A MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES IN THE NUPE LANGUAGE

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that the work in the thesis entitled **'A Morphological Analysis of Nouns and Adjectives in the Nupe Language'** has been performed by me in the Department of English and Literary Studies under the supervision of **Dr. G.Y. Saddiq** and **Prof. T.Y. Surakat**.

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 any University.

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CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that this thesis entitled **'A Morphological Analysis of Nouns and Adjectives in the Nupe Language'** by **Garba Ibrahim Alhaji** satisfies the requirements and regulations governing the award of the degree of master of Arts (M.A.) in English language of Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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ABSTRACT

Nupe is a minority language spoken by the Nupe ethnic group in Nigeria. The morphology of Nupe has so far not been studied adequately in a way that the internal structure of the Nupe word is explicitly analysed. The present work studied and analysed the morphological structures of Nupe Nouns and adjectives. The aim was to bring about increase in awareness and understanding of the morphology of the Nupe Language. Therefore, the objectives of the study were: to identify nouns and adjectives in the Nupe language and their sub-classifications; to carry out a morphological analysis of the nouns and adjectives in Nupe language; to group the nouns and adjectives in Nupe according to their morphological structures; to discover the morphological processes of nouns and adjectives in the language and their morphological system. To generate data for this research endeavour, the researcher used a combination of methods of introspection, unstructured interview and non-participant observation. Therefore, the data for this study were derived from both primary and secondary source materials, such as the written Nupe news items, jottings from interviews and conversations, pamphlets, textbooks and the Nupe Dictionary. The researcher further used the Hockett's (1954) morphological model of IA (Item and Arrangement) to carry out the morphological analysis of the data on the Nupe nouns and adjectives. The findings and conclusion of the study revealed that Nupe uses derivational morphology more than inflectional morphology. The phenomenon of morphological elision is a prominent feature in the morphology of Nupe words. Furthermore, there are degrees of morphological productivity in the Nupe nouns and adjectives studied. The Nupe plural morpheme '-zhi' seems to rank high in morphological productivity because it can be attached to almost all Nupe count nouns with relative freedom. In Nupe, the system of gradability of the adjectives is a mixture of regular and irregular patterns. Consequently, the study concluded that Nupe is partly an agglutinating language.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The chapter contains a background to the study, the history of the Nupe people and the language including its phonological system. The chapter further includes sections on the statement of research problem and research questions. This is followed by the sections on the aim and the objectives of the study along side the scope and delimitation. The chapter also contains the limitations and the significance of the study together with definition of terms.

Nupe is a minority language spoken by the Nupe ethnic group in Nigeria. The population of Nupe as at 1963 was 650,000 and by 1986 the number expectedly grew to 1,314,000 (Jibril, 1990: 111). It is a majority language spoken by the largest linguistic group in Niger State. In addition, the language is spoken in Kwara and Kogi States as well as Abuja (FCT). By language typology, Nupe, according to Greenberg, (1963), belongs to the Kwa-language sub-group alongside Gwari and Ebira etc. Nupe has had a written tradition and equally been studied as far back as the 1850s by missionaries like Bishop Samuel Ajayi Crowther and Henry Johnson. Benfield, especially produced 'Dictionary of Nupe Language' (volumes I and II) in 1914 and 1916. In fact, the whole Bible was first translated into Nupe in 1953 (Wasagi, 2000:5). There are also indigenous studies on Nupe, especially by native speakers on some aspects of the language (Madugu, 1985; Theophilus, 2000; Bida, 1995; etc).

Despite these works and the fact that Nupe is one of the 12 languages approved by the Federal Government of Nigeria for its mother tongue education policy (Jacob, 2010), it is yet to function as a proper language of education. It is still considered not to have been adequately studied compared to the three major Nigerian languages of Hausa,

Yoruba and Igbo. This is because the available works on the Nupe language are still very few. Even in Niger State where the language has its predominant speakers more than anywhere it is spoken, it is yet to be taught as a subject in schools. Some of the strong reasons responsible for this are that the language has not been adequately described linguistically to lend itself to teaching in schools, and there are no existing reference teaching materials. Here lies the value of the present research endeavour.

The research effort focuses on the Nupe language from the morphological point of view of its nouns and adjectives. But first, what is morphology? The term has etymology in the Greek word 'morph', which means 'shape' or 'form' (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:1). But the term "morphology" became current in linguistics from the nineteenth century, appearing first in the 1860s Oxford English Dictionary (then called OED) (Mathews, 1974:2). Morphology, therefore, refers to "the study and analysis of the structure, forms and classes of words" (Hartmann, and Stork, 1972: 146). Morphological analysis, therefore, "primarily consists in breaking up words into their parts and establishing rules that govern the co-occurrence of these parts" (Haspelmouth, 2002:89). The ultimate aim is "to bring out the relationships which are systematic in the given language" (Mathews, 1974:19). What this means is that if we have a word like 'ragbazhinci' in Nupe, by morphological analysis, it can be broken down into parts called morphemes (this term and other related concepts are to be defined in chapter two) and thus, 'ragbazhi-n-ci' (a disrespectful person). This is the main task to undertake in this study.

As a result, the study hopes to be able to establish the nature of Nupe word-structures, their common structural patterns, their morphological processes and the underlying morphological system of Nupe nouns and adjectives as to whether they are isolating, inflecting or agglutinating types (cf. definition of terms section).

Subsequently, the study will hopefully contribute to the growth of linguistic research on Nupe, serve as a reference teaching material especially in schools and further advance knowledge and the research in the language. Any study of the morphology of language would not be complete without reference to phonology, syntax and semantics. To understand the morphology of a language like Nupe one needs to know "the effects of phonology on the forms of words" (Aronoff, and Fundeman, 2005:22). This makes imperative the full inventory of Nupe phonological system.

Based on Dunstan (1969) and Theophilus (2000), the phonological system of Nupe is as follows:

Vowels	**examples**
/i:/	b<u>i</u>c<u>i</u> (foot)
/e/	b<u>e</u> (come)
/a/	p<u>a</u>ti (mountain)
/aa/	t<u>a</u>r<u>a</u> (straight)
/ :/	b<u>o</u>ku (white)
/u/	el<u>u</u> (bird)
Consonants	**examples**
/*p*/	pata (flat shape)
/*b*/	e<u>b</u>e (breast)
/*t*/	<u>t</u>ici (traditional title)
/*d*/	<u>d</u>angi (cat)
/*k*/	<u>k</u>ata (room)
/*g*/	e<u>g</u>i (cry)

/*f*/	fifa (resting)
/*v*/	vovo (rotten)
/s/	kasa (basket)
/z/	zogu (mat)
/ç/	bishe (hen) or cock)
/h/	gaha (to wear)
/m/	madan (hunger)
/n/	nanko (cow)
/l/	lati (farm)
/r/	rayi (soul)
/j/	yegu (sympathy)
/w/	wawa (an insane person)
/kp/	kpati (box)
/gb/	gbata (debt)
/ts/	tsuwo (yesterday)
/zh/	zhiko (black)
/nj/	enyagi (an animal)
/bj/	byabya (an albino)
/dj/	adya (an incompetent person)
/fj/	efya (spear)
/gj/	egya (blood)
/kj/	kyatya (donkey)
/pj/	pimpyarya (cockroach)

/rj/	ryatwa (generosity)
/zj/	guzya (groundnut)
/bw/	bwaya (a strip of)
/kw/	kwankwa (raven)
/gw/	egwa (hand)
/sw/	swarwa (tall)
/tw/	twake (reduce)
/rw/	erwagi (a limp)

The importance of this is to give the research work a phonological/phonetic basis upon which the morphology of the Nupe language lies.

1.2 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE NUPE PEOPLE AND THE LANGUAGE

It is widely believed that the ancestor of the Nupe was Ugban bn Nafi "who was said to have migrated from across North-East Africa to Nubia and then to Nupe land" (Ibrahim, 1992:1). The people now known as the Nupe are predominantly agrarian who subsequently came to live in the various Nupe lands as a result of the mass movement down south by various people during the desication of the Sahara (Ibid). The area where the language is predominantly spoken lies between the River Niger in the south and west and the Kaduna River in the north (Dunstan 1969:133). Within this land expanse are to be found the majority speakers of Nupe in towns like Bida, Agaie, Lapai, etc in Niger State and Patigi, Lafiagi, Tsaragi, etc in Kwara State. There are also speakers of the language in some towns in Kogi State and Abuja (FCT). The Nupe people in their relation with other ethnic groups in Nigeria have been called names. The Hausa call

them ‘Banufe’ (one man) or Nufawa’ (all people); the Yoruba call them ‘Takpa’; the Gwari, the ‘Abawa’; the Igbira, ‘Anupe’ and the Kakanda, ‘Anupecwayi’. The missionaries, western and Arab scholars of the 18th and 19th centuries, referred to the Nupe in their scholarly works as either ‘Nefiu’, ‘Nife’ or ‘Nyffe’ (Ismaila, 2002:1).

The Nupe language like many languages is not homogeneous it has from the past to the present developed into dialects: Nupe proper (or central), Ebe, Dibo (or zhitako), Kupa, Gbedeye or Gbedegi and Basa-nge. Standard Nupe is, according to Dunstan (1969), spoken particularly in the towns of Bida and Agaie. But this typology seems to gloss over a very important dialectal difference from synchronic perspectives. The very towns that have been recognized by Dunstan (1969) to speak ‘standard Nupe’ have in the contemporary period developed sub-dialects or technically ‘diasystems’. Diasystem refers to “a phonological or other system established as an abstraction covering dialects whose individual systems differ” (Mathews, 1997:98). For example, the Bida variety of Nupe uses ‘ma mi’ (borrow) while the Agaie and Lapai varieties use ‘ba mi’ to mean the same thing. Bida and Agaie use ‘me be dana’ (I will be back in a couple of minutes) while the Lapai variety uses ‘me be bo’ to express the same idea. At the phonetic/phonological level, the Bida variety refers to a calabash as ‘mangara’ while the Agaie and Lapai varieties refer to it as ‘mangala’. The Lapai variety differs from the Agaie and Lapai varieties remarkably in terms of tone and pitch.

However, the Bida dialect has been regarded within and outside Nupe speaking areas to be the most prestigious Nupe dialect. The reason for this is that Bida has since remained the central political kingdom to the entire Nupe people, hence the popular traditional title ‘the Etsu Nupe’ (king of Nupe), which is used to address Bida kings. The Bida variety is spoken both in Bida town and in its immediate rural areas. It is the variety commonly studied and referred to in many scholarly works representative of the

gamut of the Nupe language. Therefore, the morphological analysis of Nupe nouns and adjectives, which is the subject matter of this study, is based on the Nupe variety spoken in Bida and its surrounding rural areas.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The morphology of the Nupe language has not been adequately studied, especially by the indigenous native speakers of Nupe. Most early studies on Nupe were carried out by foreigners who are non-native speakers of the language, such as Banfield (1914 and 1916), Wolf (1954) and Smith (1967). Moreover, most of these works did not focus on the explicit analysis of the internal structure of Nupe words. Secondly, studies on Nupe by the indigenous native speakers of the language are few. Yet, some of the few ones did not study in detail the various aspects of the Nupe language like Nupe morphology. On the other hand, there are presently no existing reference teaching materials, especially on Nupe word structures. One of the reasons responsible for this has been attributed to lack of adequate description of the Nupe language and its word structures. It is in view of this that this study intends to bridge the gap in the study of the Nupe language.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study intends to find answers to the following questions:

(i) What are the sub-classes of nouns and adjectives in Nupe?

(ii) In what ways can Nupe nouns and adjectives be analysed or broken down into identifiable morphemes?

(iii) What types of morphological structures are common to the Nupe nouns and adjectives?

(iv) What type of morphological processes underlie the analysis of Nupe word structures that are nouns and adjectives?

(v) What type of morphological systems do nouns and adjectives in Nupe use?

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study hopes to contribute to the indigenous study of the Nupe language linguistically. The study will also hopefully serve as a reference material and as a framework for further research and analysis of Nupe word structure. It is expected that it will bring about increased awareness and understanding of the morphological structures of nouns and adjectives. Therefore, the objectives of the study are:

i. to identify nouns and adjectives in the Nupe language and their sub-classifications.
ii. to carry out a morphological analysis of nouns and adjectives in the Nupe language.
iii. to group the nouns and adjectives in the Nupe language according to their morphological structures.
iv. to discover the morphological processes of nouns and adjectives in the Nupe language.
v. to identify and specify the type of morphological system that Nupe uses based on the morphological analysis of nouns and adjectives.

1.6 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION

The study is mainly concerned with the morphological analysis of words in the Nupe language. However, the analysis will be limited to nouns and adjectives except where reference to other parts of speech is necessary. The study will consider common nouns that are countable and concrete, deverbal nouns (nouns that are derived from verbs), cardinal nouns (numerals), compound nouns, nationality nouns (ethnic nationality names), personal gender nouns, higher animals gender nouns and case nouns but only genitive type. However, the study will not cover other classes of nouns that are not listed above. In the class of adjectives, the study will cover only gradable (in terms of comparison), non-gradable and denominal adjectives (adjectives that combine with nouns to form compounds). Other classes of adjectives that are not mentioned in the above will not be considered.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is about the morphological analysis of Nupe nouns and adjectives. However, the study does not cover all words within these (nouns and adjectives) word classes or Nupe words belonging to all word classes. Therefore, the study is limited in scope for practical convenience and because of time constraint within which this work is completed. Thus, the study is by no means conclusive on the morphology of Nupe language. Nevertheless, the study is a modest contribution to the general study of Nupe language especially its morphology.

In this study, the data (Nupe) of research have been translated to English within the framework of Catford's theory of linguistic translation. However, the translated

items in the study are to be considered as approximative meanings. Lastly, the translations done in the study are solely based on the researcher's own effort.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In Nigeria, Nupe is a minority language that has not been adequately studied linguistically from different aspects like the major Nigerian languages, such as Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo. The present study reveals the morphological nature of Nupe word-structure. This will provide the basis for understanding other aspects of Nupe to be studied, since various aspects of language are interrelated linguistically. Secondly, the study will serve as a reference material for teaching the language in schools. Finally, the study will contribute to knowledge about the language and essentially the body of research on Nupe language linguistics. Furthermore, studying the morphology of Nupe will help to preserve the language from being vulnerable to extinction since Nupe is a minority language in Nigeria.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms have been given working definitions within the limit of this research work:

Morphological structure refers to groups of words that show identical partial resemblances in both form and meaning i.e. formal and semantic resemblances among words (Haspelmath, 2002:88).

Morphological processes means the formal processes or operations by which the forms of words are derived from stems or roots (Mathews, 1997: 232).

Morphological system here refers to the classification of a language as either being 'isolating', 'agglutinating' or 'inflectional' type based on the morphological analysis of its word-structures (Radford, 2005:180).

Language typology refers to the classification of languages into types according to their morphological structures (Lyons, 1970:327).

Morphological elision refers to deliberate omission of either phonemes or letters of a word to allow proper Nupe intonation and speech rhythm.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises two parts: review of related literature and choice of a theoretical framework. It reviews the significant literature on the general study of morphology from the past to the present. The review covers the importance of morphology and its contributions to the general study of language. It examines the various morphological issues, concepts and processes that are significantly related to the present study. The researcher also reviews and critiques the various models of morphological theories significant today in the study of morphology. Furthermore, the chapter reviews literature on the relevant linguistic issues related to the present research topic. Subsequently, the review of the related literature results in the identification of a theoretical framework that can adequately and suitably handle data for the present study.

2.1 MORPHOLOGY AND LANGUAGE STUDY

Traditional grammar first begins by studying words as the basis of language study. Plato in his (‘cratylus’) and Panini (in his study of Sanskrit) could be said to be the first to classify words into classes around fourth century B.C (Lyons, 1969:10-20). In traditional grammar, words are considered as the basic units of language. On the other hand, traditional grammar treats the variations in the form of a word as ‘inflections’ but under grammar and this lays a long tradition in western linguistic studies.

Western linguists, until the nineteenth century, thought of grammar as consisting primarily of word structure (Haspelmath, 2002:12). The thrust of this view is derived from the preoccupation of traditional grammar with the study of classical languages of Greek and Latin. These languages are considered to have 'rich' inflectional patterns and this is today studied under inflectional morphology. Therefore, traditional grammar could be said to have inadvertently laid the foundation of morphological study. Yet, the history of morphological study could be traced to as far back as 1600 B.C. The clay tablets from ancient Mesopotania contained "a well structured list of morphological forms of Sumerian words…Sumeria was the traditional literary language of Mesopotania" (Haspelmath, 2002:12). Based on this, Haspelmath (2002) concludes that "the first linguists were primarily morphologists'' (p.12). But it was only in the second half of the nineteenth century that the term morphology was used in linguistics. The term was coined early in the nineteenth century by a German philosopher Johann Wolfgang Von Goethe who used it in a 'biological context'. Since then the term becomes current in linguistics (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:1). Mathews (1974) states the chronicle trends in the general study of linguistics according to whom, 1930s was for structural linguistics, a decade of phonology but the 1940s and early 1950s were apparently a period of "parallel progress in morphology" as a subfield of study. The 1960s was particularly "a decade of syntax" (p.4). As a proof of this assertion, Nida's book Morphology: The Descriptive Analysis of Words was first published in 1946 and then 1949.

