/wood bed)
everlasting	*bheamo*	come take
toolbar	*bheamuga*	stand/take change
green house	*afereolu*	cotton bird
school bus	*okposoenabo*	foreign woman
headmaster	*osogbonabegie*	bride/groom
chairman	*okokeke*	smallest fine
bookshop	iziaoekpa	hero
motorcycles	elamiokogwa	bushmeet
white cloth	ukponopa	white cloth

2.30 Reduplication

Another means of expressing inflection common in certain languages English and Afemai inclusive is reduplication. It is the process of repetition of a word or part of a word in order to generate a new word or meaning. Reduplication could be partial where only the initial syllable is repeated. Akmajian (2014) observes that a specific part of the singular form is reduplicated to construct the plural form.Fudeman (2010) cites an example with Indonesian plural formation. Thus:

Indonesian	**English**
kuda-kuda	horses

rumah-rumah houses

perubahan-pembahan changes

Fundeman (2010) however defends that speakers of Indonesian have the option of using reduplicated form to refer to either singular or plural. Therefore, "kuda" not only means 'horse' but also 'horses'.The study shows Afemai language using reduplication for emphasis especially on verbs. For instance;

Afemai		**English**
ovie -vie	-	cry-cry
ime-me	-	talk -talk
nya-nya	-	fast-fast
shigo-shigo	-	mystery
ekwe-ekwe	-	surprise-surprise
gie gie	-	to be tall
ojo ojo	-	elder
omo omo	-	younger
kaka	-	dry or strong

Reduplication is often considered marginal in English Sometimes the whole stem is repeated, as a *fifty-fifty*, *helter-skelter*, *flip-flap, zig-zag, dilly-dally* Quirk(2014).

2.31 Review of Afemai Alphabet, Acheoah,(2012)

The researcher explore the morphological properties of English and Afenmai, so as to show that two different languages may have same word-formation processes, yet differ in certain areas which reveal their morphological identity. Thus, Afemai alphabet comprises:

A	***B***	***CH***	***D***	***E***	***E***	***FH***	***G***	***GB***	***GBH***	***GH***	***H***	***I***
J	***K***	***KH***	***KP***	***KPH***	***KW***	***L***	***M***	***MH***	***N***	***NW***	***NY***	
	O											
O	***P***	***R***	***RH***	***S***	***SH***	***T***	***TH***	***TS***	***U***	***V***	***VB***	
	VH											
W	***Y***	***YW***	***Z***	***ZH***								

1. *a/a/* lyoma o yi aki. (Mother has gone to themarket.)
2. b/a/ Ethama o ye ime. (Our father has goneto the farm.)
3. ch *l*t/ E mi ma yi Auchi (We are going toAuchi)
4. d/d/ Ade ke o nwu na anyo (Foolishness can be more intoxicating than wine.)
5. e/e/ Ime mha o lemhi (Our farm is large.)
6. e / Oni ena o kokomhi (The cow is fat).
7. f/f/ Kha ge inyo fia elamhi (Don't cutmeat like that.
8. fh /pf/ Fhi on'obe la yo otoo (Put that bookdown.)
9. g*Igl* Eke agogo o ya? (What is it by thetime?)
10. gh/gb/ Agiode o gbe ini (A hunter killed anelephant.)
11. gbh /gbh/ Osi the gbhemhe (God be with me.)
12. gh/v/ Ovhi mha e toto gbe (Our childrenare very strong.)
13. gw/gw/ Oni ugwe o she gbe (The pot is too small.)
14. h /h/ The common phoneme /h/represented by this letter is not used in Auchi, Uzairue and "some of the dialects of Afenami except in

exclamations e.g. "heo!" It exists, however, in many dialects especially those in Owan area. In Ora dialect, for example, we have a sentence like Ohi o ma re (God is the Creator.)

15. I /j/ Aki Uzairue o kokomhi somi somi (Uzairue market is very large.)

16. j /d3/ Esivue Ipjo Omoaka (Esivue is older than Omoaka.)

17. k /k/ Ogwime o ko eka (A farmer sowed somemaize.)

18. kh /Y/ /x/ Kha the ekho nwu mhe (Do not disgrace me.)

19. kp/kp/ Okpa o vie (A cock crows.)

20. kph/kph/ Emosi, a kphu ukhia ghi mhe(Emosi, go and pluck me some okro.)

21. kw/kw/ Etha nu gbano e kwaghle (The woodyou tied had loosened.)

22. L/1/ Ogwime no toto lo khona (This is astrong farmer.)

23. m/m/ Gie ame ya mhe (Get me somewater).

24. mh/mh/ Chi mheegbe re (Leave me alone.)

25. n/n/ O kha le emhi ne, o nano ikpiabo(When he finished eating yam, he licked his fingers.)

26. nw /rj^{w}/ Khu enwe yo oto (Pour ashes on theground.)

27. ny /n/ Gboni enye i (Kill that snake.)

28. o/o/ Otha okpa o mhe ogwa (A treecannot make a forest.)

29. *o/l* O mo shaa nabi oko oko (He is asfoolish as a millipede.)

30. p/p/ Tha apepe ghi mhe the fofo ege(Give a fan to fan my body.)

31. r/r/ Fhi dono eda oo re (Go-back, for theriver has overflowed.)

32. rh /r/ Em'e ze kh'ovbie o lu na rho (Why isyour child so dirty?)

33. s/s/ Isue o mho uvuamhi (The nose hasno lid)

34. sh/f/ Oshoke o mie ukpatata emo khui(Oshoke saw a star in the sky.)

35. t/t/ Kha tamhe ako (Do not bite me.)

36. th /th/ Osho the no oya (It is God whoprovides for people. This phoneme isanaffricate. It is usedmainly (if not solely) by Weppa-Wano clan in Etsako in place of rhor r which most other clans in*Afenmai* use.

37 ts *ts/* Thuutsatso ghi mhe (Get me abroom).

38. u/u/ Unoogbua o thua athu vue(Unoogbua is wearing a cap.)

39. v/v/ Ukpuvi tsotso kho na (What a nicepalm Kernel.)

40. vb/ / Ovba kh'oivba le (Home is home).This phoneme is occasionally writtenas bh as in *okpebho*, among theEsan

41. vh /vh/ Musa o vho tkpo lo (Musa washedhis clothes). This phoneme is mainlyused in Aviele (Ayuele) clan in placeof /f/ as used in most other clans of*Afenmai.*

42. w /w/ Awa o da la (A partridge flew away.)

43y /j/ lyo o s omhi gbe (Mother is verygood

44.yw /y/ O ywa ogbama enemode (She was delivered of a baby boy yesterday). Aviele clan in Etsako uses this phoneme often. In Auchi dialect, *yw* is often replaced with *vh*

45. z /z/ Kha gano nabi ozi (Do not crawl like a crab.)

46. zh /zh/ Uzhi o nwu lo (The law has caught up with him). This phoneme is used mainly by Aviele people instead of /s/ in most other dialects of *Afenmai*

2.32 Summary

This chapter discussed the place of contrastive analysis in applied linguistics. It explores the theories of CA including the controversies, strength and weakness. The chapter review well establish conceptual frame work; morphological structures of English and Afemai processes and types. It also reviewed some works on prefixes, suffixes, reduplication, compound formation, infixes etc. of English and Afemai languages. The research found Nida's (1974) descriptive methods useful and effective. He notes that formal description of morphological analysis should reflect the structures of the languages under consideration.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explainsthe procedures and methods used in eliciting information for the study. Therefore, the discussion focused on research design, source of data, population, sample technique and data analysis technique.

3.2 Research Design

Design can be described as an outline. A general arrangement or plan from which something may be made. According to Ajaiyi & Bello (2001), a research design is a plan or blue print which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. It provides the procedural outline for the conduct of any investigation.

The study used a descriptive research design. The aim is to contrasteand compare accept of the study of morphological process of the two languages under investigation. A descriptive research design involves gathering data that describes events and then organizes, tabulates, depicts and describes the data collected. According to Best & Kaln (1996), descriptive

design studies are "mainly concerned with describing events as they are without any manipulation of what is being observed. Thus, descriptive research design is an appropriate research plan that effectively would analyze the data collected.

3.3 Sources of Data

The study is a contrastive study of English and Afemai Morphological structures. To achieve a worthwhile research, the researcher depended on primary and secondary sources. These methods were employed simultaneously because there are related literature on research in English but minimal or non on the same topic in Afemai. Therefore, the primary and secondary methods were employed.

3.4 Primary Source

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;and as a native speaker of Afemai language. To produce a worthwhile work, native speakers of Afemai who are disposed to the language were used to authenticate data generated.

3.5 Secondary Source

The secondary sources of data consist of written records which include textbooks, journals dissertations, and pamphlets. Some of the written materials also includewordlists as proposed by Swadesh(2016) and Acheoah (2012).

3.6 Primary Method of Data Collection

A general knowledge of the language played an important role in data collection in this study. The researcher is a native speaker of Afemai and a L2 learner of English. The researcher is familiar with both languages under study. The approach was adopted to avoid artificially the Afemai data derived from the field.

3.7 Secondary Data

The secondary method provided quantitative data from written literatures, textbooks, journals, articles and published thesis. Also, the Swadesh (2016) word lists were used.

3.8 Population for the Study

Population according to Ajaiyi & Bello (2001) is any object or item that have one or more characteristics in common and of interest to the researcher. Population can be either homogenous or heterogeneous. The population used for this study are eighty eight words (88) each for the two languages.

3.9 Sample and sampling Technique

The research is based on the comparison of two languages – Afemai and English. CA need a clear dichotomy between the structures of both languages under study, especially with regards to the points of divergence and convergence. The data presented Afemai language, compared with forms and structures of the target language to ascertain differences. In order to answer the research questions accurately, the researcher use Nida's six principles of identifying morphemes to examine both language. 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.

3.10 Systematic Sampling

This involves selecting a sample at fixed intervals from the population. The researcher wrote down the number of all the houses where old and proficient speakers could be found. Okpekpe had 104, Ebelle 50. Inviukua 78, Agenebode 140, and Igiode 52. After carrying out the systematic sampling, the researcher got 12 houses in Okpekpe, 8 in Ebelle, 9 in Inviukua, 20 in Agenebode and 10 in Igiode.

The researcher interviewed a total number of forty two (42) informants. With guidance from the researcher, twenty-eight (28) of the informants were asked to supply lists of words from each of the word-formation given either as plural or singular. Fourteen (14) informants cross-checked the data for necessary correction.

3.11 Research Instrument

For a work of this nature, a single technique was consideredgrossly inadequate. Therefore, combinations of techniquewere usedcoupled with the researcher's introspection. Unstructured interview technique was alsobe used to gather relevant linguistic data from informants Also the researcher carefully listened to interaction within the subjects of the research to obtain information. Such interactions involved pleasantries unstructured interviews with speakers of the language and speeches at tribal meetings. Collected data in these settings provided opportunities for language comparison

3.12 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher collected data by listening to the speeches and utterances of the informants chosen for the purpose of the study.The corpus of the languages data would be analyzed by showing the morphological processes of English and Afemai to determine the occurrence of similarities and or difference. The procedure followed are Whitman (1970), Ibrahim,(2013), Tomori (1977) and Al-Khresheh (2016).to examine:

- Words prefixes formation in English and Afemai language
- Suffixes variation in English and Afemai.
- Infixes process in Afemai
- Areas of similarities and differences.
- Areas of ease and difficulty predicted.

The contrastive analysis model of Banathy (1969) in Al -Khresheh (2016) taxonomic model requires inventory of the features of the two languages to be formulated and matched with these three steps:

Step i: the researcher takes the inventory of what the learners have to learn in a particular area.

Step ii: identification of items in the inventory which are similar to the L1 and cultural features of the learners (in-put competence)

Step iii: compare and contrast the corpus data before prediction.

3.13 Data Analysis Techniques

The data analysis techniques used in this procedure is the analytic contrastive models of Jamal (2013) and Whitman (1970). Jamal's model holds that any CA should involve two stages.

Firstly, the stage of description where each of the two languages described at the appropriate level. The second stage was the stage of juxtaposition for comparison. The research was based on description of Afemai morphological process base on scientific, descriptive and taxonomic approach. Finally, comparing the morphological features or structures present in Afemai with English.This clarify areas of differences. The result was used to make predictions about Afemai learners of English (Umera,2016)..

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATIONS OF DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the findings of the morphological structure of Afemai and English language with implication for the teaching and learning of the second language. It examined the similarities and differences in the process of word formations, affixation, derivation, compounding and reduplication. The investigation focused on the major morphological process as identified in Tomori (2004), Ibrahim (2013), Acheoah (2012), Jamal (2013).

4.2 Method of Investigation

An unstructured interview was conducted on Afemai speakers randomly selected. The interview was designed to evaluate the informants ability to identify patterns of affixation in Afemai.

4.3 English Word Formation

For the purpose of the study, Swadesh (2016) words list were used for English and directly compared with Afemai. (see Appendix A and B).

4.3.1 Additive Morphemes

The additive morphemes in English language take the processes of additive units of word or morphemes to the base of the morphemes as prefixes and suffixes. For example:

Base Morph	**Prefix**	**Suffix**	**Additive Morph**
Construct	+ re	+ tion	reconstruction
Possible	+ im	+ lity	impossibility
Appoint	+ dis	+ ment	disappointment
Happy	+ un	+ ly	unhappily
Enchant	+ dis	+ ed	disenchanted

Central	+ de	+ ise	decentralise
Place	+ mis	+ ed	misplaced
Practice	+ mal	+ es	malpractices
Nourish	+ mal	+ ed	malnourished
Nation	+inter	+ al	international
Active	+ re	+ ion	reactivation
Lead	+ mis	+ ing	misleading
Fund	+ re	+ able	refundable
Faith	+ un	+ ful	unfaithful

4.3.2 Afemai Additive Morphemes

Affemai additive morphemes include prefixes, suffixes and sometimes phonemes. Thus:

Base Morph	**Prefix/ Suffix**		**Additive Morph**
Ovia	+ O.	+ mi	ovihiami
Mhe	+ itse	+ kho	itsemhekho
Oya	+ ono	+ osomi	onoyaosomi
Guhe	+ ikhe	+ nekpo	onogieghenkpo
Lema	+ ikhe	+ mhe	ikhelemamhe
Omosi	+ ono	+ me	onomosime
Ozao	+ ogomo	+ me	ogomozaome
Somi	+ I	+ neha	isomineha
Togia	+ eme	+osomi	emetogiaosomi
Kaka	+ o	+ gbe	okakagbe
Iko	+ gwi	+ ma	gwikoma
Muza	+ kha	+ ana	khamuzana

Emi	+ ule	+ ne	ulemine
Adeke	+ uga	+ gbe	uzadekegbe
Penna	+ kha	+ ana	kha pennana

4.4 Suppletion in English

Suppletion is another important morphological process, it take place when the syntax requires a form of a lexeme that is not morphologically predictable (Fudeman 2014) In English, the paradigm for the verb is characterized by suppletion. They are: is, am, was and were, which have different phonological shapes. Suppletion is also formed in pronouns. Thus:

I and me

She and her

Go and went

Is and was

Think and Thought

Catch and caught

Person and People

Foot and feet

See and saw

Eat and ate

Drink and drank

Jamal (2013) noted suppletion as an extreme kind of internal changes. The entire base and not merely a part of it is replaced by another form. The suffixes /-s, -z, iz/ forms the

plural of most nouns in English. The plural of 'OX' is formed with the suffix /en/, and the plural of 'Child' with /-ren/.

In words like: catch-caught, think-thought etc. Tomori (2007) called them partial suppletion. This is because the initial phoneme(s) of the word remain the same, but only the internal change to the end is noticed. The loss of segment and addition of a past tense indicator.