Morphology in the present linguistic studies is concerned with the study of the internal structure of words. The goals of morphological study are to identify the principles, rules, processes and patterns that are inherent in the morphology of a language. The study of morphology is important to the general study of language

because “of all the distinct aspects of language morphology is the most deeply intertwined with the others” (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:22). So far the study of morphology proves valuable to the general linguistics. Morphology helps to establish “the boundary and interrelationships of grammar (syntax) and semantics” (Mathews, 1974:16). This is noticeable, for example, in the area of generation of certain compounds. For example, the phrase ‘fresh cream’ is syntactically determined because the adjective ‘fresh’ functions as the modifier of the noun ‘cream’. But ‘ice-cream’ is one word (compound word) of which ‘ice’ does not function as the modifier of the ‘cream’. The compound word refers to a separate commodity which is ‘ice-cream’ specifically and this is semantically determined. In these examples, it is the morphology that delineates the boundary between the two. The former belongs to syntax while the latter to semantics because ‘ice-cream’ is a combination of two free morphemes (noun + noun).

The study of morphology is important to the study of language universals. There are morphological features that are universal and this partly facilitates the classification of world languages. Greenberg (1966), for example, used the morphological criterion, among others, to classify world languages. Greenberg’s ‘universal 26’ says “if a language has discontinuous affixes, it always has prefixing or suffixing or both” (p.92). Morphology also facilitates, especially in the nineteenth centuries, the typology of languages as ‘isolating’, ‘inflecting’ and ‘agglutinating’ types (Mathews, 1974:17). However, how accurate the typology of languages is further depends on the status of ‘word’ in each language and in the general study of language.

2.2.0 THE 'WORD' AND LANGUAGE TYPOLOGIES

Words play an integral role in the human ability to use language with an infinite capacity of expression. Human vocabulary is a dynamic system because its open-endedness contributes to the creative use of language. As a result, the word is usually involved in almost all forms of linguistic analysis. But despite the centrality of the word in the study and analysis of language, a precise definition of the word has so far eluded linguists (Palmer,1971:51; Aronoff and Fundeman,2005:33) Attempts have been made by various linguists to define the word. There are three main approaches to the definition of the word. The first approach conceives the word to be "a linguistic unit that has a single meaning" (Palmer, 1971:44). The difficulty is what constitutes a single meaning. Many single words cover not one but two or more bits of meaning. For example, if 'sing' is said to have a single meaning, its inflected forms 'singer' presumably has further meanings. The word 'singer' means 'one who sings' and 'sang' as a result implies both 'sings' and 'past time' (Palmer, 1971:4). Secondly, phrasal verbs like 'put up with' (to tolerate), 'Zumatu' (to support one) in Nupe are made up of combination of words that do not have separate meanings. Phrasal verbs have single meanings because they are idiomatic. The words that constitute them cannot be divided into separate units of meaning and still arrive at their conventional meanings in language. Thirdly, "word division does not appear to correspond to meaning division" (Palmer, 1971:45). For instance, we cannot divide 'criminal lawyer' into 'criminal' and 'lawyer' as the compound word cannot be both a 'lawyer' and 'criminal'.

The second approach is based on phonetic/phonological perspective. The perspective is that the word can be recognized and 'marked off' by some features of its pronunciation (or sound) like 'stress' and 'pause' (Palmer, 1971:47). To support this view, it is claimed that 'blackbird' and 'blackboard', for example, are single words

because stress (mark) falls on only one syllable in each word of the compound, thus, 'blackbird', 'blackboard'. This single stress feature is similar to that of single words like 'black bird', black board' that carry single inherent stress. If the latter are single words, as the logic goes, then the former are also single words. But this is not realistic because there is no consistency in our writing conventions of writing these compound words. Sometimes the compound words are written as one word or two words separated by a hyphen.

The third approach looks at the word from orthographic point of view. Bloomfield defines the word as the 'minimum free form' that can occur in isolation. Words like 'boy', 'tree', 'food' can occur as 'free forms' but there are many words like 'the', 'a', 'my' (in English) and 'je' (in French) that do not occur by themselves in isolation (Palmer, 1971:50). In addition to this, the idea of 'free form' implies a written word that is bounded by space at the end of each side of the word. But this ends in a faulty conclusion that it is only in the written language word exists and it does not in spoken language (or speech). The status quo still is that the word is not clearly a definable linguistic unit.

However, there are solutions that have been proffered by linguists of how to recognize the word. A standard approach is to take, for example, 'cat' (singular) and 'cats' (plural) as different forms of the word 'CAT'. The term used for the former is 'word form' while for the latter, 'lexeme' (usually written in capital) (Palmer, 1971:52). Lexeme refers to an abstract unit or item that occurs in different inflectional 'forms' according to the syntactic rules involved in a grammatical structure (Lyons, 1969:197). Another way to recognize the word is to use morphological test which is based on the 'fixed order of elements'. The order of morphemes in a complex word like 'unbreakable' or 'emitsozhi' (in Nupe) cannot be changed to either 'unablebreak' or

'zhitsoemi. This shows that the former is a word and the latter is not (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:37). Another standard approach to recognizing the word is that of the Lexicographer or Dictionary method. A Lexeme like 'RAIN' could have other lexemes under it like 'RAINFALL', 'RAINY', 'RAINED' (as in the phrasal verb 'rained off') (Ajulo, 1994:49-50).

Based on the above, linguists categorise words into types. There is the phonological word which is defined as "a string of sounds that behaves as a unit for certain kinds of phonological processes especially stress or accent" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:39). In English, every phonological word has a main stress and the ones that do not have are not words. For example, 'The sentence 'the boy cried for hours' contains five words but only three ('boy', 'cried', 'hours') carry stress mark. The fact that 'the' and 'for' do not carry stress, they are therefore not phonological words. There is also grammatical word or 'morphosyntactic word'. This refers to "different forms of a single word that occur depending on the syntactic context" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:36). For example, 'emi/emizhi' in Nupe (house/houses) are two grammatical words that denote singular noun and plural noun respectively. Lastly, there are 'content' and 'function' words. Content words "have meaning in that they refer to objects, events and abstract concepts" (Finnegan, 1994:161). Most nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are content words. Function words are words with little or no meaning, they only play a functional role in a grammatical structure. Word classes like determiners, pronouns, conjunction, prepositions and even certain categories of verbs (like modal verbs) are function words.

2.2.1 LANGUAGE TYPOLOGIES

The status of the word in many languages is still not sufficiently clarified despite the typology of world languages by Wilhelm Von Humboldt (Palmer, 1971:55). Humboldt bases the typology largely on the morphological structure of languages and as a result classified all the languages of the world into three: 'isolating', inflecting', 'agglutinating'. These three types belong to 'analytical' class. An isolating language is one in which "all words are invariable" (Lyons, 1969:186); or lack bound morphemes (Radford and Atkinson, 2005:180) of which there is "no derivational or inflectional processes of any kind" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:170-171). Chinese and Vietnamese are often cited as examples of isolating languages (Lyons, 1969:187). An agglutinating language is made up of words of great complexity, consisting of many morphemes "strung out quite separately, each expressing a single notion and easily identified" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:171). The fact that the English word 'encouragement' can be segmented into 'en-courage-ment' and Nupe word 'egicicici' (beloved child) can be segmented similarly as 'egi-cici-ci show that both languages agglutinate. Turkish is regarded as an example which approximates very closely to the 'ideal' agglutinating type (Lyons, 1969:188) alongside the partial ones like English, Hungarian and some Bantu languages of Africa (Radford and Atkinson, 2005:181). Agglutinating languages have characteristics of "determinacy with respect to segmentation into morphs and one-to-one correspondence between morphs and morpheme" (Lyons, 1969:190).

An inflecting language, on the other hand, is "one whose words cannot be neatly or consistently segmented into morphemes" (Lyons, 1969:191). It is a 'fusional' language whose method of inflection is 'stem-based'. Latin and Italian are typical examples alongside Swahili, Russian, etc (Radford and Atkinson, 2005:181-183). The

fourth class of languages, often added to the traditional typology (above), is the class of 'polysynthetic languages' in which the entire sentences are expressed in a single word. The languages most often cited as polysynthetic come from North America like Nootka (a language spoken in Vancouver Island) and Yup'ik (an Eskimo language of Alaska) (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:171-172). In these languages, it is difficult to draw a distinction between sentences and words.

Nevertheless, the typological classification of languages does not imply that any one language can fall neatly into one type. Lyons (1969) observes that Turkish, though largely agglutinating, is to some extent inflecting; and Latin provides instances of agglutination. English is partly agglutinative and even 'semi-agglutinative' (or semi-inflecting) with respect to some words that cannot be segmented like 'men', 'mice', 'worse', etc (p.129). Therefore "the basic typology has to do with a scale running from 'analytical' to 'synthetic' languages, which encodes the degree to which the individual meaningful elements in a language are expressed separately" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:171). But if words have different structures upon which languages are classified, it therefore presupposes that words are of different types and classes.

2.3.0 WORD CLASSES, THE LEXICON AND LINGUISTIC RELATIONS

The Greek traditional grammarians were the first to focus attention on the word because it was regarded as the basic unit in language study. What is today called 'word classes' in modern linguistics is 'parts of speech' in traditional grammar. Plato of Greek (429-347B.C) and Panini of India (around fourth century B.C) are believed to be the first to start classification of words into classes. But it was Dionysius Thrax (around 100 B.C) who eventually "produced the grammar of Greek" and even recognized six out

of the present eight word classes (Palmer, 1971:59). Thus, the history of the classification of words into the present eight word classes spans a long period of time.

Plato was the first to distinguish between 'nouns' and 'verbs' in association with the subject and predicate of a sentence. Aristotle (384-322 B.C) maintained the Platonic distinction between nouns and verbs but added 'conjunction' as the third class. Stoics school of Greek philosophy added 'article' as the fourth class while Dionysius Thrax (late second century B.C) recognized the classes of 'adverb', 'preposition' and 'pronoun'. The medieval grammarians of Europe added the class of 'adjective' while the modern grammarians complemented the list with 'interjection' as the eighth class but somehow refused to recognize 'participle' and 'article' as separate word classes (Lyons, 1969:10-20 and Palmer, 1971:59). How these word classes were determined in traditional grammar appear to be based on subjective criteria. Palmer (1971) and Lyons (1969) observe that the eighth word classes and their definitions in traditional grammar seem 'arbitrary', 'notional', 'circular' and 'vague' because they are based on 'logic' and classical languages of Greek and Latin. The only reason why the eight word classes still remain as they are in linguistics is largely due to maintaining 'classical tradition' (Palmer, 1971:60).

In modern linguistic studies, the class of a word can be determined by semantic, syntactic and morphological criteria. A native speaker of Nupe knows that 'taku' (stone) refers to a particular concrete-inanimate object. This is semantically determined. He/she also knows how words are combined to form a correct grammatical structure in Nupe. Where the words 'taku' ('stone' as a noun) and 'la' ('break' as a verb) are to be used to form a statement (declarative sentence), a native speaker of Nupe knows that 'taku a la' (The stone has broken) is the correct order of words and not the vice versa as 'a la taku' (incorrect order of words). In this example, the relationship between 'taku' (noun) and

'la' (verb) is determined by the syntactic criterion. Equally, a native speaker of Nupe knows that the plural of 'taku' to be 'takuzhi' (stones) in that morphemic order and not the other way round as 'zhitaku' (in-correct). This case is morphologically determined and further goes to show that a native speaker of a language has knowledge of word formation.

2.3.1 THE LEXICON

A native speaker of a language has a mental list of words in his/her language and the linguistic facts or information encoded in the words. This list of words is referred to as the 'lexicon' (or mental dictionary) (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:52). Therefore in the lexicon of the native speakers of Nupe, for example, the word 'taku' (stone) contains not just the lexical entry itself but also semantic, syntactic and morphological information about the word.

The fact that a native speaker of Nupe knows the order of pluralizing 'chigba' (tree) as 'chigbazhi' (trees) and that the former ('çhigba') cannot further be broken down into any meaningful part proves that native speakers of a language know something about the internal structure of words. Thus, "the morphology of a language is the knowledge that speakers have of the structure of words in their language" (Haspelmath, 2002:39). There are, however, divergent views over the type of morphological information that the lexicon (a mental dictionary of a native speaker) contains. There is the view that the lexicon contains just simple 'mono-morphemic elements', i.e. roots and affixes, plus irregular complex words and that no regular complex words are listed in it. In other words, the lexicon contains all types of morphemes (roots, affixes) and all complex words are created by morphological rules

that the native speaker knows. On the other hand, there is the view that "all complex words are listed in the lexicon". Thus, the lexicon is a word-form lexicon (Haspelmath, 2002:42-43). Nevertheless, Haspelmath (2002) as well as Aronoff and Fundeman (2005) concludes that the mental lexicon of a native speaker of a language consists of all irregular words (whether simple or complex) and some regular complex words. But do the words occur haphazardly in actual language use or in a particular order of a relationship?

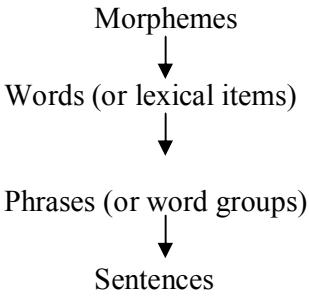
2.3.2 LINGUISTIC RELATIONS

Every linguistic unit has the potential to enter into a relationship of two different kinds: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. Also, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships are relevant at every level of linguistic analysis, including word level. A linguistic unit is said to be in paradigmatic relations when it enters into relations with or can occur with all the units in the same context or 'slot' (whether they contrast or are in free variation with the unit in question) (Lyons, 1969:73 and Haspelmath, 2002:165). When a linguistic unit or item contracts a paradigmatic relation, it is substitutable with other units it is related to and can occur in the same context or environment. For example, the following verbs and nouns are paradigmatically related in an imaginary vertical order: 'cooks/works', 'cooking/working', 'cooked/worked (verb forms); or 'child/man', 'child's/man's, 'children/men' (noun forms). A sentence like 'John cooks everyday', the verb 'cooks' can be substituted with 'works' in the sentence (likewise in other similar constructions of the example). The examples of the above words constitute 'paradigms' of verb forms and noun forms. The term paradigm refers to "a sort of table of related words from which a choice may be made in accordance with the grammatical rules of a language" (Tomori, 1977:23).

On the other hand, a linguistic unit is said to be in syntagmatic relations when it enters into relations with the other units of the same level with which it occurs and which constitute its context (Lyons, 1969:73). A linguistic unit or item contracts a syntagmatic relation with the other units it is related to when it is joined with them in a structural bond according to the rules of the language. The syntagmatic structural bond between related units is usually described and analysed in linguistics by the method of 'concatenation' with the symbol (+). The symbol is used to "indicate morpheme boundary" in a morphological analysis (Hartmann and Stork, 1972:xvii). For example, the word 'dokotucizhi' in Nupe (Horse riders) can be analysed morphologically into morphemes as 'doko + tu + ci + zhi'. Consequently, syntagmatic relations have to do with linear sequence of morphemes and their segmentation in words while paradigmatic relations have to do with substitution of words in a slot (frame) and/or paradigm.

2.4.0 MORPHOLOGICAL CONCEPTS AND MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

Morphology as a subfield of linguistics has developed some necessary concepts like any other field of study so as to be able to describe and analyse adequately the structure of words in languages. The minimal unit of grammatical analysis in language is the 'morpheme'. It is the unit of the 'lowest' rank out of which other larger units are built up from in successive stages, viz:



(Mathews 1974:78)

In morphology, morphemes are the 'morphological atoms' and therefore the ultimate elements of morphological analysis (Haspelmath, 2002:17). The morpheme in this study is defined as the smallest (or indivisible) unit of language that has semantic or grammatical meanings (Tomori, 1977:25). This means that there are morphemes that are explicitly meaningful while there are some that are only grammatical but not explicitly meaningful. In addition, a series of morphemes can make up a word. For example, 'ega' in Nupe is a smallest meaningful morpheme but it can take additional morphemes (semantic or grammatical) to form one word and thus, 'ega' (speech), 'egaga' (Speech making), 'egagaci' (speech maker), 'egagacizhi' (speech makers). The latter can be analysed morphologically as 'ega-ga-ci-zhi'. In this example, 'ega' and 'ga' are explicitly meaningful morphemes while '-ci' and '-zhi' are grammatical morphemes with no explicit meaning. The grammatical morpheme '-ci' is a marker of agent noun 'egagaci' (speech maker) and '-zhi' is a marker of plural morpheme 'egagacizhi' (speech makers).

Nevertheless, the morpheme itself is not directly considered to be part of a word. Morphemes are realized phonologically by 'morph'. When words are segmented into parts, the shapes of these segments as they are actually pronounced or written are referred to as morphs. For example, the word 'kyatyazhi' in Nupe (donkeys) orthographically consists of the Latin alphabet 'k,y,a,t,y,a,z,h,i' but in phonological

transcription it is /kj∂tj∂zhi/. Phonologically, the morphs therefore are /kj∂tj∂/ and /zhi/. Each morph represents a particular morpheme. In another way, a morph can also appear in orthographic form and this is conventionally written between braces such as {kyatya} and {zhi}. However, when a morpheme is solely realized in a phonological form it is called 'allomorph'. In this study, allomorphs are the alternative representations of morphemes or grammatical abstract units in form of phonological realizations (Mathews, 1974:83). For example, 'kyatya' (donkey) has the allomorphs [kj∂tj∂] and the plural morpheme [kj∂tj∂zhi] (donkeys).

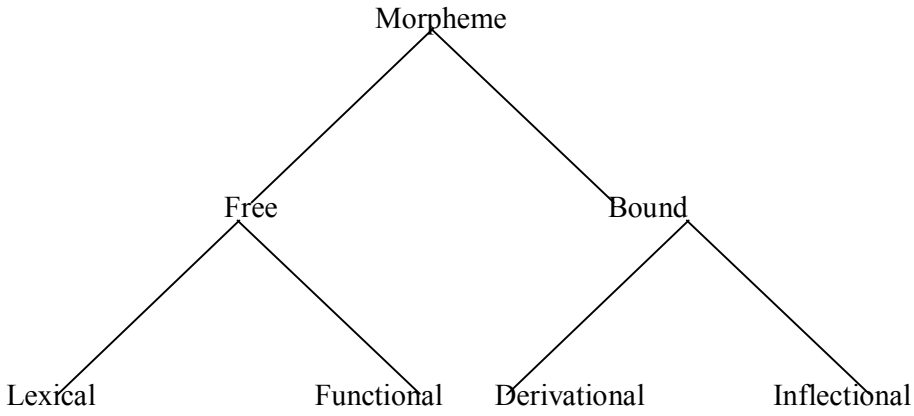
2.4.1 TYPES OF MORPHEME

There are different types of morphemes some of which appear to be the core of words while some are additions or appendages in words. The very 'heart' or core of a word is known as the 'root' of the word to which other morphological pieces are attached. The root cannot be analysed further into constituent morphemes. For example, in the Nupe word 'eyaku' (selling wares), 'eya' (a ware or article of trade in this context) is the root morpheme (Tomori, 1977; Aronoff and Fundeman,2005). On the other hand, a root morpheme is different from 'stem'. The stem of a word is the 'base' or that part of the word to which the last morpheme in the word is structurally added. For example, 'eyaku' in Nupe is the stem of 'eyakuci' (a seller of wares) because the former is the morpheme that carries the last additional morpheme ('-ku') before the formation of the latter ('eyakuci'). However, in 'eyaku', 'eya' is both the stem and the root of the entire word (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:2).

A stem can be simple, consisting of one piece (or root) or complex comprising root and other morphemes. Where a word has only one root and no additional free or

bound morpheme, it is called 'base word' and where a word "consists of at least one root and a number of bound or free morphemes, it is called 'derived word' " (another name, complex word) (Tomori, 1977:34). For example, 'eya' (above) is both a base and a free morpheme while 'eyaku' (above) is a derived word (complex word) because the latter word consists of the bound morpheme ('-ku'). A free morpheme can stand alone by itself as a single word and a bound morpheme cannot. It is typically attached to another form (as in the above) (Yule, 1985:60). Free morphemes subdivide into 'lexical' and 'functional' morphemes. Lexical (free) morphemes are of the categories of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs that really belong to open-ended class. The examples are 'taku' (stone, noun), 'bologi' (beautiful, adjective), 'ba' (cut, verb), 'gbani' (now, adverb). Functional morphemes deal with the category of words that belong to close-ended class like 'uci' (that, pronoun), 'nana' (this, determiner), 'ta' (on, preposition), 'be' (and, conjunction) etc.

Bound morphemes occur in different forms and at different positions of the word under the collective term 'affixes'. Affixes are morphemes that are added either to the beginning or middle or end of a word. The morpheme that is added to the beginning of the root morpheme is called a 'prefix' while the morpheme that is added to the end of the root morpheme is called a 'suffix'. For example, in 'unveil', 'indiscriminate', the 'un-' and 'in-' morphemes are prefixes and in 'foolishness', 'education', the '-ness' and '- ion' morphemes are suffixes. Following Yule (1985), the relationship between the basic morphological concepts as explained above is hereby presented in form of a diagram:



(Yule, 1985 : 62)

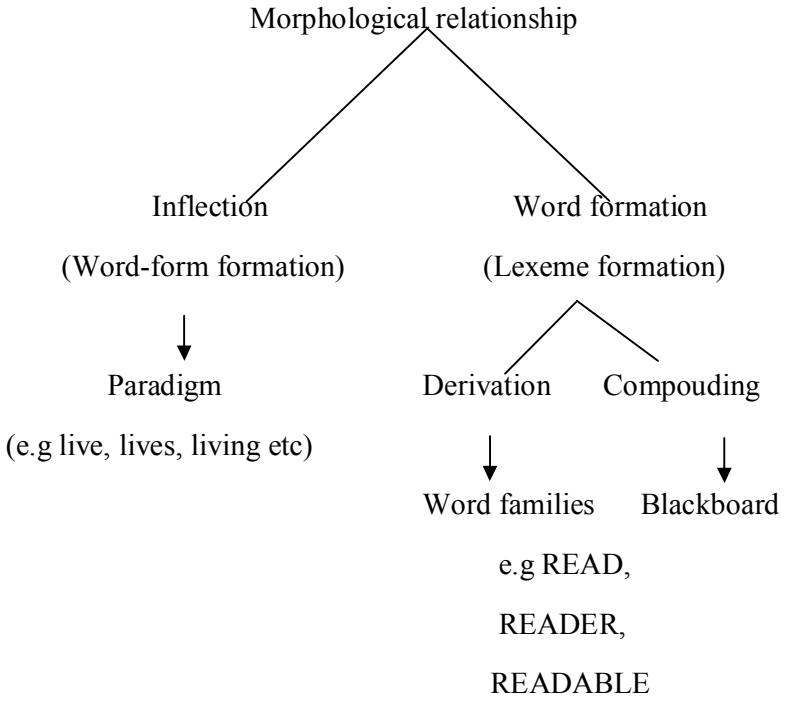
Inflectional and Derivational morphology

The application and effect of affixes on word formation bring about the inflectional and derivational dichotomy in morphology. Inflection involves the formation of grammatical forms of a single word dictated by the sentence structure (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:45). Therefore, inflections are morphemes that perform grammatical functions in a word without changing the word class of the particular word. For example, 'zawangi' in Nupe (human being) is singular that has a plural morpheme in form of inflection as 'zawangizhi' (human beings). Yet, both the singular and plural forms are nouns despite the plural inflected form ('-zhi'). The occurrence of this bound morpheme ('-zhi') at the end of the root word ('zawangi') makes it an inflectional suffix (Tomori, 1977:33). Derivational, on the other hand, involves adding to a root or stem an affix or affixes in order to provide a new word. Derivations can occur as prefixes and suffixes in words. For example, in 'unkind', 'misrepresent', 'sadness' and 'education', the morphemes 'un-', 'mis-', '-ness' and '-ion' are derivational affixes. The morphemes 'un-' and 'mis-' are prefixes while '-ness' and '-ion' are suffixes. In English, derivational suffixes in words usually change the word class of the word to which they

are attached. For example, ‘quick’ is an adjective but ‘quickly which is a derivational suffix changes the word to an adverb.

At another level, there are differences between inflection and derivation. Derivation generally results in change in the meaning of a particular word a derivational affix is attached to while inflection does not. In other words, derivations are creative because they produce new words (new base forms or stems) that other derivational or inflectional affixes can attach to (Akmajian et al, 2001:44). The following words change their meanings from positive to negative due to the derivational prefixes attached: ‘honest/dishonest’, ‘sincere/insincere’. In the case of inflection, words do not change their meanings despite the inflected form attached. For example, there is no significant difference in meaning between the verb forms ‘play’ and ‘plays’, except the pluralisation of the latter. Another difference is that derivational affixes tend to occur closer to the root or stem than inflectional affixes (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:161). This means there is a certain relative order within words, namely, inflectional suffixes follow derivational suffixes. As a result, derivation marks the ‘inner’ layer of words while the inflection marks the ‘outer’ layer (Akmajan et al, 2001:44). As an example, the word ‘commercialises’ first contains the stem ‘commercial’, then followed by the derivational suffix ‘-ise’ and lastly, the inflectional suffix ‘- s’. Further difference between the two is that inflection is determined by the morphosyntactic categories of person, number and tense while derivation is not. The morphosyntactic categories affect both the words around them and the words within which they occur (Malmkjaer, 1991:18). For example, the type of noun (in terms of number) that serves as the subject (either singular or plural) of a sentence determines its verb forms (grammatical agreement).

Lastly, inflectional morphemes are semantically more regular than derivational morphemes because in the former, the meaning of the morpheme and that of the inflected base is quite regular. For example, 'cigba/cigbazhi' (tree/trees) in Nupe means singular and plural, which is regular in other similar pairs. It is this regularity in the inflectional morphemes that makes it possible for some English verbs (specifically, regular verbs) to assume a paradigm of inflectional patterns. The words 'walk' and 'work' both share the inflected forms '-s' (walks), '-ng' (walking), '-ed' ('walked' as a past tense form) and '-ed' ('walked as participle) in their inflectional patterns. Derivational affixes can not be easily subjected to regular paradigm. In view of the above, Haspelmath (2002) illustrates the distinction between inflection and derivation with the following diagram:



(Haspelmath, 2002 :16)

2.4.2 PRODUCTIVITY

The difference between inflection and derivation is most noticeable also in the area of morphological productivity. This refers to the high probability or frequency of the occurrence of a morpheme or category of morphemes with relative freedom in various words and their comparative acceptance in a language over other morphemes. Following this, inflectional morphology has been noted to be "more productive than derivational morphology" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:161). For example, the third person singular present tense '-s' can be attached to any English present tense as in 'reads', 'plays', 'creates' etc, etc. Also, the common way by which English nouns mark their plural is by the addition of the inflectional suffix '-s' as in 'boys', 'books', 'animals', etc, etc. This pattern of pluralisation is more productive than other existing plural formations (like irregular plural nouns) in English. However, Haspelmath (2002) observes that derivational affix (suffix) '-ness' has "a high degree of productivity as it can combine freely with almost any adjective that expresses a quality" (e.g goodness, kindness, foolishness rudeness etc, etc).

Similarly, Malmkjaer (1991) observes that the derivational morpheme '-ist' is fully productive' (e.g Communist, Marxist, Copyist, Physicist, Geologist, etc. etc). Nevertheless, morphological productivity of morphemes is not absolute, it is a matter of degree. At another level, there are divergent views over whether productivity is part of native speaker's linguistic competence or not. The common position on this is that as far as productivity is considered part of what the speakers do with language, it is therefore part of their linguistic competence (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:216).

2.4.3 MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

Morphemes are the morphological 'atoms' and the ultimate elements of morphological analysis. On the other hand, morphemes are also the 'primitive' elements (root or bound morpheme) upon which morphological processes operate to create new forms of words. Therefore, morphological processes are primarily concerned with the various ways by which forms of word can be derived from stems or roots. As a result, morphological analysis of any language needs to identify the morphemes of the language and the formative processes of word forms to facilitate the analysis of the structure of words. The following morphological processes are considered pertinent to this study:

(i) Prefixation and Suffixation

Prefixation and suffixation are derivational affixes that are involved largely in the process of word formation in some languages (e.g. English). They involve adding or 'concatenating' affixes (bound morphemes) either to the beginning or end of a word and thus, their morphological operation is regarded as 'concatenating morphology' (Radford 2005:187). Prefixation refers to the process of adding a bound morpheme to the beginning of a base or stem. The bound morpheme added is called 'prefix'. However, prefixes in most cases do not change the word class of the base word. For example, 'fair/unfair' and 'loyal/disloyal' still remain adjectives despite the prefixes ('un-' and 'dis-') that are added to the base words. Suffixation, on the other hand, refers to the process of adding a bound morpheme to the end of a base or stem. The bound morpheme added is called 'suffix' but unlike prefix, "suffixes frequently alter the word class of the base" in some languages that use them (Quirk and

Greenbaum, 1973:431-441). For example, in 'drive/driver', 'employ/employee or employer', the base 'drive' and 'employ' are verbs while the derived words are nouns.

(ii) Compounding

Compounding refers to the process of combining two or more already existing base or free words into a single morphological unit called 'compound'. A compound is a unit consisting of two or more bases that have an independent existence and also functions in sentence as single words (Malmkjaer, 1991:39). Furthermore, compounds do express syntactic relationship between the compounding words but the word class of the "rightmost member of the compound" called the 'head' determines the word class of the whole compound (Akmajan et al, 2001:33). For example, 'pickpocket' is a compound word formed from the verb 'pick' and noun 'pocket' (verb + noun) but the head of the compound is 'pocket' and thus, the whole compound is a noun. However, where a compound is a hyponym of the head word or in its meaning names the entire thing by specifying some features related to the compounding base words, it is endocentric compound (or bahuvrhi). For example, 'wristwatch', 'football' are endocentric compounds. On the other hand, where a compound is not a hyponym of the head word or does not name or specify features of compounding base words like endocentric, it is exocentric compound. For example, in 'scapegoat', 'pickpocket', the meaning of each compounding base word is in contrast with the meaning of the whole compound (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:447).

(iii) Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process that refers to the repetition or combining of two or more base words that are identical or only slightly different. For

example, there are reduplications like ‘goody-goody’, ‘wishy-washy’ ‘hanky-panky’ etc (Quirk and Greenboum, 1973:448).

(iv) Clipping

Clipping refers to the subtraction or reduction of one or more syllables from a word or words to a shorter form (Yule, 1985:54). The shortening may occur at the beginning or end or both ends of the word. There are many examples in English like ‘lab’ for ‘laboratory’, ‘phone’ for ‘telephone’, ‘ad’ for ‘advertisement, ‘plane’ for ‘aeroplane’, etc, etc. However, “the clipped form tends to be used especially in informal discourse” (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:448).

(v) Backformation

Backformation refers to the reduction of a word of one word-class type to form another word of a different word class type. For example, ‘television’ is a noun that “first came into use and then the verb ‘televise’ was created from it” (Yule, 1985:54). Other examples are ‘edit’ (verb) created from ‘editor’ (noun); ‘donate’ (verb) from ‘donation’ (noun); ‘manage’ from ‘manager’ (noun); etc.

(vi) Borrowing

Borrowing refers to the process by which a language borrows words from another language due to the ‘lexical gaps’ that may exist in its vocabulary system and overtime appropriates the borrowed words fully into its lexicon. This morphological process is a feature of almost all languages of the world. However, “if an isolated complex word (consisting of root and other morphemes) is borrowed into another language, its morphological structure inevitably gets lost” (Haspelmath, 2002:107). For example, the ‘orangutan’ is a mono-morphemic word in English but in the source

language (where it is borrowed from) Malay, 'orang' means 'man' and 'utan' means forest.

2.5.0 THE RELEVANT WORKS ON THE NUPE LANGUAGE

As earlier stated in chapter one, there are few scholarly studies on Nupe language done by foreigners (Europeans), who are non-native speakers of the language, and also by indigenous native speakers of the language. Smith's (1967) work An Outline Grammar of Nupe is pertinent to mention in this study because of the interface between morphology and syntax which the work attempts to establish in its description of the grammatical structure of Nupe. As a British scholar, Smith describes the grammatical structure of Nupe within the theoretical framework of Halliday's (1961) 'Scale and Category' grammar. To this end, he describes the grammatical structure of Nupe in terms of hierarchy of units in a rankscale of descending magnitude, beginning with Nupe sentence. By this work, Smith could be said to be one of the early scholars that studied the grammar of Nupe. Secondly, Smith's study is a major contribution to linguistic research in Nupe because it still serves as a reference work.

Nevertheless, Smith attempted the description of a language (Nupe), which he is not so much familiar with. Firstly, he examines Nupe words in syntactic contexts. Nupe words, in his study, are not examined, first, as independent linguistic entities in order to know their morphological structures and classifications prior to their syntactic entry in sentences. This type of approach is responsible for the wrong identification of, for example, 'se-gwa' (sic) instead of 'she gwa' (to mean 'handful'), as a complex word made up of bound and free morphemes ('se'/'gwa'). On the contrary, 'se' and 'gwa' are two free morphemes, with 'se' (full) as verb and 'gwa' (an elided form of 'egwa' to

mean ‘hand’) as noun. Secondly, Smith claims that the Nupe noun “can take the plural suffix ‘-zhi’ ” (Smith, 1967:46). But it is not every Nupe noun that can the plural morpheme. For example, ‘micini’ (saliver) is a Nupe noun but non-count which cannot take the plural morpheme as ‘mici- zhi’ (salivers). Smith’s morphological description fails even to identify types of Nupe morphemes such as inflectional and derivational morphemes.

Lastly, Smith describes the grammatical units in Nupe in a rankscale of descending magnitude (as he begins with Nupe sentence) and this makes his study to skip and gloss over proper identification of morphemes in Nupe language. A proper grammatical description of any language should begin with the description of the least unit in the hierarchy (for example, root morphemes or words) before larger units (like sentence) in a rankscale of ascending magnitude. This would bring out clearly the morphology of Nupe words in terms of distinctions between morphemes in words and as morphemes occur in words used in sentences.

Abdullahi’s (1999) work A Comparative Study of Some Aspects of Nupe and English Morphologies is an M.A thesis that is relevant to this study. This is because the work deals partly with the morphology of Nupe words and the researcher is also an indigenous native speaker of the language. This work could be said to be exceptional because it is a comparative study of the morphologies of two languages that have an unequal status: Nupe is an indigenous minority language that has not been well studied while English is a predominant world language that is well studied but not indigenous to Nigeria. Secondly, the contrasting features in the morphologies of the two languages as identified in the work open up further areas of research in Nupe morphology and other Nupe linguistic studies.

However, the study is a comparative work and therefore could not study the morphology of Nupe words in detail and adequately. Also, as a comparative study, there is the likely- hood that the morphological description and identification of morphemes of either of the two languages do spill over and have a pull-effect on that of the other. This is because certain morphological features of Nupe identified as corresponding to that of English appear striking. For example, the researcher claims that "the English possessive inflectional suffix morpheme ('-'s' as in 'man's work') is equivalent to Nupe possessive inflectional morpheme [yan]" as in 'etu yan bagi' (Abdullahi, 1999:87). On the contrary, the English genitive case (as in 'man's work') is clearly an inflectional suffix that denotes possessiveness but its counterpart in Nupe is not [yan] as in 'etu yan bagi' (The work of man). The words 'yan bagi' function as a prepositional phrase denoting possessiveness. Therefore 'yan' is a root word (free morpheme) and at the same time a preposition that is not directly equivalent to the English inflected genitive ('-'s').

Lastly, the use of Nida's six principles as analytical model by the researcher could not (in the researcher's own words) "adequately and suitably apply to Nupe morphemes as it does with English morphemes" (Abdullahi, 1999:115). Therefore, it is in the light of the above that the present study hopes to bridge the gap.