4.5 Suppletion in Afemai

The basic morphological division of the English pronoun are personal, relative, demonstrative etc. Afemai pronouns are similar to English language in variety and use (Acheoah 2012). Thus:

Free Forms	**Bound Forms**	**Possessive Forms**
Mhe (I)	mhe (me)	itsemhe (mine)
Gue (you)	gue (you)	itse (yours)
O. (she, he, it)	O. (him, her, it)	itso. (his, hers, its)
Imha (we)	mha (us)	itsemha (ours)
Itsea (they, them)	itsea (they)	nitsea (theirs)

Acheoah (2012) affirms that Afemai 'mhe' and 'gue' (I and you) could be used subject and object pronouns. The possessive pronoun 'itseme' (mine) is a contraction of two morphemes itse and mhe indication of 'mme. The two items are used as a single lexical item in the language.

4.6 Affixation

Affixation is type of derivational process that involve prefixes, suffixes, infixes and circumfixes.The findings primary focus on prefixes and suffixes in both language. English language does not have productive inffixation and circumfixation process.

4.6.1 Prefixes in English

Base	Bound Morph	Morpheme
Legal	+ il	illegal
Liberal	+ il	illiberal
Health	+ ill	ill health
Material	+ im	immaterial
Moral	+ im	immoral
Patient	+ im	impatient
Ability	+ in	inability
Dependence	+ in	independence
Happy	+ un	unhappy
Faithful	+ un	unfaithful
Search	+ re	research
Lead	+ mis	mislead
Treat	+ mal	maltreat
Agree	+ dis	disagree

4.6.2 Suffixation in English

Suffixes are unit of word or letter(s) added to the end of the main word to make another word. Most often, when a suffix is added to a word the word class is altered and its meaning affected.

Base	**Free Morph**	**Bound morph**	**Morphemes**
Dog	dog	+ s	dogs
Teach	teach	+ er	teacher
Lion	lion	+ ess	lioness
Free	free	+ dom	freedom
Race	race	+ ism	racism
Faith	faith	+ ful	faithful
Employ	employ	+ ee	employee
Absent	absent	+ ee	absentee
Pay	pay	+ ment	payment
Manage	manage	+ d	managed
Open	open	+ ing	opening
Post	post	+ age	postage
Ill	ill	+ ness	illness
Critic	critic	+ al	critical
Gold	gold	+ en	golden
Child	child	+ ren	children
Care	care	+ less	careless
Fool	fool	+ ish	foolish

Comfort	comfort	+ able	comfortable
Happy	happy	+ ly	happily

4.7 Zero Morphemes in English

This is a process of word-formation that changes the lexical category of a word without altering its phonological shape. For instance:

Noun (Singular)		**Noun (Plural)**
Sheep	Ø	sheep
Ship	Ø	ship
Deer	Ø	dear
Water	Ø	water
Fish	Ø	fish
Salmon	Ø	salmon
Cattle	Ø	cattle
Sun	Ø	sun
Rain	Ø	rain
Sand	Ø	sand
Fire	Ø	fire
Earth	Ø	earth
Red	Ø	red
Sleep	Ø	sleep
Dirty	Ø	dirty
Hot	Ø	hot
Cold	Ø	cold

All	Ø	all

4.8 Verbs

Cut	Ø	cut
Put	Ø	put
Let	Ø	let
Hit	Ø	hit
Quit	Ø	quit
Reset	Ø	reset
Burst	Ø	burst
Recast	Ø	recast
Hurt	Ø	hurt
Split	Ø	split
Shed	Ø	shed
Set	Ø	set
Rid	Ø	rid
Bet	Ø	bet

4.9 Derivation in English

Derivation is the most common word-formation process in the production of new English words they may change the word class or may not. Thus, the suffixes /-hood/ and /-

ship/in ‘friendship’ and childhood’ are class maintaining derivational suffixes. While class-changing in derivational suffixes produce the form of another class. Thus, the suffixes /-ish/ and /-ment/ in ‘boyish’ and ‘development’ have changed the noun into adjective, and the verb into a noun respectively. Others are:

Base	**Bound Morph**	**Derived Word**
Fish	+ ery	fishery
Tie	+ un	untie
Surface	+ re	resurface
Acquit	+ al	acquital
Dig	+ ger	digger
Care	+ ful	careful
Sad	+ ly	sadly
Poison	+ ous	poisonous
Form	+ ation	formation
Read	+ er	reader
Derive	+ able	derivation
Sing	+ er	singer
Lead	+ er	leader
Person	ality	personality

4.10 Derivation in Afemai

Base	Base+Morph	Derivation
Omo	omo+ti	omoti
Esi	esi+khena	esikena
Ogena	anope+ogena	anopogena
Ukpo	ukpo+nopa	ukponopa
Elami	elami+okogwa	elamiokogwa
Adeke	adeke+nugbadu	adekenugbadu
Inyo	inyo+ma	inyoma
Etha	etha+ma	ethama
Ime	ime+nolemi	imenolemi
Ekho	ekho+one	onekhe
Ekpabo	ekpabo+omho	omhoekpabo
Togia	togia+no	notogia
Somi	somi+neha	somineh
Ojo	ojo+jo	ojojo
Elege	elege+kpo	elegekpo
Agwu	agwu+nopa	agwunopa
Somi	ono+somi	onosomi

The difference between derivation and inflection is that derivation gives new lexeme and inflection gives the forms of a lexeme that are determined by syntactic environment. It does not change the core lexical meaning of the word to which it applies.

4.11 Compounding in English

There is no one formal criterion that can be used for a general definition of compounding.It is the combination of two or more stem or base. Here, the syntactic relations of compounding is indicated to form one stem e.g

Nouns		**Nouns**	**Morphemes**
Black	+	board	blackboard
Post	+	office	Post office
Black	+	bird	blackbird
Ice	+	box	icebox
Type	+	write	typewriter
Head	+	master	headmaster
Chair	+	man	chairman
Book	+	shop	bookshop
Play	+	ground	playground
Motor	+	cycle	motorcycle
Flash	+	light	flashlight
Earth	+	quake	earthquake

Head	+	ache	headache
Face	+	book	facebook
Far	+	fetched	farfetched
Tear	+	gas	teargas
Self	+	control	self-control

4.12 Plural Formation in English

In English language, nouns are inflected to mark moralization and the genitive case. The plural noun in English basically comprises the base or stem and the plural morpheme. Thus:

Girl	+	s	=	girls
Cat	+	s	=	cats
Book	+	s	=	books
Hans	+	s	=	hands
Goat	+	s	=	goats
Table	+	s	=	tables
Cup	+	s	=	cups

Base Singular	**Bound Morph**	**Plural Morpheme**
Sun	Ø	sun
Star	+s	stars
Rain	Ø	rain

Sand	Ø	sand
Smoke	+s	smokes
Fire	Ø	fire
Ash	+es	ashes
Earth	Ø	earth
Mountain	+s	mountains
Red	Ø	red
Black	Ø	black
Green	Ø	green
Sleep	Ø	sleep
Dry	Ø	dry
Animal	+s	animals
Hand	+s	hands
Breast	+s	breasts
Night	+s	nights
Baby	+ies	babies
Dirty	Ø	dirty
Hot	Ø	hot
All	Ø	all
Water	Ø	water
Horn	+s	horns
Month	+s	months
Child	+ren	children

However, a vast majority of English nouns form their plurals by adding an inflectional suffix to the base form as in box – boxes, leaf – leaves, knife – knives, lorry – lorries, bus – busses. Sometimes, plural formation may involve vocalic change in the base form e.g man –men, goose – geese, ox – oxen, foot – feet (Aliyu 2006). Morphological processes vary from language to language. Thus, Afemai morphological processes may not occur exactly the same way as those of English. Most grammatical properties thus appears to be a direct contrast to English in plural formation (Udaudom, 2012)