2.5.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF NUPE ORTHOGRAPHY

Orthography refers to "a given set of written marks together with a particular set of conventions for their use" (Malmkjaer, 1991:497). A unit of written mark or shape is called 'graph' or 'grapheme'. Script, on the other hand, is a set of graphic signs or alphabet (or graphemes) used in a particular language (Hartmann and stork 1972:200).

The development of Nupe orthography has passed through several phases and orthographic stages for over a long period of time. Nupe orthography developed in two ways: early development of the orthography by non-native speakers of Nupe and later development of the orthography by indigenous native speakers of Nupe.

Historically, the development of Nupe orthography was not very much different from that of other Nigerian languages that had early written tradition. Kay (1990) observes that "three scripts have been used for writing in Nigeria: an indigenous script called Oberi Okaime (which never developed into full writing system), the Ajami or Arabic script, and Latin alphabet" (p.118). But the greatest amount of Nigerian languages has been in the Latin script which was introduced into Nigeria by the missionaries and colonial administrations. Based on this Latin script and other criteria, Kay (1990) categorises nine Nigerian languages as early 'large' written languages: Edo, Efik, Fulfulde, Idoma, Igala, Izom, Kanuri, Nupe and Tiv (p.42).

Nupe orthography evolved in chronological phases. The first early attempt at developing Nupe orthography was made by the missionaries and colonial educationists. From the publications between 1860 and 1903, "two sets of orthographic conventions had been in use" (Madugu, 1985:26). The first set of orthographic convention was used in 1882 text, especially in publications in Nupe language by Samuel Ajayi Crowther and thus, the origin of the orthography was associated with him (details of all types of Nupe orthography are contained in the Appendix). This orthography has thirty Latin letters of the alphabet of which two are digraphs as single distinct letters ('gb', 'kp',). Digraph is "a combination of two letters representing a single speech sound" (Hartmann and Stork, 1972:67). Furthermore, the letters of 'e' and 'O' are tone marked but they are "non-existent in the majority of Nupe dialects" (Madugu, 1985:26). Perhaps they are as a result of Yoruba influence. For example, 'hand' in Nupe was spelt in 1882 text as

'eguo' (typical Yoruba pronunciation) instead of 'egwa' which actually realises the Nupe pronunciation of the word. In addition to this, the Nupe digraphs of 'ts' and 'dz' are omitted in the orthography. However, they are treated as two distinct letters.

Another version of the orthography was used in 1903 as found in the publication of Enikozi (Nupe songs) by Henri Johnson and Christaller J. The orthography used in the text appears to be a slight modification of the earlier one (above). The orthography has thirty letters two of which are digraphs of 'gb' and 'kp' in addition to the use of a few diacritic marks. However, there was a replacement of 'ts' and dz (in 1882 text) with 'C' and 'J', respectively. For example, 'C' was used to spell 'church' as 'Coci' in 1903 text in place of 'tsoci' in 1882 text. Yet, the confusion over 'ts' and 'dz' as to whether they are consonant clusters or digraphs continues to prevail in the orthography (Madugu, 1985:27). Furthermore, the 1903 text contained the use of the tilde (~) to indicate vowel nasalization as in 'naka' (meat/body), 'Ki' (to praise).

The next major development in the history of Nupe orthography was between 1914 and 1953. These were the periods when Banfield published the Dictionary of Nupe language volumes 1 (1914) and II (1916). This was later followed by the publication of the Nupe translated Bible by the same author. In these publications, another set of Nupe orthographic convention emerged and as a result, it is referred to as 'Banfield's orthography' (Madugu, 1985:25). In this orthography, there are twenty nine letters of which digraphs such as 'dz', 'ts', 'kp', 'gb' and 'ny' are treated as consonant clusters. There is also the use of subdot for vowel nasalization as in, for example, 'cigban' (tree) and this means that tone marking is constant in Banfield's set of Nupe orthography. Nevertheless, Banfield's orthography does not make distinction between 'basic' and 'non basic' tone markers (Madugu, 1985:30).

The next set of Nupe orthography emerged from the outside circle of the missions or churches. Hans Wolf (1954) in consultation with UNESCO published his monograph Nigerian Orthography for the North Regional Adult Education Office, Zaria and a section of the monograph includes a proposed alphabet for Nupe. Wolf 's Nupe orthography consists of thirty seven letters out of which seven are digraphs ('dz', 'gb', 'kp', 'sh', 'ny', 'ts' and 'zh') plus tilde (~) as a marker of vowel nasalization. Wolf's orthography was used in the 1950s publications such as Nnayintsu, Nupe Newspaper (Madugu, 1985:31).

The latest development of Nupe orthography involved Nupencizhi (the Nupe people) themselves. In 1978, Niger State Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria decided to set up Nupe language project committee (henceforth, NLPC). The membership of the committee was drawn from all Nupe speaking Local Government Areas of Niger, Kwara and Benue States. The NLPC was charged with the responsibility of producing a uniform and standardized Nupe orthography. The result of the work of the committee is the current Nupe orthography in use especially in official circle. The orthography consists of thirty three letters (or graphemes) out of which eight are digraphs i.e 'dz', 'gb', 'in', 'kp', 'sh', 'ts', 'un', 'zh' (Madugu, 1985:32). The letter 'a' is the only letter that carries a marker of vowel nasalization as in 'egban' (rope). The NLPC orthography appears to be an integration of Banfield's and Wolf's but does not, however, use diacritic marks. This may be based on an underlying conviction of the NLPC that "tone marking is unnecessary for texts meant for Nupencizhi (the Nupe people)" (Madugu, 1985:38). This is in addition to the idea that the context of a sentence can make clear the meaning of the words used. Despite the problems that Madugu (1985) observes in the NLPC

orthography, it is the orthography that is the latest, current, simple to use and recognised officially in writing Nupe language.

So far the NLPC orthography has been in use notably in official circle. The orthography was used by J.B Adams in translating 'Oxford Arithmetic' Book(1) meant for Nigerian primary schools. The translated version was published in 1988 by the University Press Limited, Ibadan, and was authorised by the Ministries of Education of Niger, Kwara and Benue States. The translated copies are to be used as Arithmetic teaching materials in Nupe speaking areas in the states mentioned above. NLPC orthography was also used by Abdullahi (1999) in his M.A Thesis (A.B.U, Zaria). Furthermore, the orthography is currently used in writing Nupe news for broadcast (and even telecast) on radio and television stations especially in Niger and Kwara States. In fact, recent instructional materials developed for induction courses on 'Nupe language proficiency' are now written in NLPC orthography. For example, a 'crash course' on Nupe language proficiency was organised for primary school teachers in Bida Local Government Education Area from the 18th to 19th December, 1997 (c.f Appendix section, for all models of Nupe Orthography mentioned).

2.6.0 MODELS OF MORPHOLOGICAL THEORY

Traditional grammar places emphasis on word and word forms in studying language and this lays the foundation, as earlier mentioned, for the eighteenth century Western linguists to think of grammar of language as a matter of word structure. However, 1940s and early 1950s were noted by Mathews (1974) to be a period of "parallel progress in morphology" as a field of study (p.4). From the past to the present the goals of the morphological study are to identify the principles, rules, processes and

patterns of the morphology of a language. To achieve these goals, morphologists try to 'mimic' the mental organization of the native speaker's knowledge or replicate the morphological structure of a language by developing different principles, approaches and theoretical models of morphological description/analysis.

2.6.1 ANALYTICAL MODELS

Most morphologists describe the morphology of language either in analytical or synthetic ways. The analytical approach breaks down words into morphemic parts or forms using formal principles or methodologies. Nida's (1949) study is one of the early notable morphological studies that describes the morphology of language in analytical ways. Nida uses six principles for identifying the morphemes of a language. The principles are derived from the methods Nida adopted as he states that "we compare and isolate, and it is only by such comparison with other forms that we can discover morphemes" (Nida, 1949:6). To this end, Nida outlines six principles for identifying morphemes of a language. Principle (1) states that forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonetic form in all their occurrences constitute a single morpheme. Principle (ii) stresses that forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but differ in phonemic forms (that is the phonemes or order of the phonemes) may constitute a morpheme provided the distribution of formal differences is phonologically definable. Principles (iii) says that forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but differ in phonemic form in such a way that their distribution cannot be phonologically defined constitute a single morpheme if the forms are in complementary distribution in accordance with certain stated restrictive conditions. Principle (iv) states that an overt formal difference in a structural series

constitutes a morpheme if, in any member of such a series; the overt formal difference and a zero structural difference are the only significant features for distinguishing a minimal unit of phonetic – semantic distinctiveness. Principle (v) expresses that homophonous forms (linguistic forms which sound alike) are identifiable as the same or different morphemes on the basis of certain conditions. Lastly, principle (vi) states that a morpheme is isolatable if it occurs under certain conditions of isolation (Tomori, 1977: 25-30).

Nida's (1949) principles can be used to discover, identify and classify different types of morphemes of a language in form of an inventory. For example, principle (i) can identify words like 'walker', 'dancer', 'trader', 'farmer', 'singer' etc as morphemes of the same form since they all end with the same morphemic element '-er' that has the same meaning (as 'doer') in the above words.

The weakness of Nida's (1949) approach is that the principles can only lead one to taxonomy of different types of morphemes superficially. This is because the principles are of different types that do not operate as a single formal methodology with general application. The principles presume that a morpheme can be identified as a type only if it has morphemic forms in comparison with other similar ones. Furthermore, the principles focus on forms of words instead of their internal structures and can therefore confuse the identification of morphemes in some words. For instance, in Nupe words like 'egizhi' (children), 'wufizhi' (shoes), 'cigbazhi' (trees), etc, Nida's (1949) principles (1) can identify them as having the same morpheme of plurality. In the same vein, the same principle can identify the morpheme '-zhi' in 'ezhi' ('town' as singular), 'ezazhi' (town person) as plural morphemes but they are not. The '-zhi' in these examples is the integral part of the root or stem morphemes above. Lastly, there are forms of words that do not occur alone or in isolation like 'redemp' as in 'redemption'

or ‘reten-’ as in ‘retention’. These morphemic forms (‘redemp-’ or ‘reten-’) do not replicate anywhere other than with the above English words and therefore they are not isolatable. This is contrary to Nida’s factor of ‘isolation’ (above) (Tomori, 1977:31).

Hockett (1954) uses the analytical method in his morphological studies and distinguishes three approaches to morphological description. These are ‘Word and Paradigm’ (WP), ‘Item and Arrangement’ (IA) and ‘Item and Process’ (IP). Word and Paradigm (henceforth, WP), as an approach, has a long established history going back to ancient classical (traditional) grammars when it was developed for “older Indo-European Systems” (or languages) (Mathews, 1974; 139). In this approach, the word is the central unit and the grammatical words are the minimal elements and as a result, the approach focuses on word forms rather than their internal structure. The methodology of WP approach is that “word forms sharing a common root or base are grouped into one or more paradigms” (Malmkjaer, 1991:322). The term “paradigm” means ‘pattern’ in Greek but in WP it refers to the forms of a given noun, verb, etc arranged systematically according to their grammatical features” (Mathews, 1997:263). The Paradigm Categories include number, person, tense, case (grammatical categories) which are mostly used as inflectional morphemes. For example, the following words constitute paradigms of verb forms, and also noun forms:

Verb Forms

cook	cooks	cooking	cooked	cooked
walk	walks	walking	walked	walked
see	sees	seeing	saw	seen

Noun Forms

man	man's	men
child	child's	children
house	house's	houses

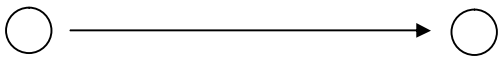
The paradigms of verb forms are determined by the syntactic features of number (as in ' I cook'), person (as in 'He walks') and tense (as in 'He cooked'). Similarly, the paradigms of noun forms are determined by number such as singular and plural (as in 'man/men') and case such as possessive (as in 'child's care'). Members of each set of the verb and noun forms listed (above) are said to be in paradigmatic relationship with one another (Tomori, 1977:23).

Nevertheless, the WP approach has some weaknesses. The approach focuses on word forms and just lists them in paradigms without explicit analysis. It is simply "a rudimentary division between the 'stem' and 'ending' (inflectional suffix) (Mathews, 1970:109 ed). Secondly, the approach proves workable with languages that inflect like English (as above) but not with languages that agglutinate. In addition, the approach appears limited in application and appropriate to the morphological study of verbs that inflect in inflectional languages. Lastly, WP cannot provide analysis of the internal structure of words which is of great interest to morphologists.

Hockett's (1954) Item and process and Item and Arrangement are associated with "American Structuralist linguistics, codified by Bloomfield (1933)" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:46). Item and process (henceforth, IP) is an approach "in which an initially simple element like root or base word undergoes successive processes of internal change, affixation, etc" (Mathews, 1997:189). This morphological conception

of morpheme analysis derives its thrust from Bloomfield's (1933) concept of 'phonetic modification', which is one of the four ways he identifies for arranging morphemes. IP considers the morpheme, not the word, to be the basic unit of grammar, and therefore, the morphology/syntax division is negated (Malmkjaer, 1991:322). In IP, each morpheme has an underlying form to which processes are applied and labels such as 'plural', 'past tense' are treated as operations rather than forms. The methodology of IP is that it begins by providing the morphemes with the 'basic phonological make up' such as 'SINK', then this interacts with another abstract morpheme like plural, past tense, etc to trigger off a 'morphological process' (the process of change). Finally, further processes (morphophonemic) operate on the changed morpheme to realise the resultant morpheme. For example, to arrive at 'sank' as a past tense form of the lexeme 'SINK', the basic form 'sink' interacts and joins the 'past tense'. But the 'past tense' disappears only to trigger off the morphological process (process of change) that changes [i] in 'sink' to [a] to finally realise the past tense form 'sank' in place of 'sink' (Mathews, 1970;103).

However, Mathews (1974) being an exponent of Hockett's IP further modifies its concept and methodology. In Mathews' (1974) model of IP, the verb 'sailed' is the 'derivand' (the form which results when a process or operation is applied) and this further consists of the 'operand' 'sail' (operand is the form that derivand is applied to) plus the 'formative' written as '-ed'. This is given the following schematic illustration:



\+ ed

(derivand, e.g 'sailed') (operand, e.g 'sail') (formative, e.g '-ed')

The arrow symbol is called 'sandhi' (i.e 'joining') (Mathews, 1974: 102 – 124). In fact, "IP concepts form essential parts of what has come to be known as 'generative phonology' " (Mathews, 1970:106 ed.).

Unfortunately, IP cannot explicitly account for all the features of all languages. The notion of synchronic vowel change, for example, from 'sink' to 'sank' has been criticised to be far removed from the objective description of the morphology of language. Secondly, IP's methodology is complex and appears cumbersome. Most importantly, IP appears to be suitable for inflectional languages like English whose verbs inflect and can even undergo vowel change. On the contrary, IP appears not to be suitable for languages that are tonal and whose word classes rather take affixal morphemes than inflect like Nupe nouns and adjectives. In other words, IP cannot adequately and explicitly analyse the morphology of agglutinating languages like Item and Arrangement.

Item and Arrangement (henceforth, IA), according to Aronoff and Fundeman (2005), grew out of the structuralist preoccupation with word analysis, and in particular, with the technique for breaking words down into their component morphemes (p.47). This conception of morpheme analysis has foundation in Bloomfield's (1933) concepts of 'order' and 'selection' as twin criteria for arranging the morphemes (Palmer, 1971:119). According to Mathews (1974), IA is Hockett's 'clearest' model of morphological analysis as it takes the morpheme as the basic unit of morphological description and "treats morphology as syntax" (Abdullahi, 1999:37). The goal of IA is to describe the totality of possible sequences of morphemes, especially in 'a strongly agglutinative language', using discrete minimal units (Malmkjaer, 1991:323). The methodology of IA is to first provide a specification of the inventory of morphemes (the items). This is then followed by a specification of the sequences in which these

morphemes can appear (the possible arrangement). Lastly, the methodology provides a specification of how each morpheme can be realised through the link between the grammatical aspects of morphological structure and the phonology (Mathews, 1970:99 ed.). For example, the Nupe word 'ezazhizhi' (people of the town) can be analysed as 'eza-zhi-zhi'.

The IA method of analysis has the advantage of explicitly identifying types of morphemes. The above example contains three types of morphemes of which 'eza-' (person in singular form) is the root morpheme, '-zhi' (from 'ezhi' i.e town) is another elided root morpheme (i.e derivational suffix) and the last '-zhi' (plural morpheme) is a bound morpheme (i.e inflectional suffix). Secondly, the segmented morphemes in sequence ('eza-zhi-zhi') are syntactically related because ordering the morphemes in any other way will render the word morphologically incorrect. It is due to this syntactic element in IA that modern morphologists like Aronoff and Fundeman (2005), Radford et al (2005) associate the approach with the concept of 'concatenative morphology' (p.187). This concept brings about the use of concatenation symbol (+) to mark morpheme boundaries in words and between words in IA analysis. Lastly, IA methodology is simple to use and it also operates with economic method of analysis.

2.6.2 LEXICAL MORPHOLOGY

Lexical morphology is an approach to morphological description/analysis of language that is rooted within the broad theory of Generative Grammar. Malmkjaer (1991) states that "in the 1970s and 1980s, important works on morphology have been produced within the Generative Grammar framework" (p.323). Generative morphologists like Halle (1973), Jakendoff (1975), Williams (1981), and Anderson

(1982) etc adopt the lexicalist viewpoint which emphasises that the rules of word formation are rules for generating words stored in the dictionary (or lexicon) within Generative Grammar (Malmkjaer, 1991:323). This view inevitably creates two schools of 'lexicalist hypothesis': strong and weak lexicalist hypotheses.