4.13 Afemai Plural Formation

One major feature of the Afemai language is that it is and agglutinative language (Acheeoah, 2012) it is capable of forming the words by adding other words or affixes without changing the form of the root. These are, morphemes which seem to be glued together. Thus:

Ogie	chief	enigie	chiefs
Okiojor	old one	ikiojor	old ones
Egole	youth	enigole	youths
Ifuomi	whiteman	enifuomi	whitemen
Oboh	herbalist	eneboh	herbalists
Ogomozaw	youngman	igivizao	youngmen

Other plural formations in Afemai include:

Base Morph		**Plural Form (Prefixation)**
Onoshe	-	eneshe
Okpotso	-	ikpotso

Oya	-	aya
Apiami	-	ipiami
Alu	-	ilu
Otha	-	etha
Ulia	-	ilia
Eke	-	eke
Abifa	-	ibifa
Usomi	-	isomi
Ukpeo	-	ikpao
Uno	-	ino
Olemi	-	elemi
Atata	-	itata
Otoo	-	etoo
Obo	-	abo
Uthui	-	ithui
Uwa	-	iwa
Ava	-	iva
Agiede	-	igiede
Uki	-	iki
Okpisa	-	ikpisa
Egomo	-	igivia
Onopa	-	enepa

Similar to English language, some Afemai plural nouns occur as zero morphemes (Tomori, 1977). This category have zero all morph of the plural morpheme and are classed as irregular, e.g cattle – cattle; equipment – equipment. Afemai examples are:

Base	**Zero Morph**	**Morpheme**	**English Meaning**
Ese	+ Ø	ese	fish
Eto	+ Ø	eto	hair
Esue	+ Ø	esue	nose
Akor	+ Ø	akor	teeth
Awe	+ Ø	awe	legs
Ame	+ Ø	ame	water
Etha	+ Ø	etha	fire
Enwue	+ Ø	enwue	ashes
Ege	+ Ø	ege	mountain
Ida	+ Ø	ida	night
Oli	+ Ø	oli	cold
Togia	+ Ø	togia	hot
Enye	+ Ø	enye	breast
Degwe	+ Ø	degwe	sleep
Ikho	+ Ø	ikho	house
Ovor	+ Ø	ovor	sun
Atutu	+ Ø	atutu	cloud
Tunnah	+ Ø	tunnah	burn/burnt
Aki	+ Ø	aki	market

4.14 Compound Formation in Afemai

Afemai language has some forms of compounding similar to English in which two or more stems contribute to form one stem. Thus

Stem		Stem	Morpheme	English Meaning
Ukpo	+	nopa	ukponopa	white cloth
Izao	+	epke	izaoekpe	hero
Okpotso	+	emabo	okpotsomeabo	foreign woman
Elami	+	okogwua	elamiokogwua	bush meet/ foolishness
Ibedi	+	otha	ibediotha	wooden bed
Osogbo	+	egie	osogbonabegie	bride/groom
Ebe	+	owena	ebeowena	study book
Omo	+	one	omone	child supersedes
Omo	+	mhe	omomhe	childhood friend

4.15 Reduplication

Reduplication is another process of inflection common in some languages. Example is Indonesia. Afemai language used reduplication for emphasis especially on verbs. Thus:

Ovie-vie	From	Ovie	(to cry)
Ime-me	√	Ime	(to talk)
Nya-nya	√	Nya	
Shigo-shigo	√	Shigo	(mystery)
Ekwe	√	Ekwe	(wonder)
Gie-gie	√	Gie	(tall)
Omo-omo	√	Omo	(younger)
Ojo-ojo	√	Ojo	(older)

oka-ka-dry	√	Oka	
Igwe-gwe	√	Igwe	– to speak
Ikhia-khia	√	Ikhia	to walk
Idu-du	√	Idu	to carry
Ivhu-vhu	√	Vhu	to fetch

Some compounds have two or more elements which are identical or slightly different. In English, there are goody-goody, walkie talkie, tick-tock, tip-top etc. English reduplicative are commonly used for imitation of sounds (tick-tock).

4.16 Verbs Inflection in English and Afemai

Verbs can be classified in various ways and functions (lexical). Many English verbs have five forms. The base, the –s form, the past, the –ing participle and the –ed participle. Examples include:

Base	v-s	v-ed, (past)	ing participle	v-edz (past participle)
Call	Calls	Called	Calling	Called
Drink	Drinks	Drank	Drinking	Drunk
Put	Puts	Put	Putting	Put

Unlike the English verbs which undergo inflection as seem above, Afemai verbs do not. This is an area of difference in the two languages. An example in Afemai verbs are:

I la (I go or went)

Mha la (we got or went)

E la they go or went

Afemai language does not indicate tense. It is the context of usage that tell whether id verb (s) are present or past for instance

E la (they /we go/went)

E lami they/we go/went)

It should also be noted that the phonological modification that tells whether the sentence is a statement or a question. The following are examples:

Mha la (we go/went) statement

Mha la (we should go) question

E la (they go/went) statement

E la (they went/go) question

Also, a speaker could add a morpheme or morph “enode or enekpode” i.e yesterday or a day before respectively to communicate to the hearer that a past action is predicated.

The English continuous tense is marked with the -ing suffix. But in Afemai, the tense are marked with a prefix. Thus, Afemai places emphasis on aspect rather than tense. For instance,

English		Afemai
Eating	-	Emi le ma
Cooking	-	Emi nyema
Standing	-	Emi nwuza
Playing	-	Emi kpekveh
Going	-	Ila

Dancing - Emi ghokha

Working - Emi gba ka nya

Sleeping - Emi de gwe

4.17 Adjectives

Some suffixes in English are indeed found only with adjectives, -eg,-ous, etc. However, many common adjectives have no identifying shape, e g. 'good, hot, little, fat' etc. many adjectives inflect for their comparative and Superlative. The major syntactic functions of adjectives are attributive and predicative. Quirk (2000). Some examples are:

Beautiful, painting, hard worker

Pretty daughter, medical student

Foolish boy, fast car, former friend

There are Afemai adjectives which are not inflected with the use of morphemic affixes. However, they are inflected periphrastically.

Omosi no so tse

Egbe gbo omosi

Okposo owueghe

Adeke nu gbadu

Elami okogua

Okpisa eche

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
Gieghe	Gieghe ne	Gieghe neah
Tall	Tall (more)	Tall (most)
Somi	Somi ne	Somi neah
Good	Good (better)	Good (best)
Isomote	Isomote ne	Isomote ne kpo
Beauty	More beauty	Most beauty
Okua	Okua gbe	Okua gbe
Heavy	More heavy	Most heavy

4.18 Presentation of Data

Below, in tabular form are three (3) affixation processes used for this work. Some of them are inflectional, derivational and zero morphemes.

Morpheme	English	Afemai	Comments
Affixation	**Prefixes**		
	sheep	gwi + ma	Both languages make use of prefixes and suffixes in varying degree. English has no known infixes whereas infixes in Afemai appears in Adjectives.
	sand	oma	
	ill + health	i + meha	
	re + search	kha + penna	
	mal + practices	onti (onoati)	
	dis + agree	ikhe + lema	
	im + possible	o + via	
	mis + lead	mhe + ishe	While English use affixes extensively for plural formation, derivation, Afemai

	Suffixes ish + fool ily + happy	ono + omosi emi + lue kha + muza etha + ma	does not instead it use prefixes.
Reduplication	see – saw flip – flop hanky – panky walkie - talkie	ovie – vie ime – me igwe – gwe ikhia –khia ojo – ojo nya – nya	Both languages utilize reduplication for emphasis, but English is partial reduplication
Compounding	blackboard flash light facebook post office icebox chairman playboy	ukpo + nopa inyo + ma izao + ekpe okposo + enabo omo + one elami + okogwa	English and Afemai use this process significantly

4.19 Similarities between Afemai and English

Some similarities exist between Afemia and English. The similarities reflect the morphological, phonological, syntactic and semantic functions which the two languages perform. They both mark inflection, although the position of such affixes differ in the languages. Afemai uses prefixes as in:

Afemai(Singular)	**English (Singular)**	**Afemai(Plural)**	**English(Plural)**
Omosi	(girl)	Enemosi	(girls
Obe	(book)	ebe	(books)
Akie	(frog)	Ikie	(frogs)
Oya	(pearson)	Aya	(persons)
Usomi	(Head)	Isomi	(Heads)
Ofuomi	(white man)	Ifuomi	(White men)

Another area of similarity between the inflectional morphemes of Afemai and English is the use of supplication. This is a type of replaced morphemes formation in which the word changes completely from its base form (Tomori (1977). Examples include:

Man-men	Omo (child)	Ivia (children)
Child-children	Ogomo (child)	Igika (children)

Also, English and Afemai have zero morphemes in 'null' plurals are indicated syntactically. Afemai has such construction as: ame (water) ese (fish) eto (hair) aki (market) ege (mountain) etc.