The strong lexicalist hypothesis is the view that "there is no distinction in principle between inflectional and derivational morphology and, secondly, they both belong, in Generative Grammar, to the lexicon and not syntax (Mathews, 1997:356). Lexicon in this hypothesis is seen as a simple sub-component of a Generative Grammar. The main thesis of this hypothesis is expressed in Halle's (1973) model of lexical morphology which consists of (a) a list of morphemes, (b) a set of word formation rules (otherwise known as WFRs), (c) a filter and (d) a dictionary (or lexicon) (in Abdullahi, 1999:40). To illustrate how these features of the model operate, a lexical morpheme like 'write' has the word formation rules as [write $_{v}$] + [- er $_{N}$] and this permits the combination of or joining as 'write + er' but not 'write + ness', and this subsequently realises the word 'writer'. Similarly, the word formation rules can put together morphemes and affixes to form complex words. For example, the compound 'education secretary' can be generated as [educate $_{v}$] + [ion $_{N}$] + [secretary $_{N}$] $\longrightarrow$ [education secretary $_{N}$]. The filter in this model is the grammatical category of each morpheme which can generate what is permissible to combine. The filter can also "block all possible but non existent words generated by word formation rules (WFRs)" (Abdullahi, 1999:40). The dictionary feature in Halle's model of lexical morphology contains "all (and only) the actual words of a language, together with their inflectional endings, ready to undergo lexical insertion" (Abdullahi, 1999:40). In this model of lexical morphology, the inflectional and derivational morphology belong to the lexicon. Thus, the model is predicated on the 'strong lexicalist hypothesis'.

On the other hand, there is the 'weak lexicalist hypothesis' which also operates within the same model of lexical morphology. The hypothesis, contrary to the strong lexicalist hypothesis, regards derivation as belonging to the lexicon and not the inflection (Scalise, 1988:568). For example, it is obvious that regular inflections are affixed by rules determined by syntax and occur in words after derivation. In the word 'externalises', the creative part closest to the base (or root) word ('external') is the derivational '-ise'. But the inflectional morpheme '-s' occurs after the derivational and it is determined by the third person singular subject (features of syntax).

Nevertheless, lexical morphology as a model of morphological analysis generally has certain shortcomings. Lexical morphology presumes that a lexical morpheme cannot be analysed morphologically unless we know the grammatical class of the lexical item or word. But this is not true. The model also proves to be limited because it is concerned only with forms of words in the open-class system i.e noun, verb, adjective and adverb. In addition, lexical morphology is based on meaningful morphemes that have clear grammatical information. But it is not all morphemes that are meaningful elements of a language let alone assigning to them a grammatical class. For example, the morpheme '-ceive' on its own has no meaning yet it occurs in words like 'receive', 'perceive', 'deceive' etc (Fromkin and Rodman, 1998:73-78).

2.6.3 THE SYNTHETIC MODEL

Synthetic approach to morphology is more often associated with theory than with methodology. "The synthetic approach is like having a lot of little pieces, but the question is how to put them together" (Aronoff and Fundeman, 2005:12). It is within this framework that Haspelmath's (2002) 'word-based' theory of morphology is

propounded. The theory is based on the paradigmatic relations among words that co-exist in the lexicon. The theory emphasizes the significance of the word. Also, "the relationship between complex words is captured not by splitting them up into parts, but by formulating word-schemas that represent the common features of sets of morphologically related words" (Haspelmath, 2002:47-51).

The theory is expressed in form of word – schema which Haspelmath (2002) defines as a lexical entry that contains information on pronunciation, syntactic properties and meaning (p.47). The word-schema is expressed as follows:

/ X /

N

'x'

The square brackets ([ ]) symbolise word – schema subsuming words that 'match'. The double slash // represents a slot space for different word entries that are in paradigmatic relations and the X (capital) stands for variable strings of phonological words. The N (capital) represents the grammatical classes of words and the x (small letter) stands for the semantic features of words. For example, the-word-schema of the following words is as follows:

(a) 'eshigi' (dog), 'dangi' (cat), 'nangi' (goat)

(b) / X /

N

'x' (= animals)

In this example, the word-schema of the words in (a) shows that the words 'match' in a schema since they are names of animals and the schema (brackets)

'subsumes' the words. The words can fill in the slot (the double slash) as entries in a paradigmatic relation to further indicate that each word in the slot can be substituted with others within the same set. The word-class of the words is noun and this is represented by the 'N' (capital). The common semantic feature of the words (represented by 'x' small letter) is expressed as 'animals'.

Where you have a different set of words that match, the word-schema changes accordingly. For example, the word-schema of the following words can be illustrated this way:

(a) 'managi' (sweet), 'bakagi'(sour), 'lukugi' (bitter)

(b) / X /
Adj
'x' (= types of tastes)

The above implies that in word-based theory, different sets of words have different word-schemas as their expressions.

Nevertheless, Haspelmath's (2002) theory has little to offer to languages whose morphologies have not been adequately studied. This is because the theory is based on words in a paradigmatic relationship while the nature of the internal structure of words that is important to morphologists is not part of the theory. A language like Nupe requires the use of analytical and morpheme – based morphological approach.

2.7 THE FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR THEORY

Functional Grammar is a theory propounded by Halliday first noted in his 'categories of the theory of grammar' (1961) from where the theory first earned the name 'scale and category grammar'. The theory later developed into a full model grammar especially in Halliday (1985, 1994, 2004) and became 'Systemic Functional Grammar' (SFG). However,, the grammar model owes its foundation to Firthian Grammar. Thus, some people refer to it as Neo-Firthian Grammar.

According to Halliday (1985), his model of grammar is "a functional one rather than a formal one" (p.xiii). The grammar is also "essentially a 'natural' grammar, in the sense that every thing in it can be explained, ultimately, by reference to how language is used" (Halliday, 1985:xiii). On the other hand, the grammar is also concerned with meaning because it views language as "a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which the meanings can be realised" (Halliday, 1985:xiv). In other words, "when people use language their language acts produce or … construct meaning … built up through the choice of words and other grammatical resources" (Bloor and Bloor, 2004:2). Functional Grammar has three levels of semantics, grammar and phonology. However, the term grammar in this grammar model "consists of syntax and vocabulary, plus also morphology" (Halliday, 1985:xiv). Thus, the level of grammar is referred to as the level of 'lexicogrammar'. The term that embraces the idea that vocabulary (lexis) is inextricably linked to grammatical choices (Bloor and Bloor, 2004:1). Furthermore, in Functional Grammar each element in a language is explained by reference to its function in the 'total linguistic system'. In other words, "each part is interpreted as functional with respect to the whole" (Halliday, 1985:xiv).

In this grammar model, every language piece or element (morpheme or word) is a 'specimen' in the language system and therefore serves as an instrument in general language use (spoken or written). Equally, every instance of language use constitutes a 'text'. The term text, in Functional Grammar, "refers to any instance of language, in any medium, that makes sense to someone who knows the language" (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:3). There are four fundamental categories of grammar: unit, structure, class and system. The Unit is "a category set up to account for stretches that carry grammatical patterns" (Tomori, 1977:46). There are five units of grammar: the morpheme, the word, the group, the clause and the sentence. The units are further organized into different types of 'constituencies', such as the phonological, the graphological and the lexicogrammatical. The term constituency "refers to 'a form of order whereby larger units are made up out of smaller ones" (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:5). Within the lexicogrammatical constituency, there is a hierarchy of units called rankscale in the grammar of every language which can, in an alternative way, be arranged in a descending magnitude, viz:

Sentence

Clause

Group

Word

Morpheme

However, "it is also possible and acceptable to arrange them on a rankscale of ascending magnitude" (Osisanwo, 1997:17). Furthermore, there is another constituency (or rankscale) within the ranks. Each rank consists of one or more units of the rank next below. Following this a clause is a constituent unit of a sentence, a group is a constituent unit of a clause, and a word is constituent unit of a group. A morpheme, which is the smallest unit, is a constituent of a word. Nevertheless, it should be noted that a single word can function sometimes to be coincidental with all the rank units. For example, 'gi' (eat) in Nupe is simultaneously a sentence, a clause, a group, a word and a morpheme. Secondly, and unlike Halliday (1985), Halliday's view of sentence as a unit of highest rank has somehow changed in Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). In the latter, Halliday treats sentence and even 'sub-sentence' as units of orthography while clause now becomes the highest grammatical unit (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:8).

Class

Halliday defines 'class' as "a set of items that are in some respect alike" (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004:50). In Functional Grammar, the class of noun subdivides into common noun, proper noun and pronoun . A noun is described as a linguistic item which can function as (among other things) Head of a nominal group. The nominal group is a unit which can (among other things) realise the function of subject or complement in a clause (Bloor and Bloor, 2004:20). The adjectives have two main functions in Functional Grammar. Adjectives function as modifiers of nouns and also as Head of a group that functions as complement. Lastly, adjectives have morphological potential of inflection for comparative and superlative forms. Comparative and superlative may also be indicated by 'more' or 'most'. Also, adjectives can be modified by items like 'very', 'fairly', 'rather', 'quite' etc. There are

also ‘nongradable’ adjectives like ‘male’, ‘female’, ‘left’, ‘right’, ‘single’, ‘married’, ‘total’ etc (Bloor and Bloor, 2004:23-24).

2.8 CATFORD’S (1965) TRANSLATION THEORY

Catford’s theory of linguistic translation (1965) is an integration and synthesis of his concept of translation and Halliday’s theory of scale and category grammar (1961). He applies Halliday’s linguistic categories of unit, structure, class and system to his theory of translation.

Catford defines translation as “the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) (source language) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL) (target language)” (p.20). Text refers to “any stretch of language, spoken or written, which is under discussion. It may be a whole book, chapter, paragraph, sentence, clause…etc. It may be “a fragment not co-extensive with any linguistic unit” (p.21). A unit is “a stretch of language activity which is the carrier of a pattern of a particular kind”. There are units such as sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme which are the “carriers of a particular kind of meaningful grammatical pattern” (pp. 5-6). Catford states two conditions that guide a credible translation. First, “the discovery of textual equivalents is based on the authority of a competent bilingual informant or translator”. Thus, to find the Nupe textual equivalent of the English text ‘My son is six’, we ask a competent English – Nupe bilingual informant to put this into the TL, Nupe. If he/she supplies ‘egi mi de eya gutsuayi’ “this, then, is the textual equivalent of ‘My son is six’ ” (p.27). Second, textual equivalents can be discovered by adopting a formal procedure which is ‘commutation’ process. The term commutation refers to the systematic introduction of changes in Source Language (SL) and the observation of

changes that occur in Target Language (TL) text as a consequence (p.28). For example, if we have a Nupe sentence 'eba mi da dzuko' that is translated to English as 'My husband has gone to the market', the former is the SL and the latter, TL. If we change 'my husband' or 'market' in TL to 'my son' or 'farm' respectively and discover their equivalents in SL (Nupe) to be 'egi mi' or 'lati', then the changed portions of the TL (my husband/my son; or market/farm) are taken to be the equivalents of the changed portions of the SL text (eba/egi; or dzuko/lati).

There are different types of translation of which two deserve to be mentioned here. These are 'total translation' and 'restricted translation'. Total translation refers to the "replacement of SL grammar and lexis with consequential replacement of SL phonology/graphology by (non-equivalent) TL phonology/graphology". (P.32). Restricted translation, on the other hand, refers to the "replacement of SL textual material by equivalent TL material, at only one level, that is translation performed only at the phonological or at the graphological level, or at only of the two levels of grammar and lexis" (p.22). Lastly, Catford (1965) identifies two types of rank scale of translation; there is a 'rank bound' translation in which "the selection of TL equivalents is deliberately confined to one rank (or a few ranks, low in the rank like words or morpheme) in the hierarchy of grammatical units" (p.24). For example, machine translation is often rank bound. The other rank scale of translation is the 'unbound translation' in which "equivalences shift freely up and down the rank scale". For example, in an unbound translation of "a long text, the ranks at which translation equivalence occur are constantly changing: at one point, the equivalence is sentence-to-sentence, at another group-to-group, at another word-to-word etc not to mention formally 'shifted' or 'skewed' equivalences" (pp. 24-25). The above is an overview of Catford's (1965) theory of linguistic translation.

The theory has some advantages, especially in relation to linguistic studies. First, the theory places primacy on the authoritative translation of a competent bilingual-speaker of languages involved in translation. This means that the theory has provided a key to knowing linguistically a reliable translation and the extent at which any translated item could be regarded credible. Second, the theory can be deployed in grammatical analysis along with Halliday's model theory of grammar as translations can be done in line with Halliday's concept of hierarchy of grammatical units. Furthermore, the theory is flexible in application and systematic as its notion of 'unbound translation' allows translation equivalences to be identified in a continuum of rankscale of grammatical units such as from sentence to word or morpheme, or further above or below these levels.

2.9 BACKGROUND TO THE MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF NUPE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

The morphological analysis of any class of Nupe words has to take into consideration the dynamic and flexible nature of the morphology of Nupe words in order to avoid false analysis. Some content words in Nupe (words with lexical meaning) have the tendency of assuming more than one word class as an isolated individual word. This is because the morphological structures of these content words can change if moved around. Smith (1967) refers to this linguistic phenomenon of Nupe word structure as 'inverted verbal form' while Abdullahi (1999) describes it as 'transmutational derivative'. For example, 'etsama' (laughter) in Nupe is a noun but the same word can be changed around morphologically as 'matsa' (to laugh) and the word class changes to verb. There are similar words like 'ninma' (happiness) (N) versus 'manin' (be happy) (v); 'etulo' (a work) (N) versus 'lotun' (to work) (v); 'ewuna' (a

reprimand) (N) versus 'nanwu' (to reprimand) (v). Secondly, the word classes of these words cannot effectively be determined until they are used in sentence constructions. For example, 'edasu' (a fear) as a Nupe word in isolation is noun while 'suda' (to fear) is verb. But when used in a sentence as 'Eza (e) dasu yi o' (He/She is a person to be feared), the elided form 'dasu' (descriptive) is an adjective in this context.

Secondly, some Nupe words when used in expressions or sentences become morphologically elided to facilitate proper Nupe intonation and speech rhythm. For instance, nearly all nouns beginning with [e] drop this initial phoneme when preceded by another word. For example, 'mi le (e) za guba ye tsuwo' (I saw two people yesterday). Lastly, some Nupe words use lots of bound morphemes whose morphological description and classification may appear ambiguous. The morphemes '-gi', '-ci', '-ko' occur in some Nupe words in various ways. For example, the morphemes occur in words like 'bagi', 'yizagi', 'ndagi', 'nnako', 'ndako', 'bidaci', 'egagaci', 'yangici'. The difficultly here is whether to classify these morphological pieces as bound morphemes or as integral parts of words and also, whether they add meaning to the words they are attached to or not. For instance, '-gi' in 'bagi' (male person) or 'yizagi' (female person) can be a bound morpheme or an integral part of the word. For avoidance of doubt, the present study treats these morphemes in the following ways.

The morpheme '-gi' in words like 'egi', 'bagi', 'yizagi' is not considered a morpheme because it is an integral part of these words. The morphological resemblances in these words are a mere coincidence and thus, each of these words is considered a root word (free morpheme). Where the morphemes '-gi', '-ko', '-ci' are attachments to proper root words, whether meaningful or not, they are considered morphemes. For example, '-gi' in 'ndagi' or 'nnagi' is considered a morpheme (bound

morpheme) because it is attached to the conventional Nupe root word ‘nda’ (father) or ‘nna’ (mother). All this should serve as a background to the understanding of the morphological structure and analysis of Nupe nouns and adjectives.

2.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The subject matter of this study dovetails with certain aspects of linguistic studies that are integral to the study in addition to the morphological analysis as the focal point. The various examples of the analysed Nupe word structures cited above make the theoretical framework of the structuralist-based IA pertinent to this study. This is because if a noun like ‘ezamizhi’ (people of the house) can be analysed explicitly as ‘eza - mi - zhi’ and also the adjective ‘eyewa’ (clever) as ‘eye - wa’, it therefore proves that Nupe agglutinates, i.e it takes affixal morphemes. The study therefore intends to use Hockett’s structuralist IA as a theoretical framework. IA as a morphological model emphasises the primacy of explicit morphological analysis of the internal structure of words in a syntactic pattern. According to Aronoff and Fundeman (2005), IA continues to be important today to many agglutinating languages (like Nupe) whose morphologies have not been adequately studied. Further proof of this is that IA has been used even for analysing English words into morphemes by Halliday (1961, 1985, 2004).

At another level, Smith in his An Outline Grammar Of Nupe (1967) finds Halliday’s theory of ‘scale and category grammar’ (now Functional Grammar) suitable to the analysis of the grammar of Nupe language. The fact of the matter is that Nupe grammar can be described and analysed in terms of Halliday’s hierarchy of units ranked as sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme (Smith, 1967:2). Therefore this study further intends to use Halliday’s Functional Grammar as a theoretical framework.

Lastly, the study has a tinge of translation because the subject matter of the study is morphological analysis of Nupe word structure but it is written and analysed in English medium. The study therefore intends to use Catford's (1965) theory of linguistic translation as a general framework for the translation of Nupe to English, though not entirely in the formal pattern of the theory. From the above, it is clear that the general theoretical framework of this study definitely takes the form of eclectic approach to the analysis of Nupe word structure (c.f chapter III).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the sources of data, methods of data collection, sampling and analytical procedure and, finally, the theoretical model of analysis. The study is basically on the morphological analysis of nouns and adjectives in Nupe and therefore it is on the morphology of Nupe word structures. Consequently, the study requires the researcher to be familiar with the Nupe language and the skill to study the morphology of the language. Secondly, the study requires adequate knowledge of the actual people that speak the language as native speakers. On the first level, the researcher is a native speaker of Nupe. He lives presently in the native-speaking community or area of Nupe and has been interacting with Nupe native speakers in the language frequently. These prerequisites guarantee the use of introspection method as one of the methods of generating the data for the research.

On the other hand, Bida is the Headquarters of Bida Local Government Area of Niger State and together with its rural areas they constitute the predominant areas where Nupe native speakers are concentrated. Bida and its surrounding rural areas speak a variety of Nupe that is accorded recognition and regard above any other variety of Nupe by Nupencizhi (the Nupe people) themselves. The data generated by these native speakers form the integral part of the data of this study. According to Nida (1949:1), a descriptive analysis of language must be based upon what people say or how people use the language.

3.1 SOURCES AND FORMS OF DATA

For the purpose of this study, there were two main sources of data: primary and secondary. The data that were used for this study were obtained from the use of method of introspection and other primary source materials like the news items written in Nupe by the media in the native-speaking areas like Bida; private jottings by the researcher on the use of Nupe by the native speakers during conversations and interviews. The secondary source of data, which complement the primary source in order to obtain authentic data for the research, consisted of written and published materials on Nupe like the Nupe numeral system, Nupe Dictionary, textbooks and pamphlets, as well as tape recorded Nupe songs or music.

3.2 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Certain combinations of methods were used to collect data for this study. The methods used to elicit and collect information for this study were introspection (as earlier mentioned), unstructured interview and non-participant observation. The method of introspection engaged the researcher in deep thought about Nupe linguistically. To achieve this, the researcher relied on his knowledge of the language as a native speaker (linguistic competence) and also his expertise and skill in understanding how the language works (linguistics knowledge). Based on these attributes, the researcher was able to generate some data used in the study, though corroborated by other data sources.

The unstructured interview was also used. In a study like this, it is inevitable to elicit information from the native speakers of Nupe who are in the majority illiterates. This necessitated the use of unstructured interview in order to elicit relevant linguistic information from the native speakers of Nupe. The interview covered oral questions on

how to express certain things using basic Nupe words. Respondents were asked questions in an informal way as questions were flexible and not structured. During the interview, respondents felt relaxed and expressed themselves freely with less restrictions placed on them by the researcher. The interviews were conducted face-to-face and the researcher was able to obtain valid first-hand information from the way respondents chose and used Nupe words in expressions.

There was also the use of non-participant observation. In linguistic research, the idea of obtaining linguistic data that is spontaneously generated by the speakers of a language is paramount. Consequent upon this, the researcher used the method of non-participant observation to collect first hand information that was spontaneous and 'natural'. In many instances of the observed conversations and discussions, the researcher only noted privately the words native speakers chose to express things and how words were used to construct expressions or sentences.

3.3 SAMPLING AND ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

The data obtained from both primary and secondary sources that dealt only with Nupe nouns and adjectives were collated and randomly sampled by the researcher. The sampled data were used for the morphological analysis of Nupe word structures.In analysing the data, the researcher first identified the base words (free or root morphemes) according to their classes and further sub-classified the words into their appropriate classes in line with the objectives of the study. The derived words (complex words) were analysed according to their classes (noun and adjective) and also according to the type of affixal forms they take (derivational and inflectional). Therefore, the following symbols are used for analysis in the study:

// =	clause boundary
+ =	morpheme boundary within a word and between words
( ) =	translated item
⟶ =	related the cited word to its usage in a clause
” =	same.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with data presentation, analysis and discussion of results. In this chapter, the researcher intends to use eclectic analytical models (earlier identified in chapters two and three) of IA (as a model of morphological theory) and Halliday's Functional Grammar to carry out the analysis of the data. In addition, Catford's model theory of linguistic translation serves as a framework of translation from Nupe to English. Furthermore, the researcher analyses and classifies the data according to the morphological structures of different types of nouns and adjectives. Lastly, the researcher discusses the results from the analysis of data according to the types of inflectional and derivational morphemes.

4.1 COMMON NOUNS IN NUPE

Common nouns in Nupe are the names of animate (living things) and inanimate (non-living things) things that are either count or non-count. Count nouns in Nupe are the nouns that can take a morpheme to indicate plurality while non-count (mass nouns) does not. On the other hand, concrete nouns are the nouns that are tangible. In other words, they are things within the class of noun that can be seen and touched. There are count nouns in Nupe that are concrete and can take the morpheme '–zhi' to indicate plurality. For example, 'taku' (stone) as a singular noun in Nupe is a concrete count noun that can take the plural form ('-zhi') to become 'taku+zhi' (stones). The fact that Nupe count nouns (concrete) can take plural morpheme means that they can develop

into derived (complex) words. Therefore, these Nupe count nouns (concrete) are morphologically significant and this is what this study is concerned with.

4.2 COUNT NOUNS AS BASE WORDS (FREE MORPHEMES)

As earlier stated (in chapter two), base words or free morphemes are words with no additional bound or free morpheme. Based on semantic criterion, the following base words in Nupe are nouns which are sub classified into different classes of Nupe count nouns (concrete).

(a) Animate (Human):

zawangi (human being)

eza (a person)

bagi (male person)

yizagi (female person)

nunsa (elderly person)

dzakan (child or child stage)

yimi (wife)

yawo (bride)

egi (son/daughter)

yegi (a relative)

yagi (grand child)

yele (in-law)

kuci (the dead)

gbarufu (young male person)

yantsugi (young female person)

ekpa (bachelor)

eku (corpse)

wuzhi (slave)

zakama (people)

(b) Animate (Non-human): Higher Animals:

doko (horse)

nanko (cow)

eshigi (dog)

bishe (cock/hen)

gaba (lion)

dangi (cat)

gbangba (duck)

nangi (goat/ram)

rakun (camel)

nampa (leopard)

kyatya (donkey)

makundunu (hyena)

elogi (antelope)

emagi (fox)

(c) Inanimate:

cigba (tree)

giyeko (key/padlock)

emi (house)

kpako (door)

ezhi (town)

kpalaba (bottle)

tswangi (star)

esa (seat)

ewo (shirt/gown)

lati (farm)

fini (leaf)

bata (plantation)

taku (stone)

evo (plate/bowl)

Kpanu (dish)

pati (mountain)

ewogi (spoon)

Kin (earth/country)

kata (room)

ede (cloth)

daro (kettle)

kpati (box)

(d) Cardinal Nouns (Numerals):

nini (one) guba (two)

guta (three) gunni (four)

gutsu (five)	tswanyi (six)
twaba (seven)	tota (eight)
twani (nine)	guwo (ten)
eshi (twenty)	gbanwo (thirty)
rudin (thirty-five)	arata (fifty)
adwani (seventy)	gwasa (one hundred and eighty)
kpako (two hundred)	gba (two thousand)

4.3 DERIVED WORDS (COMPLEX WORDS)

Count Nouns and Plural Forms (inflectional)

Derived words consist of, at least, one root and a number of bound or free morphemes. In Nupe, all the countable nouns, with the exception of cardinal nouns (numerals), can take inflectional morpheme '-zhi' to make the plural noun forms. The countable nouns identified above have plural forms as, for example, 'Zawangizhi', 'yizagizhi', 'dokozhi' 'cigbazhi', 'evozhi'. The following is a morphological analysis of plural nouns

Zawangi+zhi	⟶	//Zawangi+zhi doku kpe ti kin bo//.
(human beings)		(there are lots of human beings on earth).
Yizagi+zhi	⟶	//yizagi+zhi a gu yeka//.
(female persons)		(female persons have gathered).
doko+zhi	⟶	//Doko+zhi e gi gwo//.
(horses)		(the horses are eating grass).
eshigi+zhi	⟶	//Eshigi+zhi e gbo zhi debo//.

(dogs)		(Dogs are barking outside).
cigba+zhi	⟶	//Cigba+zhi a gbin ba dozhi//.
(trees)		(Trees have fallen on one another).

Similar plural noun forms, for example, are:

kata	+	zhi	(houses).
daro	+	”	(kettles).
taku	+	”	(stones).
ede	+	”	(clothes).
fini	+	”	(leaves).
nanko	+	”	(cows).
pati	+	”	(mountains).
kpati	+	”	(boxes).

Case Nouns (Genitive) (Derivational).

Countable nouns in Nupe do express genitive (possessive) in two ways. There are nouns in Nupe that indicate genitive in form of a phrase. For example, in ‘kaya ya kuci’ (the property of the dead), ‘ya kuci’ is a prepositional phrase that expresses possessive. There are also nouns in Nupe that indicate genitive in a compound form. The latter is the concern of morphological analysis.

Countable nouns in Nupe do express genitive (possessive) by combining two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns. The combination of two base forms of nouns is syntactically determined in such a way that the preceding word is the noun head while the succeeding word functions as a modifier of the noun head. For example, in ‘ede

yawo' (bride's cloth), 'ede' (cloth) is the noun head (henceforth, represented as 'h') while 'yawo' (bride) functions as the noun modifier (henceforth, represented as 'm'). There are many case nouns (genitive) like 'kpako kata', 'dzami doko', 'eje yele', 'eda etsu', 'ewo egi'. These case nouns can be analysed as follows:

(h) (m)

kpako + kata ⟶ //kpako + kata a mu//.

(room's door) (The room's door has removed).

(h) (m)

ede + yawo ⟶ //ede + yawo da kpati o//.

(bride's cloth) (The bride's cloth is in the box).

(h) (m)

dzami + doko ⟶ //Dzami + doko e da doko kangi//.

(horse's bridle) (The horse's bridle controls the horse).

(h) (m)

eje + yele ⟶ //A eje + yele bo a ni//.

(in-law's food) (The in-law's food has been cooked).

Similar case nouns (genitive), for example, are:

fini + cigba (tree's leaf).

lati + kuci (the dead's farm).

esa + egi (the child's seat).

taku + pati (mountain's stone).

Gender Nouns (Derivational)

Nupe has both personal gender nouns (human) and also higher animal gender nouns. The personal gender nouns in Nupe do indicate masculine or feminine either by the use of root noun in combination with the suffix that is not semantically significant or by combining two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns. The ones that indicate masculine/feminine by the use of root noun in combination with the derivational suffix are gender words like 'ndagi (male)/nnagi (female)', 'ndako (male)/ 'nnako (female)', 'ndakogi (male)/nnakogi' (female)', 'ndakotsu (male)/ nnakotsu (female)'. In all these words, it is the root noun ('nda' (father), 'nna' (mother)) that indicates masculine or feminine and not the bound morphemes ('-gi', '-ko', '-tsu'). These bound morphemes are called 'dimunitive suffixes'. A dimunitive suffix is a bound morpheme added to a root word only to augment it but the suffix does not cause any change to the root word, whether semantic or grammatical (Akmajan et al, 2001:40). The morphological analysis of the above personal gender nouns is as follows:

nda + gi	⟶	//Nda + gi mi a lele//.
(uncle)		(My uncle is asleep).
nna + gi	⟶	//Nna + gi u be ani//.
(aunt)		(His/Her aunt has arrived).
nda + ko + tsu	⟶	//Nda + ko + tsu ga yi nunsa gbarufuzhi o//.
(a male tittle for a male person with rank)		(Ndakotsu is the leader of youths).
nna + ko + tsu	⟶	//Nna + ko + tsu a yizagizhi ku yeka zhi emi u bo//.

(a female tittle for a female person with rank).

(Nnakotsu has gathered Women in her house).

Similar personal gender nouns, for example, are:

nda + ko (grand father).

nna + ko (grand mother).

nda + ko + gi (a nick name given to a baby boy).

nna + ko + gi (a nick name given to a baby girl).

eshe + ci (male witch).

ga + ci (female witch).

Some personal gender nouns in Nupe combine two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns to indicate either masculine or feminine. The examples of these type of personal gender nouns are 'eba yawo', 'nda yawo', 'nna yawo', 'nna sako', 'nda sako'. These nouns can be analysed as follows:

eba + yawo ⟶ //(E)ba + yawo da a kata yawo//.

(bride groom) (The bride groom has gone to the bride's room).

nda + yawo ⟶ //Nda + yawo e gaga be yawo//.

(bride groom's male parent or relative) (The bride groom's father or paternal relative is talking to the bride).

nna + yawo ⟶ //Nna + yawo a zewu be (e) ba yawo e//.

(The bride's mother or maternal (The bride's female parent relative is

relative). annoyed with the bride groom).

Similar personal gender nouns, for example, are:

nda + (e)sa + ko (male person that chairs an occasion).

Nna + (e)sa + ko (female person that chairs an occasion).

Higher animals' gender nouns in Nupe combine two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns to express masculine or feminine. Sometimes, male gender noun is elided. There are higher animals' gender nouns like 'bishe (e)ba/bishe yiwo', 'doko (e)ba/doko yiwo', 'nanko (e)ba/nanko yiwo', 'gbangba (e)ba/gbangba yiwo. These gender nouns have the following morphological analysis:

bishe + (e)ba ⟶ //Mi shi bishe + (e)ba tsuwo//.
(cock) (I bought cock yesterday).

bishe + yiwo ⟶ //Bishe + yiwo ge yi kpa//.
(hen) (It is good to rear hen).

doko + (e) ba ⟶ //Doko + (e)ba doku kin Nupe o//.
(Male horse (stallion)). (Male horses (stallions) are many in Nupe land).

doko + yiwo ⟶ //Doko + yiwo zo yi leye//.
(female horse(mare)) (A female horse is rare to see).

Similar higher animal gender nouns, for example, are:

nanko + (e)ba (male cow).

nanko + yiwo (female cow).

gbangba+ (e)ba (male duck).

gbangba + yiwo (female duck).

eshi (gi) + (e)ba (male dog).

eshi (gi) + yiwo (female dog).

Nationality Nouns (Nationality Names) (Derivational)

In Nupe, nationality nouns are morphologically derived from proper nouns that denote places and sometimes ethnicity. For example, all proper nouns like Nupe, Lapai, Agaie, Bida, Doko, Patigi, Bata, Lati, Kutigi can take derivational morpheme '-ci' to form nationality nouns. There are nationality nouns like 'nupenci', 'bidaci', 'lapaici', 'dokoci', 'bataci', 'latici', 'dabbanci', '(a)gaieci'. The morphological analysis of these nouns is as follows:

nupe + n + ci	⟶	//Nupe + n + ci mi yi o//.
(Nupe person)		(I am a Nupe person).
bida + ci	⟶	//Bida + ci waye//.
(Bida person)		(Bida person is clever).
lapai + ci	⟶	//Lapai + ci ba mi//.
(Lapai person)		(I like Lapai person).

lati + ci ⟶ //Lati + ci e dzo dzo be enu yi a//.

(Rural person) (A rural person doesn't joke with farming).

Similar nationality nouns in Nupe, for example, are:

dabban	+	ci	(Dabban person).
doko	+	”	(Doko person).
bata	+	”	(Plantation person).
(a) gaie	+	”	(Agaie person).
Mokwa	+	”	(Mokwa person).
gulu	+	”	(Gulu person).
lemu	+	”	(Lemu person).
unku	+	”	(Unku Person).

These nationality nouns also take plural forms by morphologically adding the inflectional plural '-zhi' to the derivational nationality noun. Therefore, there are nationality plural nouns in Nupe such as 'nupencizhi', 'bidacizhi', 'lapaicizhi', 'laticizhi', 'patigicizhi', 'unkucizhi'. These nationality plural nouns can be analysed in the following ways:

nupe + n + ci + zhi ⟶ //Nupe + n + ci + zhi e wa yegba a//.

(Nupe people) (Nupe people do not like disrespect).

lapai + ci + zhi	⟶	//Lapai + ci + zhi a cin a ni//.
(Lapai people)		(Lapai people have arrived).
patigi + ci + zhi	⟶	//Patigi + ci + zhi da Bida o//.
(Patigi people)		(Patigi people are in Bida).
bida + ci + zhi	⟶	//Bida + ci + zhi tu Gomina zuma a//.
(Bida people)		(Bida people did not support the Governor).

Similar nationality plural nouns, for example, are:

bata	+	ci	+	zhi	(Plantation people).
lati	+	”	+	”	(Rural people).
lemu	+	”	+	”	(Lemu people).
unku	+	”	+	”	(Unku people).
mokwa	+	”	+	”	(Mokwa people).
dabban	+	”	+	”	(Dabban people).

Deverbal Nouns (Derivational)

Deverbal nouns are nouns that are morphologically derived from verbs. In Nupe, deverbal nouns are morphologically derived from the combination of noun and verb in addition to the agentive suffix ‘-ci’ (N+V+SUFF). The resultant nouns are agentive nouns that imply one who does what is conveyed by the verb of a noun. For example, in Nupe ‘ku’ (sell) in ‘Mi e ku ede’ (I sell cloth) is verb. Therefore, ‘edekuci’ (agentive

noun) by virtue of the verb ('ku') and the agentive suffix ('-ci') refers to cloth seller. There are many agentive nouns that are deverbal nouns – derived in Nupe like 'egagaci', 'bicidaci', 'edeluci', 'ekoceci', 'nuwagbici', 'matopaci'. These nouns can be analysed in the following ways:

(n) (v) (Suff)

ega + ga + ci ⟶ //Ega + ga + ci shani wuci yi ndasako ya Bida//.

(Speaker) (The speaker at the occasion is Bida Chairman).

(n) (v) (suff)

bici + da + ci ⟶ //Bici + da + ci u suda yeshi//.

(a walker) (A walker should fear night).

(n) (v) (suff)

ede + lu + ci ⟶ //Ede + lu + ci zo yi leye gbani//.

(cloth waever) (A cloth weaver is rare to see nowadays).

(n) (v) (suff)

enu + nu + ci ⟶ //Enu + nu + ci ndondo e ba ele//.

(farmer) (Every farmer prays for rain).

Similar deverbal nouns in the form of agentive noun, for example, are:

(n) (v) (suff)

eko + ce + ci (fighter or wrestler).

(n) (v) (suff)

nuwa + gbi + ci (swimmer).