The two languages also show similarities in their suffixation particularly in nouns (singular and plural). The following examples are noted.

Otha - etha (tree)

Okpha - okpha (horn)

Obe - ebe (book)

Usomi - isomoi (head)

Obo - abo (head)

Udo - ido (stone)

Similarly the two languages converged in the zero morphemes phenomena. In is process, the base morpheme does not change the presence of zero morpheme is indicated in the following example.

Ewo (ear)

Itsoka (pepper)

Ime (farm)

Oto (land)

4.20 Differences between English and Afemai Affixations

From the findings on Afemai and English morphological structures, some major differences become evident in the two languages. Afemai typically uses prefixes to mark nouns inflections. For example:

1.	Ogie	(king)	enigie	(kings)
2.	Ozau	(youth)	Enizao	(youths)
3.	Agua	(dog)	Igua	(dogs)
4.	Oboh	(hand)	Eneboh	(hands)
5.	Ukpha	(horn)	Ikpha	(horns)
6.	Oboh	(habalist)	Eneboh	(habalists)

In the above illustrations, the plural morphemes and morph include /eni; i, a, ene/ which appeared prefixially unlike English that use /s/ es/ /ies/ etc. suffixially as plural markers.

Other morphological similarity in the two languages studied is in pronoun. English pronouns are personal relative, and demonstrative, (Acheoah 2012). Below are the English Pronouns and their inflectional form:

Subjective	**Objective**	**Epithetic possessive**	**Predicative possessive**
1	Me	My	mine
We	Us	Our	Ours
You	You	Your	Yours
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Her	Hers
It	It	Its	Its
They	Them	Their	Theirs
Who	Whom	Whose	Those
Which	Which		
That	That		
Those	Those		
These	These		

Acheoah (2012) states that Afemai pronouns are similar to English in varieties and use. He justify is claim with the following examples:

Free forms	Bound forms	Possessive forms
Mhe (1)	Mhe (me)	Itsemhe(mine)
Ghue (you singular)	Ghue (you plural)	Its e (yours)
O (he she, it)	O (him, her, it)	It so (his, hers, its)

Mha (we)	Mha (us)	Itsemha (ours)
Ghue (you)	Itse (your)	Nitse (yours)
Itsea (they, them)	Itsea (they)	Nitsea (their)

In the above analysis, mhe' and 'ghue' 'you' 'I' and 'you' respectively can be used as subject and object pronoun, being free forms. This usage is not applicable to the bound forms. The researcher noted the omission of 'vha' in the objective case and 'mha' as in 'itsemha' 'itsevha' in the possessive forms. Also not featured in Acheoahs' is subjective 'i and 'e' as 'ithena' I gave, I bought 'ide' in Afemai is usually in an object pronoun.

4.21 Areas of Differences

The morphological structures of English and Afemai differ in several areas. This is abvious. English language has inflection and derivation different from Afemai. Another point of difference between the two languages is that Afemai has infixation which English has none. The two languages diverged in areas of inflectional paradigms. English has the following inflectional variations. The base, present, past, future, participles etc which Afemai mark its tenses through contextual process. The example below distinguished the two:

4.22 RegularVerbs

	Base	(s) Form	(ing) Form	(ed)	(ed2)
1.	Talk	Talks	Talking	Talked	Talked
2.	Sleep	Sleeps	Sleeping	Slept	Slept
3.	Jump	Jumps	Jumping	Jumped	Jumped

In the present study the researcher examine those areas that might pose difficult to Afemai speakers learning English as a second language. The assumption that learners who come in contact with a foreign language will find some features quite easy and others extremely difficult because the patterns are different from the L1 is noted. The morphological structure of English and Afemai differ in some areas that might pose difficult. The Afemai native speaker and learner could have problems when transforming the inflection of English. There is the problems of over- generation for instance boy-boys girl-girls; man-mans; child-childs sleep-sleeps etc.

Another obvious problem an Afemai learner of English might encounter is the verbs formation ‘ed; id, ing’, etc this is absent in Afemai language. No irregular verbs in Afemai and so the Afemai learner of English could also tend to transform the irregular verbs through a regular process.For instance,

Talk-talks-talking-talked

Sleep-sleeps-sleeping-slept

Eat-eats-eating-eated

Drink-drinks-drinking-drinked

Similar problems are found in irregular nouns of English, thus:

Boy - boys

Girl - girls

Hand - hands

Man - mans

Child - childs

Baby - babys

In another development, English speakers would have problems of applying the inflection at rules of Afemai in terms of singular plural formation. Omo (child) ivia or omo nebu. 'Nebu' means many instead of ivia (children)

Egwe (goat) eigwe. That is /e/ changes to /ei/ a diphthong.

Another noticeable difference between English and Afemai languages is the noun paradigms. In Afemai language, the noun paradigms are as follow :

Ogie (King/chief) enigie (king/chiefs)

Oya (person) aya (people/person)

Omo (child) ivia (children)

Ozao (boy) enizao (boys)

However, English noun paradigms are four. The regular and irregular forms:

Ox – oxen

Ox – ox's

Oxen – oxen's

Boy – boys

Boys – boy's

Boy – boys'

There is also a major difference with respect to derivational suffix. In English an inflectional suffix can be added to a derivational morpheme. For instance:

Morpheme		**Moph Morph**				**Morphemes**
Direct	+	-tion	+	s	=	directions
Develop	+	-ment	+	al	=	developmental
Derive +	-	ation	+	al	=	derivational
Inflect +	-	ion	+	al	=	inflectional
Modify	+	-cation	+	s	=	modifications

In the above illustration, -s, -tion, -ment, -al, are derivational morphemes – an inflectional suffixes. This agrees with Omoniwa (2004), that inflectional morpheme is the last element in the word structure (Yule 2007). Whereas in Afemai, the inflectional morpheme is the first element in the word structure, the derivational morpheme is an initial prefix.

English, adjectives are not inflected for plural forms. Afemai mark adjectives on plural nouns having zero morphemes, e.g.

1. Egbebgo omosi (beautiful girl)
2. Egegbo emosi (beautiful girls)
3. iho no somote (beautiful house)
4. Enwue ne bu (ash that are many)
5. Aki no vho (market that is full)
6. Ono somi (to be good/not good) tone marking.

4.23 Actual Learning Task of Afemai

The research suggests the following as actual learning task for Afenmai learners of English language.

1. Afemai native speakers learning English as a second language should learn English affixation process. This include prefixation, suffixation, and derivation morphemes
2. Afemai learners of English should note the singular-plural formation in English language
3. Also the learning tasks should include the regular/irregular patterns of nouns and verbs and pronouns of English.

4.24 Summary of Findings

1. The research discovered that most English derived words are by suffixation. For instance; carefully, fishery, formation, derivable, personality and many others. Afemai derivation is in the process of prefixation as in omo+ti, anopeogena, elaniokogwa, esikhena etc.
2. Afemai language add phonogical materials to the end of some words that make it "complex" structure for instance; ukpade no lemi, ukpade ne bu i.e large basket and many busket respectively.
3. English and Afemai exbit the same principle three which states that not all morphemes are segmental. English has 'boy, farm, sun, come etc while Afemai has 'Ozew, ime, ovoh, bhe.
4. English and Afemai share aspect of morphological process in zero morphemes. While English sheep –sheep, deer – deer, Afemai has zero morphemes of 'aki, iko etc.
5. The research discovered that English and Afemai posses some affixation processes. However, they diverget in application. In Afemai, position for nouns

inflectionis by prefix while English is by suffixation. For example: girl – girls; cat – cats, baby – babies and in Afemai Omosi – Emosi, Oyine – Eyime.

4.25 Discussion of findings

The study has examined the morphological structural processes of English and Afemai language using contrastive analysis approach. The peculiarities in the morphological structures of the two languages and their differences and similarities are of pedagogical importance.Morphology is relevant to grammar - the rules of language. Morphology helps to understanding word class or parts of speech. While Afemai is prone to the process of deriving new words through prefixation, English uses different affixation. The areas of convergence and divergence in the morphological structural processes of the two languages are worthy of scholarly interest that cannot be ignored. Indeed, further research work is needed in minority languages to achieve the goals of the National Policy on Education(2004).

The data presented above showss linguistic relationally between English and Afemai. English language has a standard for morphological process than other developing languages such as Afemai. As outlined in the table, Afemai and English exhibit similarities and differences in certain areas. Also, it was observed that each language utilizes some aspect more than the other does.

Morphological structure depends not only on the element one use, but on the order the elements have been applied. For instance the prefix ‘un’ has at least two distinct roles in English depending on the word it is attached. It is reversative when applied to verb: ‘undo, unpacked, undressed, unzipped, untie’ etc. when attached to adjective e.g. stresses, wounded, friendly etc. ‘un’ would mean ‘not’ the same occurs with Afemai language’

Fudeman (2014) notes that speakers of many languages add phonological materials to either end of a word sometimes leads to complex structures. The following are illustration in Afemai language structures; udemhi me – my Vaseline, azoeto no khua – big comb, ukpade no lemi – large dish, ikpha ne bu – many basket.

The analysis, showed that Afermai and English share some notable features in their morphological structures. Thus, a systematic analysis and classification of the similarities and differences could be remarkable tool. It is worthwhile to note that the presence or absence of some structures in one language should not be regarded or misunderstood to be flaw or non-completeness of one language and strength for another. The differences highlighted between English and Afernai language reveal feasible difficulties for learning these languages.

There are two complementary approaches to Morphology- analytic and synthetic. The analytic approach deals with breaking words down into structures. It is associated with American structuralist linguists. The synthetic approach is associated with theory than with methodology. Basically, it says. "I have a lot of pieces. How do I put them together? Analysispreceed synthesis. The way linguists or morphologist determine the pieces they are dealing with is examination of the language data.

Nida (1949) in Tomori (2004) gives six basic analytic principles used in Morphology. In this study, principle one states that forms with the same meaning and the same morpheme are identical in meaning.. For instance Afemai morpheme 'no' which is in the following words contribute the same meaning, and the same shape.

Ame no somegbe

Ukpo no sotse

Omosi no giegie

Umoto no pa

Bauer & Laurie (2001) states that what makes a morpheme a morpheme is that it recursand speakers are able to identify and give it a meaning.

Principle three states that "not all morphemes are segmental". In morphemes, we think of forms that can be pronounced on their own. For example boy, farm, the, un, -s, -ize etc. but some morphemes cannot be pronounced. They depend on other morphemes for realization. For instance; 'run-ran, eat – ate, speak – spoke' past tense marker, and the existence of non-segmental alternation is a classical problem in complex languages like Afemai. Afemai has no past tense maker, rather it is the context of usage and phonological modification that tells the present or past action. For instance; ila, mha la ila enode, mha la enode. (I go, we go/went) enode – yesterday. The following are other findings in the study:

Free	free	+ dom	freedom
Race	race	+ ism	racism
Faith	faith	+ ful	faithful

i. English and Afernai share some morphological processes in zero morphemes. Afernai has 'aki' 'iko' 'enwue' in singular and plural form of 'market, house and ash' respectively. English in its plural formation has: 'sheep, deer, ship, information' etc. for both singular and plural.

Noun (Singular)		**Noun (Plural)**
Sheep	Ø	sheep
Ship	Ø	ship
Deer	Ø	dear

Water	Ø	water
Fish	Ø	fish
Salmon	Ø	salmon
Cattle	Ø	cattle
Sun	Ø	sun

ii. English and Afemai also share some affixation processes. However, they diverge in certain application. For example, in Afemai, the position of inflection morphemes of nouns are prefix, while in English it is suffixes to the base of the words.

iii. It is also noted that the discrepancies, presence and absence of some structures in the two languages compared might bring some degree of difficulties for learners in over generalization, under differentiation. Thus a systematic analysis and classification of the similarities and differences can be remarkable in predicting and diagnosing the learners' errors. Thus:

Girl	+	s	=	girls
Cat	+	s	=	cats
Book	+	s	=	books
Hans	+	s	=	hands
Goat	+	s	=	goats
Table	+	s	=	tables
Cup	+	s	=	cups

Afemai

chief	enigie	chiefs

Okiojor	old one	ikiojor	old ones
Egole	youth	enigole	youths
Ifuomi	whiteman	enifuomi	whitemen
Oboh	herbalist	eneboh	herbalists

The findings based on CA. will widen the scope of the learners, and equip them for better studing of the course content regarding word-function, affixation, etc. of both languages. The linguistic implication of the study is that, as languages differ in their structures and historical grouping so do features in the word structure of such languages differ, (Josiah 2012). The researcher observed that tone marking in Afernai is not a morphological process but used for lexico-semantic differentiation. Unlike English stress shift which changes the word-class of a word, tone marking is used for vocabulary building. Afemai adjective-'somi' 'sominea' is example.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMEDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the research study. It also presents recommendations for further studies. The study focused on the morphological structures of English and Afemai languages.

5.2 Summary

The study has aligned with other researchers that morphology provides starting-point insight on the parts of speech to which difference words belong. The study used CA. approach to examine the word- formation and structural processes in Weppa-Uwano dialect of Afemai language. Through a contrastive linguistic analysis, the study analyzes both English and Afemai morphological processes. It established that both languages share some common features similar and different. English language is synthetic while Afernai is analytic. The study established that the morphological processes common to both languages are prefixing, suffixing, compounding and reduplication. In the light of this findings, the linguistics problems of the Afemai learners of English as L2 may have been minimized. This is because the teachers would be aware of both structures, areas of difficulties of the learners in plural formation and affixation processes. The researcher hoped that the findings and analysis would be useful to educational resources planners, authors students and parents whose interest in competence of their children in English as a second language is showed.

5.3 Conclusion and Recommendations

Contrastive analysis was the result of the need to teach a L2 in the must efficient way. The origin of CA therefore is pedagogical. The underlying assumption of CA is that L2 are:

a. The main difficulties in learning a foreign languages are due to interference from the first language
b. Such difficulties coming from interference can be predicted by contrastive analysis
c. Instructional materials can make use of CA consideration to reduce the errors of interference, (Ibrahim 2013). Consequently, teachers should regard them as signals of progress and diagnosis of problem in areas of differences in order to be place on these differences in or to eradicate the problems. Thus, syllabus designers and test developers should make use of CA studies to acquire new insights.

5.4 Contributions of the Study to Knowledge

Competence and performance are the goals of a second language learner but the challenges and hurdles are the presence and interferences of the first language. To this end, the research work was undertaken to expose the areas of similarities that enable ease for the learner, andthe areas of difference that pose difficulty identified. Curriculum and syllabus designers would now have insight on what to include in the curriculum of the learners, the methodology, and instructional materials. Afemai students studying English as L2 are now at ease in their learning of the morphological structures of both languages. The application of the correct affixes in forming acceptable words in English are now made easy for learners.