(n) (v) (suff)

eya + pa + ci (oarsman).

(n) (v) (suff)

mato + pa + ci (driver).

(n) (v) (suff)

munge + ku + ci (palm wine tapper).

(n) (v) (suff)

ekpo + la + ci (load carrier).

Cardinal Nouns (Derivational)

There are some cardinal nouns (numerals) in Nupe that are derivational because they are morphologically derived and elided from two free cardinal nouns. For example, the numerical 'shiba' (forty) is derived and elided from 'eshi' (twenty) and 'guba' (two) to become '(e) shi (gu) ba (thus, 'shiba'). There are similar cardinal nouns that are derivational like 'shita', ' shini', 'shitsu', 'shitswanyi', 'shitwaba', 'kpauba', 'kpauta', 'kpagunni'. These cardinal nouns have the following morphological analysis:

shi + ba ⟶ //Egi mi de eya shi + ba yina//.

(Fourty) (My son/daughter is forty years old today).

shi + ta ⟶ //Etsu de doko shi + ta//.

(Sixty) (The king has sixty horses).

kpa + u + tsun ⟶ //A de za na gu eya kpa + u + tsun ta ti kin bo na//.

(One thousand) (Nobody attains the age of one thousand years on earth).

Similar cardinal nouns that are derived and elided from two free cardinal nouns, for example, are:

shi + ni (eighty).

kpa + gunni (eight hundred).

kpa + u + ba (four hundred).

kpa + u + ta (six hundred).

shi + tswanyi (one hundred and twenty).

shi + twaba (one hundred and forty).

Compound Nouns (Derivational).

A compound noun is a unit consisting of two or more base words (free morphemes) syntactically joined together to function as a single word. There are different types of compound nouns in Nupe. The commonest compounds within the class of common nouns (concrete) are the morphologically derived noun plus noun (N+N), noun plus adjective (N+Adj) and noun plus verb (N+V). The following is a morphological analysis of sub classes of these compound nouns:

Noun + noun (Compound):

cigba + gbere ⟶ //Cigba + gbere cigbe u yi o//.

(tree root) (Tree root is medicinal).

emi + egu → //Emi + egu za payizhi yikere//.

(house made of mud) (Ancient mud houses still remain).

evo + (e)je → //Evo + (e)je yi Kashi//.

(food plate or dish) (The food plate or dish is unwashed).

Noun + adjective (Compound):

ede + saku → //Dzankangizhi ye bo ede + saku la dzo dzo//.

(rag) (Children like playing with rag).

eje + boci → //Nupencizhi yebo eje + boci//.

(a paste type of food) (Nupe people like paste type of food).

ena + cinkara → //Zan do e la gwa to ena + cinkara a//.

(live coal) (Nobody touches live coal).

Noun + verb (Compound):

nda + ce → //Nda + ce de ena ndondo wu tsuwo a//.

(hunter) (The hunter could not kill any game yesterday).

cigba + ba → //Cigba + ba e ta a naka//.

(tree cutting) (Tree cutting gives body pain).

fula + lu → //Fula + lu etu gwa u yi o//.

(cap weaving) (Cap weaving is a handicraft).

Compound Cardinal Nouns (Derivational)

There are cardinal nouns (numerals) that consist of two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns that are morphologically complete compound cardinals (nouns) like ‘gba guwo’, ‘gba kpako’, ‘gba arata’, ‘gba eshi’, ‘gba rudin’. The morphological analysis is as follows:

gba + guwo ⟶ //Ze gi na de ewo gba + guwo//.

(twenty thousand) (The winner got the amount of money of twenty thousand (Naira)).

gba + eshi ⟶ //Nda mi e shi jekafa jika gba+eshi eyan dondo//.

(fourty thousand) (My father used to buy forty thousand sacks of rice every year).

gba + Kpako ⟶ //Ndasako de ewo fi Banki o ji gba + kpako//.

(four hundred thousand) (The chairman has money in the bank of about forty thousand (Naira)).

Similar compound cardinal nouns, for example, are:

gba	+	arata	(one hundred thousand).
gba	+	rudin	(seventy thousand).
gba	+	gwegi	(thirty thousand).
gba	+	gbanwo	(sixty thousand).

4.4 ADJECTIVES IN NUPE

There are different types of adjectives in Nupe among which are non-gradable, gradable and denominal adjectives. In Nupe, non-gradable adjectives are the adjectives that state only the quality or attribute of a particular thing but do not express the degree of quality or attribute. In other words, non-gradable adjectives do not include gradability in terms of degree of comparisons. Gradable adjectives in Nupe are the adjectives that can express gradability in terms of degrees of comparison. Denominal adjectives are the adjectives derived from nouns or adjectives that combine with noun to form compounds.

4.5 ADJECTIVES AS BASE WORDS (FREE MOPHEMES)

The following adjectives in Nupe consist of free morphemes and are sub classified into non-gradable and gradable types:

Non-gradable Adjectives

eba (male)

yiwo (female)

gwalo (right)

gwapi (left)

dzuru (red)

zhiko (black)

boku (white)

waye (clever)

wawa (a fool or an insane)

nana (ignoramus or ignorant person)

gbogu (a weakling)

adya (inactive person)

lamgba(filthy person)

yin (rude)

gbako (old)

yipa (hot)

ila (mad)

woro (new)

Gradable Adjectives (Free Morphemes).

gba	(thick)	bi	(worse)
tia	(thin)	para	(wide)
to	(high)	waci	(big)
ma	(sweet)	yi	(small)
gbo	(fat)	fialia	(light)
wukpa	(tall)	lu	(bitter)
lukpi	(heavy)	ba	(sour)
pi	(tight)	ge	(good)
sa	(beautiful)	fu	(impatient)

4.6 ADJECTIVES AS DERIVED WORDS (COMPLEX WORDS)

In Nupe, all gradable adjectives can express degrees of comparison either by means of inflectional suffixes or use of modifiers, or combining inflected and modified forms to express degree of comparison. The types of adjectives that express gradability by the use of modifiers are solely the concern of grammar. For example, 'gbo' (fat) has similar comparative and superlative forms: 'gbo' + 'saranyi' (more) for comparative degree and similar form, 'gbo + saranyi', for superlative degree. In 'gbo saranyi', 'gbo' is the head adjective while 'saranyi' (more/most) functions as a modifier. The latter is not morphologically determined but grammatically. Similar gradable adjectives that use modifiers exist in Nupe but they are few.

Gradable Adjectives (Inflectional)

In Nupe, there are gradable adjectives that use inflected forms to express degrees of comparison. For example, 'gba' (thick) as a Nupe adjective uses inflected forms such as 'gba + na' (thicker) and 'gba + na + gi' (thickest) to express comparative and superlative degrees respectively. The following adjectives use inflected forms to express degrees of comparison:

Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
tia	tia + nia	tia + nia + gi
(thin)	(thinner)	(thinnest)
to	to + to	to + to + ko
(high)	(higher)	(highest)
lu	lu + ku	lu + ku + gi
(bitter)	(more bitter)	(most bitter)

ma	ma + na	ma + na + gi
(sweet)	(sweeter)	(sweetest)
ba	ba + ka	ba + ka + gi
(sour)	(more sour)	(most sour)

The examples of this type of gradable adjective in sentences are:

(Positive)

tia ⟶ //Lulu na tia na e lo yere eki//.

(thin) (A thin thread (cotton) can pass through the eye of a needle).

(Comparative)

tia + nia ⟶ //Egba nna ji tia + nia ga ya ba tsozhi//.

(thinner) (This rope is thinner than the other one).

(Superlative)

tia + nia + gi ⟶ //Lulu tia + nia + gi telazhi e la gu ede o//.

(thinnest) (Tailors use thinnest thread to sew cloth).

Gradable Adjectives (modified/inflectional).

There are adjectives in Nupe that use both inflected and modified forms to express comparative and superlative degrees of comparison. The following adjectives use these two forms to express degrees of comparison (here, adjective = adj, modifier = m, suffix = suff).

Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	(adj) (m)	(adj) (suff)
para	para + saranyi	para + ko
(wide)	(wider)	(widest)
	(adj) (suff)	(adj) (m)
waci	waci + saranyi	waci + ko
(big)	(bigger)	(biggest)
	(adj) (m)	(adj) (suff)
yi	yi + saranyi	yi + su + gi
(small)	(smaller)	(smallest)
	(adj) (m)	(adj) (suff)
kukurugi	kukurugi + saranyi	kutia + gi
(short)	(shorter)	(shortest)
	(adj) (suff)	(adj) (suff) (m)
bi	bi + ye	bi + ye + kpoyi
(bad)	(worse)	(worst)

The examples of this type of gradable adjective in sentences are:

(Positive)

waci ⟶ //Mato na waci na a nikin//.

(big) (A big car has got accident).

(Comparative)

waci + saranyi ⟶ //Bida waci + saranyi ga ezhi nupenci na ke na//.

(bigger) (Bida is bigger than other Nupe towns).

(Superlative)

waci + ko ⟶ //Emi etsu ndondo ga yi waci + ko ezhi bo//.

(biggest) (The house of every king is the biggest in town).

Denominal Adjectives (Derivational)

Denominal Adjectives are adjectives derived from nouns or adjectives that combine with noun to form compound. In Nupe, denominal adjectives occur principally in two ways. The first type occurs as an agentive noun via a morphological process that operate on denominal adjective. For example, the Nupe adjective 'mada' (hungry) becomes a denominal adjective in the agentive noun 'madagunci' (a hungry person). The morphological process is that 'mada' combines with 'gun' (feel) as a verb and is followed by the derivational suffix '-ci' as a marker of an agentive noun (adj + v + suff). There are similar agentive nouns with denominal adjectives like 'iladzuci' (mad person), 'ebotaci' (stingy person), 'gbugbukeci' (a vulgar person), 'edasuci' (a frightened person). Their morphological analysis is as follows:

(adj) (v) (suff)

Ila + dzu + ci ⟶ //Ila + dzu + ci e suda zan dondo a//.

(mad person) (A mad person does not fear anybody).

(adj) (v) (suff)

Gbugbu + ke + ci ⟶ //Gbugbu + ke + ci e de zuye a//.

(vulgar person) (A vulgar person has no sense of shame).

(adj) (v) (suff)

eda + su + ci ⟶ //Eda + su + ci e lo eku wo a//.

(frightened person) (A frightened person cannot go to war).

The second type of denominal adjective in Nupe occurs in a compound form. In this case, a denominal adjective syntactically combines with a noun to form a compound (adj + n). There are compound words with denominal adjectives like 'wawa zawangi', 'nana zawangi', 'adya zawangi', 'gbogu zawangi', 'efe zawangi'. The morphological analysis is as follow:

(adj) (n)

wawa + zawangi ⟶ //Wawa + zawangi e waye a//.

(foolish person) (A foolish person is not clever).

(adj) (n)

gbogu + zawangi ⟶ //Batatacin dondo gbogu + zawangi u yi o//.

(a weakling) (Every sick person is a weakling).

(adj) (n)

efe + zawangi ⟶ //Efe + zawangi e de ciwa ya zan dondo a//.

(A rascal) (A rascal person has no respect for anybody).

Similar compound words with denominal adjectives, for example, are:

(adj) (n)

nana + zawangi (an ignorant person).

adya + zawangi (an inactive person).

banza + zawangi (a stupid person).

lamgba + zawangi (an filthy person).

4.7 NUPE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES AS FREE MORPHEMES

It is evident from the foregoing analysis that there are different types of nouns in Nupe. Within the class of Nupe count nouns (concrete), there are further sub classes of Nupe count nouns that are morphologically base words or free morphemes. Within the class of animate (human), there are free morphemes like 'yimi' (wife), 'yawo' (bride), 'egi' (son/daughter) to cite a few examples. In the class of animate (non-human), there are free morphemes like 'doko' (horse), 'nanko' (cow), 'eshigi' (dog). Similarly, in the class of inanimate there are numerous free morphemes like 'cigba' (tree), 'emi' (house), 'taku' (stone). Cardinal nouns (numerals) in Nupe are many with different morphological structures. However, some cardinal nouns are base words or free morphemes like 'nini' (one), 'gunni' (four), 'kpako' (two hundred).

In the same vein, there are adjectives in Nupe that are morphologically base words or free morphemes. Within the class of non-gradable adjectives, there are free morphemes like 'eba' (male), 'dzuru' (red), 'yipa' (hot). There is a class of gradable adjectives that has free morphemes like 'gba' (thick), 'tia' (thin), 'para' (wide). In other words, base words or free morphemes can be found within the classes of Nupe nouns and adjectives. These free morphemes cannot morphologically be broken down further.

4.8 INFLECTIONAL MORPHEMES IN NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

Inflectional Nupe Nouns

Nupe nouns do develop into derived or complex words in two ways: inflectional and derivational. It is clear from the analysis above that all count nouns in Nupe realise their plural forms by adding the morpheme '-zhi' to the root or stem nouns. For example, 'zawangi' (human being) as a singular noun can take '-zhi' morpheme to become a plural noun as 'zawangi + zhi' (human beings). Other plural noun forms, for instance, are 'dokozhi' (horses), 'katazhi' (rooms), 'egizhi' (sons/daughters), 'nankozhi' (cows). The morpheme '-zhi' is an inflected suffix because when added to a noun, it does not change the word class nor the meaning of a word. It is added to the end of a root or stem noun to indicate plurality and this gives the morphological structure as root noun followed by inflectional suffix (n (r) + suff (inf)). This means that the morphological process of plural formation of these nouns in Nupe is suffixation. Furthermore, since the inflectional morpheme '-zhi' can be attached to many count nouns in Nupe, it is, therefore, morphologically very productive (cf. chapter two (2.4.2).

Inflectional Nupe Adjectives

In the class of Nupe adjectives, the analysis shows that there is a category of gradable adjectives which expresses degrees of comparison by means of inflection. For example, 'tia' (thin) as a gradable adjective in Nupe has both comparative and superlative forms as 'tia + nia' (thinner) and 'tia + nia + gi' (thinnest) respectively. The morpheme '-nia' (comparative) and '-gi' (superlative) are attached to the end of the root adjective ('tia') and, therefore, they are inflectional suffixes. They do not change the meaning nor the word class of the word they are attached to. The identifiable

morphological structures involved in the process of gradability is that the root adjective (‘tia’) at positive degree is followed by adjective plus inflectional suffix (‘tia + nia’) at comparative degree, and another adjective plus inflectional suffix (‘tia + nia + gi’) at superlative degree (adj (r) + adj (suff) + adj (suff)). The underlying morphological process for the formation of gradability of this type of adjective is suffixation.

4.9 DERIVATIONAL MORPHEMES IN NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

Derivational Nupe Nouns

Derivational morphemes occur in Nupe nouns and adjectives in various ways and in various forms. The above analysis shows that case nouns in Nupe express genitive (possessive) in compound forms. For example, ‘dzami doko’ (horse’s bridle) is a compound expressing genitive (possessive). The compound is morphologically derivational because each of the two words is a root word and the two words have syntactic combination in compound form. The preceding word ‘dzami’ functions as the noun head while the succeeding word ‘doko’ is the modifier. The morphological structure of the compound is that ‘dzami’ as a root noun combines with another root noun ‘doko’ (n (r) + n (r)). This means that the morhological process of this type of case noun formation in Nupe is compounding.

The above analysis has also shown that personal gender nouns in Nupe do indicate masculine or feminine in derivational forms in two ways: suffix (dimunitive) and compound. There are personal gender nouns that indicate masculine/feminine through the use of root noun (as gender indicator) combined with dimunitive suffix. For example, in the Nupe masculine and feminine words ‘ndako’ (grandfather) and ‘nnako’ (grandmother), it is the root nouns (‘nda-‘/’nna-‘) that are gender indicators

(male/female) while the replicated morpheme (‘-ko’) in both words is a diminutive suffix. In Nupe, the addition of the diminutive suffix (‘-ko’) to the root nouns is conventional and at the same time derivational because it is an unpredictable morpheme, even though without meaning. The descriptive morphological structure of ‘ndako’ or ‘nnako’ is root noun followed by derivational suffix (n (r) + suff (drv)). Therefore, the morphological process for the formation of these personal gender nouns in Nupe is suffixation.

On the other hand, the analysis further shows that there are personal gender nouns that occur in derivational compound forms like that of higher animal gender in Nupe. For example, the Nupe masculine/feminine word ‘nna yawo’ (bride’s female parent or female relative) or ‘nda yawo’ (bride groom’s male parent or male relative) has two root nouns (‘nda + yawo’) combined in a syntactic order. The first root noun (‘nda’) as gender indicator combines with another root noun (‘yawo’) and this gives the morphological structure as root noun followed by another root noun (n (r) + n (r)). In the same vein, higher animal gender nouns in Nupe similarly combine two root nouns to express masculine or feminine. For example, ‘doko (e) ba’ (male horse)/’doko yiwo’ (female horse) are combinations of two root nouns with male gender indicator often elided (‘(e)ba’). Thus, the morphological process behind the formation of these types of gender nouns is compounding.

In the class of Nupe nationality nouns (nationality names), the analysis shows that nationality noun ‘bidaci’, for example, is derived from the proper noun ‘Bida’ (a Nupe town or city), likewise ‘patigici’ from ‘Patigi’ (a Nupe town); ‘lapaici’ from ‘Lapai’ (a Nupe town). The suffix ‘-ci’ is a derivational morpheme because it changes the meaning of the root noun ‘Bida’ or ‘Patigi’ as a town to a nationality name. The morphological structure is root noun followed by derivational suffix (n(r) + suff (drv)).