5.5 Suggestionsfor Further Studies

LSinguists in total accord about the levels and categories of language description can still produce different analyses of the same language data. It is not a mis-normal for this to happen, but a case of using different models of language. There are as many models for use in CA.It is anticipated that future research study should be carried out.Thus:

1. In-depth study on the morphology of Afemai in areas of verbs inflection, parts of speech, compounding, infixes etc. are required
2. A comparative study of English and Afemai language derivational morphology is desirable and profitable to both languages.

5.6 Implications for Learning and Teaching

Based on the findings of the study, the results and the preceding observations motivate the formulation of the following implications to language learners, teachers etc.CA has three basic traditionally pedagogical applications: predicting, diagnosing and the design of testing instruments for learners.CA assumption that it predict and describe the pattern of L2 that will cause difficullty in learning. There seems then to be three things that a CA can predict: what aspects will cause problems, difficulty and errors. James(1983) added a fourth –tenacity ie their strong resistance to extinction through time teaching.

The most well known hierarchy of FL learning difficulty is that proposed by Stockwell (1965) in Olaofe(2012). They are based on the notions of positive and negative transfer potentials. This too is based on type of choices , optional, obligatory and zero(o).An optional phonological choice refers to the possible selection among phonemes. For instance, /s/ and /ʃ/ in English 'so and show' and Afemai 'sop and shop'; 'child-childs' respectively are hardly differentiated by Afemai learners. These different availability of choice in L1 and L2 allow relationship between both language. The result is also a pointer to hierarchy of difficulty in learning the L2 by L1.

One important ingredient of the classroom teacher's role as monitor and assessor of the learner's performance is to know why certain errors are committed. The bases of such diagnostic knowledge enable teachers organize feedback to the learners and remedial work. Even the learner should know why he committed errors if he is to self-monitor and avoid

these same errors in future. One of the requirement of a good language test is that it should have validity. It should be a true measure of the students' command of the language he has been taught. The most valid test therefore, is the one that is comprehensive. It should test everything that has been taught. If a test contrasted for a single group of students with identical language background and exposure to target language, then CA is essential.

It will be more informative for the tester to test only the learning problems predicted by the CA, Wardhaugh (1970). The degree to which to test, largely depend on the level of the learner. But a test for intermediate should contain more items of difficulty especially in the multiple-choice types with distracters. Harris (1968) in Uzoagulu (2000) says that the most effective distracters in a test items will be those which evoke L1 response from those subjects that have not fully mastered the very different patterns of the TL. For example, Afemai has modal and article relatively conresponding to English expression. Therefore a discrete point test of the English modals and articles for Afemai learners ought to contain at least one distractor. Thus:

English: The boys cann't run. Can they?

Afemai: Enigivia emati na. e'mati?

CA specifies those features of L1 which are different from the conresponding features of L2. By implication those items which are identical. The learners must be allowed and encouraged to transfer the 'suitable'L1 knowledge to L2 usage. That is , the L2 structures that match L1 structures should constitute part of the materials. Materials do not only teach what is new and unknown but provide confirmation interlingual identical, Mihaleche (2015). This further suggest that the basic type of teaching materials must be recognized as: those for confirming and those for learning (workbook and main text).

5.6.1 Implications for the Learner

The L2 learner should be aware of the differences between their first language and the second language. They should not assume that English affixation formations and rules governing its functions are similar to Afemai. The rules should be learnt independently. The pedagogical implication is that English learners of Afemai need to be taught regular and irregular nouns and verbs inflections.

5.6.2 Implications for the Teacher

The morphological structures of English should be taught effectively than mere presenting and explaining such word-formation deductively. Inductive teaching help students to acquire detail morphological concepts of the language compared and contrasted. Where difficulties are observed due to differences in structures, the language teacher should design what will help learners to overcome the difficulties.

5.7 Limitations

This study was limited to the contrastive analysis of the morphological structures of Afemai and English language. The findings arrived at, are limited to the data on which they are based. Therefor the results of the study cannot be generalized to all English–Afemai word-formations. The limitations can also be taken as further research study.

This study focused on morphological structure in Afemai and English Language. It studied only ten (10) of the various morphological processes available in English language. Out of these, eight were found to be utilized by Afemai.

Another area of limitation was in the aspect of reference materials which were not readily available in Afemai. Few materials consulted were works from Estako language Research Development, Acheoah (2012), and internet.

Also, finding out the number of dialects available in Afemai also posed a challenge.

Limitations also arose in the area of sampling. The research encountered difficulty in describing to the informants what was required. This was because 75 percent of the informants were unlearned

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APPENDIX A

SWADESH (2016) LIST FOR CORPUS DATA RESEARCH INSTRUMENT (CDRI)

1. One
2. big
3. small
4. woman
5. man
6. person
7. fish
8. bird
9. dog
10. louse
11. tree
12. seed
13. root
14. leaf
15. blood
16. bone
17. egg
18. horn
19. feather
20. hair
21. head
22. ear
23. eye
24. nose
25. mouth
26. tooth
27. tongue
28. foot
29. drink
30. eat
31. see
32. hear
33. sleep
34. die
35. kill
36. swim
37. fly
38. walk
39. come
40. sit
41. stand
42. give
43. say
44. sun
45. star
46. water
47. rain
48. stone
49. sand
50. earth
51. cloud
52. smoke
53. fire
54. ash
55. mountain
56. red
57. green
58. white
59. black
60. hand
61. what
62. this
63. you
64. know
65. breast
66. night
67. full
68. we
69. see
70. heart
71. bite
72. who
73. dry
74. good
75. cold
76. neck
77. burn
78. tail
79. many
80. hot
81. all
82. animal
83. bad
84. bird
85. dirty
86. laugh
87. live
88. Long

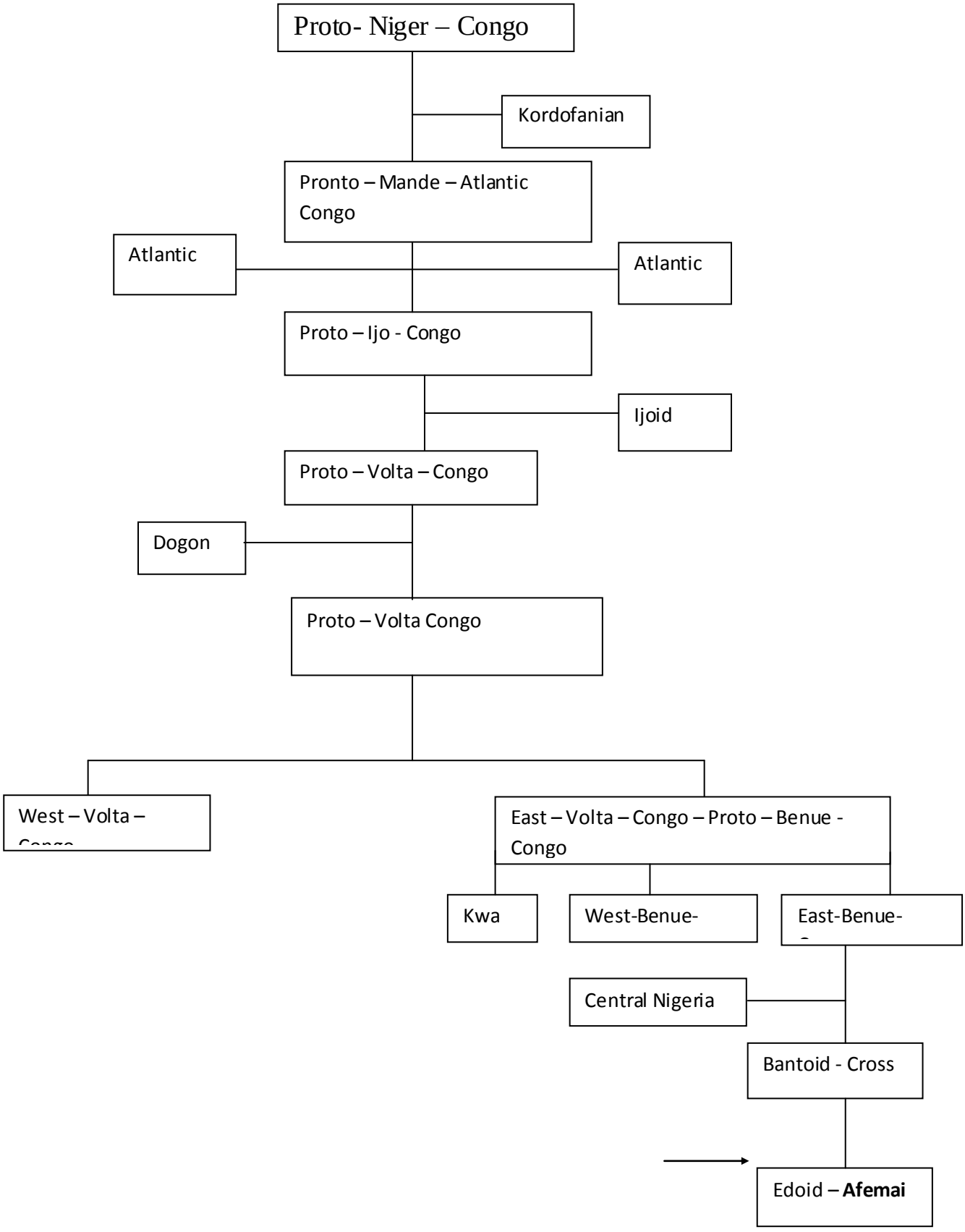
APPENDIX B

AFEMAICORPUS DATA RESEARCH INSTRUMENT (CDRI)

1. Opa
2. Ukokomi
3. Oshe
4. Okposto
5. Ozao
6. Oya
7. Ese
8. Apiami
9. Agwa
10. Ilu
11. Otha
12. Ikpivia otha
13. Ilia otha
14. ebe
15. Othah
16. Ugwa
17. Ukpeke
18. Ukpa
19. Ibifa
20. Eto
21. Usomi
22. Ewo
23. Ikpao
24. Esue
25. Unu
26. Akor
27. Olemi
28. Awe
29. Wuo
30. Lee
31. Thoi
32. Soo
33. Gwe
34. Gwu
35. Gbea
36. Gweda
37. Daa
38. Kia
39. Vhare
40. Gieto
41. Wnuza
42. Thena
43. Meh
44. Ovor
45. Itata
46. Ame
47 Ame
48. Udo
49 Eke
50 Oto
51. Atutu
52. Ewoh
53. Etha
54. Enwue
55. Ege
56. Ovhemi
57. Nabiumabiora
58. Opa
59. Obi
60. Obo
61. Eme
62. Ona
63. Gwe
64. Ulemi
65. Enye
66. Ida
67. ovoh
68. Mah
69. Gwo
70. Udu
71. Piako
72. Oah
73. Okami
74. Osomi
75. Oli
76. Uthui
77. Tona
78. Uwa
79. Enebu
80. Togia
81. Lakpo
82. Eami
83. Osomi
84. Apiami
85. Ukomi
86. Ogie
87. Oyo
88. Unuami

APPENDIX C

AFRICA LANGUAGE FAMILY



APPENDIX D

Faculty of Education,
Department of Arts and Social Science,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria
Nigeria.

The Principal

…….

…….

Sir/Ma,

REQUEST FOR QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

I am undertaking a research study on the Morphological structures of Afemai and English language.

The research is academic. I therefore request you to provide for me students in JSS 1 and JSS 3 to answer the question contained in the questionnaire as they shall be source of information for this research work.

All information supplied will be treated as confidential. Your sincere co-operation is highly solicited for and will be appreciated.

Thanks.

Yours faithfully,

_____

Adelegan Zibril

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN (PILOT STUDY)

School:

Class: JSS1

Subject: English language

Topic: plural formation

Time : 40 mins.

Method: discussion

Instructional materials: Cardboard Papers and a Tape Reorder

Behavioural objectives: by the end of the lesson, students should be able to:

1. List ten names of things they can see in the school
2. Write the plurals of the names stated
3. Use the plurals in sentences

Previous knowledge:

Students are familiar with names of things at home and their plurals in the local language.

Introduction:

Using induction method, introduce your names as teachers of English language. Briefly, let the students mention their names and what they intend to be in future: Teacher, Doctor, Pilot, Accountant, Lawyer etc.

Lesson presentation in steps:

Step1: Let the students mention the names of objects in the school compound while the teacher writes them on the chalkboard eg Table, Car, Tree, Book etc.

Step2: Select the students to state the plurals of the names of objects mentioned eg table, Car, Tree, Book etc.

Step3: The students should write the plurals of the words listed on the chalkboard. Mix the words thus: girl, book ,baby, child, sheep etc.

Step4: The students should states in sentences the words in the chalkboard eg;

The girls are fighting

The children are running

The sheep are eating the grasses.

Step5: The teacher should lead the student to present the English words (singular and plural) side by side Afemai words. Let the students understand how nouns are inflected in English which differ from Afemai language, eg.

English (singular plural)	Afemai (singular plural)
Boy _ boys	ozao _ izao
Table _ table	obo _ abo
Baby_ babies	ogomo _ igivia
Child _ children	oma _ ema
Sheep _ sheep	ebe _ ebe

Step6: the students attention be drawn to the plural formation of English which is by suffixation and zero morpheme, while Afamai is different and by prefixation.

Evaluation:

Using the students text, write on the chalkboard words in English and let the students provide their plurals, eg book, knife, roof, ox etc

Conclusion:

The teacher should conclude the lesson explaining to the students how nouns in English are pluralized through suffixes and those with zero morphemes.

Assignment:

Using the students' textbook, let the students attempt exercise three (3) in unit five (5).

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE QUESTIONS – PILOT TEST

Instructions : Read the following questions carefully, and select the best option (s) from lettered A – D.

1. The ---------- are working in the ----------

   (a) man/farms (b) men/farm (c) man/farm (d) mans/farms

2. The ---------- are eating the grasses.

   (a) sheeps (b) sheep (c) sheepies (d) sheeped

3. State the singulars and plurals of the following words:

   a. Boy ----------
   b. Baby ----------
   c. Woman ----------
   d. Ox ----------
   e. Cattle ----------
   f. Sheep ----------
   g. Child ----------
   h. Sun ----------
   i. Water ----------
   j. Leaf ----------
   k. Trees ----------
   l. Tongues ----------
   m. Men ----------
   n. Animals ----------
   o. Smokes ----------
   p. Lice ----------
   q. Fish ----------
   r. Bones ----------
   s. Feet ----------
   t. Eyes ----------

APPENDIX G

UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEW FOR INFORMANTS

Researcher: Nana Ettaama (Greetings old one)

Respondent: Na ozao (I greet you young one)

Researcher: Ulegwe ethama (How was your night)

Respondent: Ogho kolale (It was fine)

Researcher: Ethama ike mi knolo ogbo (Sir, can I ask you question)

Respondent: eme? (What is it?)

Researcher: erue ki eli nitse? (What is your name?)

Respondent: mhe ki Ishaibu Onomheye

Researcher: ikpe ke ugbe agbo (How old are you)

Respondent: ikpe uwe ejie (Eighty (80) years old)

Researcher: ethama, eme avhegie ame ne bu (What do you call plenty water)

Respondents ame ka ame (water is water)

Researcher: ethama, eme vhegie oza nebu? (What do you call men)

Respondent: izao (Men or mans)

Researcher: ethama, eme vhegie aki nebu (What do you call markets)

Respondents: aki (Market)

Researcher: ethama, eme vhegie emosi nemo uthualo? (Beautiful airls)

Respondent: emosi obo, omosi opa, omosi no sotse

Researcher: mho ethama (Thanks sir)

Respondent: mho ogomo ozao (Thanks young one)