Furthermore, the analysis shows that these nationality nouns can also take plural morpheme '-zhi' as in 'bidacizhi' (bida persons), 'patigicizhi', 'lapaicizhi'. In this case, the morphological structure is root noun followed by derivational suffix '-ci' and finally, the inflectional suffix '-zhi' (n (r) + suff (drv) + suff (inf)). A closer look at the morphological structure of this nationality noun in its plural form shows that the inflectional suffix '-zhi' occurs outside or after the derivational suffix '-ci' while the latter is closest to the root noun. This is one of the differences between derivation and inflection. Yet, with the addition of plural morphemes to the nationality nouns, the morphological process remains suffixation.

Deverbal nouns in Nupe, from the above analysis, are morphologically derived from verbs but with the addition of agentive suffix '-ci'. For example, 'edeluci' (cloth weaver) is derived from 'edelu', with 'lu' (weave) as verb while '-ci' is the additional suffix that marks 'ede + lu + ci' as an agentive noun. The suffix '-ci' is a derivational morpheme because it changes the meaning of both 'ede' (cloth) and 'lu' (weave) to a doer ('edeluci') in form of an agentive noun. There are similar deverbal nouns in agentive noun form like 'enunuci' (farmer), 'matopaci' (driver), 'ekoceci' (fighter or wrestler). The morphological process that underlies their formation is suffixation.

The above analysis further shows that there are some cardinal nouns (numerals) in Nupe that are morphologically derivational. Such cardinal nouns are derived and elided from root nouns that are cardinals. For example, the Nupe numerals 'shita' (sixty) by its morphological structure first begins with the elided root noun (cardinal) '(e) shi-' and is followed, lastly, by another elided root noun (cardinal) '(gu) ta' and thus, 'shita' (n (r) + n (r)). The fact that these elided root nouns (cardinals) morphologically combine to form other numerals in Nupe proves that they are derivational. Similar cardinal nouns are 'shiba' (forty), 'shini' (eighty), 'shitwaba' (one

hundred and forty). The morphological process involved in the formation of these types of cardinal nouns is compounding in elided form.

In Nupe, there are compound nouns that are morphologically derivational in complete form and elided form. The analysis shows that such compound nouns have different types of combinations with other word classes. Firstly, there are complete compound nouns with the morphological structure root noun followed by another root noun (n (r) + n (r)). For example, ‘cigba’ (tree) as a root noun in Nupe compounds with another root noun ‘gbere’ (root) and therefore becomes ‘cigba gbere’ (tree root). Another type of complete compound has the morphological structure root noun followed by root adjective (n (r) + adj (r)). For example, ‘ede’ (cloth) as a Nupe noun compounds with the adjective ‘saku’ (torn) and thus, ‘ede saku’ (rag). Also, there is another type of complete compound noun that has the morphological structure root noun followed by root verb (n (r) + V (r)). For example, ‘fula’ (cap) as a Nupe noun compounds with the verb ‘lu’ (weave) and as a result becomes ‘fula lu’ (cap weaving). In compound words generally, the word class of the ‘head’ of the compound determines the word class of the entire compound. The word class of the head word in all the categories of compound nouns mentioned above is noun and this makes the whole categories compound nouns.

Similarly, the analysis shows that there are cardinal nouns that have complete compound form which, by their morphological structures, combine two root nouns (cardinal) (n (r) + n (r)). For example, ‘gba’ (two thousand) as a Nupe root noun (cardinal) compounds with another root noun (cardinal) ‘kpako’ (two hundred) and thus, ‘gba kpako’ (four hundred thousand). All these various compound nouns are derivational because they are new words (as compounds) created from already existing

words. Furthermore, the above examples show that the morphological process behind the formation of these compound nouns is complete compounding.

Derivational Nupe Adjectives

The above analysis also shows that there are two types of denominal adjectives in Nupe. There is a denominal adjective that occurs in agentive noun form and another that occurs in compound form. The formed agentive noun is morphologically derived from the combination of root adjective and root verb, with the addition of agentive suffix ('-ci'). The morphological structure to be established is that the root adjective is followed by the root verb and lastly, the agentive suffix (adj (r) + v (r) + suff (drv)). For example, 'mada' (hungry) as a Nupe root adjective is followed by the verb 'gun' (feel) and this is finally followed by the suffix '-ci' thus, 'mada + gun + ci' (a hungry person). The suffix '-ci' is a derivational morpheme because it changes the meaning of both 'mada' (hungry) and 'gun' (feel) to a doer ('mada + gun + ci') in the language form of an agentive noun. The morphological process of this type of denominal adjective is suffixation.

The seond type of denominal adjective occurs in compound form. In this case, a root adjective becomes a denominal type as it combines with a root noun to form a compound (adj (r) + n (r)). For example, 'wawa' (foolish or insane) as a Nupe adjective becomes a denominal type as it is followed by a root noun 'zawangi' (human being) to become 'wawa + zawangi' (a foolish person). The morphological process that underlies the formation of this type of denominal adjective in Nupe is complete compounding.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, COMCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims at providing the summary, findings along with conclusion and recommendations The study has so far carried out a morphological analysis of Nupe nouns and adjectives. The types of Nupe nouns and adjectives that the study focused on and analysed have provided the basis for the researcher to arrive at some findings and conclusions. Furthermore, the researcher has been able to make suggestions for future linguistic research on Nupe as a result of the morphological analysis carried out. This becomes imperative in view of the fact that Nupe language has not been adequately studied and described linguistically.

5.1 SUMMARY

The previous chapters have clearly established the reasons that informed the study, the aim and objectives of the study coupled with the significance of the study. The study has carried out an extensive and critical review of related literature which culminated in identifying theoretical models suitable for the morphological analysis of Nupe nouns and adjectives. To this end, the study used the Hockett's IA (Item and Arrangement) as a theoretical model of morphological analysis and Halliday's 'Functional Grammar'. The study also used Catford's model theory of linguistic translation to translate Nupe data to English.

In chapter four, the data collected for this study were analysed and discussed in detail. Therefore, the study has shown that free morphemes can be found within the

word classes of Nupe nouns and adjectives. The free morphemes identified belong to different sub classes of Nupe nouns and adjectives. The study also proved that there are Nupe derived (complex) nouns and adjectives with different morphological structures. Nevertheless, the Nupe nouns and adjectives studied make use of derivational and inflectional morphemes disparately in the morphological structures of their complex word forms.

In this study, the common morphological processes that Nupe nouns and adjectives use (based on the ones studied) are suffixation (both inflectional and derivational) and compounding (complete and elided types). This means that the type of Nupe nouns and adjectives studied do not make use of prefixation. In addition, the Nupe nouns studied have two types of compound forms: complete compound and elided compound forms. The complete compound noun consists of two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns syntactically strung together and appear in their complete orthographic forms. For example, 'cigba + gbere' (tree root) is a complete compound noun type. The elided compound noun consists of initially two base forms (free morphemes) of nouns of which either any of the constituent words of the compound or both words is/are elided. For example, 'evo (e) je' (food plate or dish) is an elided compound with [e] elided in the second word of the compound. But in the Nupe cardinal noun 'shita' (sixty), the words 'eshi' and 'guta' that morphologically constitute the word are elided as '(e) shi' and '(gu) ta' to become 'shi + ta'. In fact, Nupe cardinal nouns (numerals) especially occur in complete and elided compound forms.

On the other hand, the study has proved that Nupe deverbal nouns and some denominal adjectives share a similarity in their morphological structures. They both use certain morphological operators (or properties) that are the same. The two nouns operate partly on the morphological combination of verb and derivational suffix to form finally

agentive nouns. For example, in the deverbal noun 'bici + da + ci' (a walker), 'da' (walk) is a verb while '-ci' is the suffix. Similarly, in the denominal adjective 'gbugbu + ke + ci' (a vulgar person), 'ke' (be) is a verb and '-ci' is a suffix. This shows that in the morphological structures of the two nouns, verb (any lexical verb) and specifically '-ci' suffix are the morphological operators that are basic to the formation of the two types of Nupe nouns. This summary of different morphological structures and processes that are common to the type of Nupe nouns and adjectives studied necessitates the findings that follow.

5.2 FINDINGS

Based on the analysis of the data of the study and its discussion in chapter four, the study arrives at the following findings:

(i) The morphology of Nupe nouns and adjectives studied shows that morphological resemblance between a set of words does not equally translate to similarity in morphological deconstruction (break down) of the same words. For example, the linguistic items '-gi' and '-ci' occur in the following (a) set of words and (b) set of words:

(a) 'bagi/ndagi', 'eshigi/managi', 'elogi/katagi' (b) 'jebanci/edasuci', 'gbanci / zandoci', 'lonci/latici'. In (a) and (b), the linguistic items '-gi' and '-ci' that occur in the first word of each pair are not bound morphemes but as integral parts of the first words. Therefore, all first words in (a) and (b) are base words or free morphemes. But the same linguistic items ('-gi'

and '-ci') that occur in the second word of each pair in (a) and (b) are bound morphemes. Therefore, all second words in (a) and (b) are derived or complex words. These linguistic items in Nupe words are neither clarified nor classified for proper distinction of morphemes in, for example, Abdullahi (1999:90-91).

(ii) In Nupe, the system of gradability of adjectives is a mixture of regular and irregular patterns. While there are sub sets of Nupe gradable adjectives that clearly use inflected and modified forms distinctively, there is also a sub set of gradable adjectives that use both inflected and modified forms simultaneously to express degrees of comparison. For example, 'waci' (big) as positive degree has the modified form 'waci + saranyi' ('saranyi' as 'more') at comparative degree and 'waci + ko' ('-ko' as suffix to mean 'biggest') at superlative degree.

(iii) There are degrees of morphological productivity (cf. chapter two (2.4.2)) in Nupe nouns and adjectives studied. The plural morpheme '-zhi' seems to rank high in morphological productivity because it can be attached to almost all Nupe count nouns with relative freedom as a plural morpheme that expresses plural noun forms. The agentive suffix '-ci' (as in 'enunuci', 'bicidaci') appears to rank next in the degree of morphological productivity because the suffix occurs in many Nupe words belonging to the word classes of noun, adjective

and, by extension, even verb (for example, ‘gigici’ (edible) is derived from the verb ‘gi’ (eat)).

(iv) Morphological elision (omission of either phonemes or letters of a word deliberately) is a prominent feature of the morphology of Nupe words because, from the study, it occurs in individual Nupe words, compound words and sentences. This morphological phenomenon could be attributed to the nature of Nupe as a syllable – timed language (a language in which the timing of syllables tend to be equal).

(v) The Nupe nouns and adjectives studied so far show that Nupe uses derivational morphology more than inflectional morphology because more derivational morphemes occur in nouns and adjectives than inflectional morphemes. Also, the complex forms of Nupe nouns and adjectives studied contain many suffix morphemes and no prefix.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The study is specifically about the morphological analysis of Nupe word structures. Therefore, the study treats the morphology of the Nupe word as an integral system to the language itself. Secondly, the use of IA (Item and Arrangement) as a theoretical model of morphological analysis to analyse Nupe nouns and adjectives has proved congenial and successful to the study because it (IA) has adequately analysed

and described the data on Nupe nouns and adjectives without exception. In view of the morphology of the Nupe nouns and adjectives studied, the researcher concludes that:

(a) Nupe is partly an agglutinating language. The evidence of this lies in the fact that the constituent morphemes of the Nupe complex words, especially within the classes of nouns and adjectives, can be easily identified and segmented in a linear order as has been done in this study.

(b) Where there are areas of similarities in the orthography of some sets of Nupe words, it does not mean that such are morphologically the same in structure. The example of '-gi' as a linguistic piece in words 'nangi' (goat) and 'katagi' (a small room) is a proof of this. While '-gi' in 'nangi' is not a bound morpheme, in 'katagi' it is because the former is a base word and the latter is not (a complex word).

(c) Nupe uses variable forms of adjectives to express degrees of comparison. Therefore, the system of gradability of adjectives lacks a single morphological pattern that is consistent.

(d) Nupe appears to be dynamic in lexical creativity since it uses more derivational morphology than inflectional.The literature of morphological studies proves that derivational morphology more often than not create new words.

5.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present research effort deals with the morphology of some Nupe nouns and adjectives. There is the need for further linguistic research on the morphological description of Nupe words from other word classes like verb, adverb so as to be able to provide a comprehensive morphology of Nupe words. In morphological studies, all aspects of language are interrelated and interdependent. The morphology of Nupe words, as undertaken in this study, cannot be properly understood without recourse to phonology, syntax and semantics of the language. Therefore, further research should be directed at, especially, syntax and semantics in order to have a proper view and understanding of Nupe language. In the meantime, the various Nupe words and their morphological structures studied could be used in teaching word formation in Nupe – speaking areas where Nupe is learnt either formally as a school subject or informally as a matter of individual or group effort. In addition, learning materials like books, primers dealing with Nupe word structures could be written and published from the study so as to increase people's awareness about the language and its understanding.

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APPENDIX 2

NUPE BASE WORDS (FREE MORPHEMES) RANDOMLY SAMPLED AND THEIR ENGLISH GLOSSES

Nouns

1. Zawangi	=	human being	2. Eza	=	a person
3. Bagi	=	male person	4. Yizagi	=	female person
5. Nunsa	=	elderly person	6. Dzakan	=	child or childhood
7. Yimi	=	wife	8. Yawo	=	bride
9. Egi	=	son/daughter	10. Yegi	=	a relative
11. Yagi	=	a grand child	12. Yele	=	in-law
13. Kuci	=	the dead	14. Gbarufu	=	young male person
15. Yantsugi	=	young female person	16. Ekpa	=	bachelor
17. Eku	=	corpse	18. Wuzhi	=	slave
19. Zakama	=	people	20. Doko	=	horse
21. Nanko	=	cow	22. Eshigi	=	dog
23. Bishe	=	cock/hen	24. Gaba	=	lion
25. Dangi	=	cat	26. Gbangba	=	duck
27. Nangi	=	goat/ram	28. Rakun	=	camel

29. Nampa = leopard

30. Kyatya = donkey

31. Makundunu = hyena

32. Elogi = antelope

33. Emagi = fox

34. Cigba = tree

35. Emi = house

36. Ezhi = town

37. Tswangi = star

38. Ewo = shirt/gown

39. Taku = stone

40. Kpanu = food plate/dish

41. Ewogi = spoon

42. Kata = room

43. Daro = kettle

44. Ede = cloth

45. Giyeko = Key/padlock

46. Kpako = door

47. Kpako = bottle

48. Esa = seat

49. Lati = farm/rural area

50. Bata = platation/plantation area

51. Evo = plate/bow/

52. Pati = mountain

53. Kin = earth/country

54. Nini = one

55. Guba = two

56. Guta = three

57. Gunni = four

58. Gutsu = five

59. Tswanyi = six

60. Twaba = seven

61. Tota = eight

62. Twani = nine

63. Guwo = ten

64. Eshi = twenty

65. Gbanwo = thirty

66. Rudin = thirty – five

67. Arata = fifty 68. Adwani = seventy

69. Gwasa = one hundred and eighty 70. Kpako = two hundred

71. Gba = two thousand.

Adjectives

1. Eba = male 2. yiwo = female

3. Gwalo = right hand 4. Gwafi = left hand

5. Dzuru = black 6. Boku = white

7. Waye = clever 8. Wawa = a fool or insane

9. Nana = ignoramus or ignorant person 10. Gbogu = a weakling

11. Adya = inactive person 12. Lamgba = an unhygienic person

13. Yipa = hot 14. Yeko = cold

15. Gbako = old 16. Ila = mad

17. Woro = new 18. Gba = thick

19. Tia = thin 20. To = high

21. Ma = sweet 22. Gbo = fat

23. Wukpa = tall 24. Lukpi = heavy

25. Pi = tight 26. Sa = beautiful

27. Bi = worse 28. Para = wide

29. Waci	=	big	30. Yi	=	small
31. Fialia	=	light (in weight)	32. Lu	=	bitter
33. Ba	=	sour	34. Ge	=	good

NUPE DERIVED WORDS (COMPLEX WORDS) RANDOMLY SAMPLED IN SENTENCES AND THEIR ENGLISH GLOSSES.

1. //Zawangi + zhi doke kpeti kin bo// = There are lots of human beings on earth.
2. //Yizagi + zhi a gu yeka// = Female person have gathered.
3. //Doko + zhi e gi gwo// = The horses are eating grass.
4. //Eshigi + zhi e gbo zhi debo// = Dogs are barking outside.
5. //Cigba + zhi a gbin ba dozhi// = Tree have fallen one another.

Similar derived words are:

6. Kata + zhi	=	houses
7. Daro + zhi	=	kettles
8. Taku + zhi	=	stones
9. Ede + zhi	=	clothes
10. Fini + zhi	=	leaves
11. Nanko + zhi	=	cows
12. Pati + zhi	=	mountains

13. //Kpako + kata a mu// = The room's door has removed.

14. //Ede + yawo da Kpati o// = The bride's cloth is in the box.

15. //Dzami + doko e da doko Kangi// = The horse's bridle controls the horse.

16. //A eje + yele bo a ni // = The in-law's food has been cooked.

Similar derived words are:

17. Fini + cigba = Tree's leaf

18. Lati + kuci = the dead's farm

19. Taku + Pati = mountain's stone

20. //Nda + gi mi a lele// = My uncle is asleep.

21. //Nna + gi u be ani// = His/Her aunt has arrived.

22. //Nda + ko + tsu ga yi nunsa gbarufuzhi o//= Ndakotsu (male head) is the leader of youths.

23. //Nna + ko + tsu a yizagizhi ku yaka zhi emi u bo// = Nnakotsu (female head) has gathered women in her house.

Similar derived words are:

24. Nda + ko = grand father

25. Nna + ko = grand mother

26. Nda + ko + gi = a nick name given to a boy.

27. Nna + ko + gi = a nick name give to a baby girl

28. Eshe + ci = male witch

29. Ga + ci = female witch

30. //(E) ba + yawo da a kata yawo// = The bridegroom has gone to the bride's room.

31. //Nda + yawo e gaga be yawo //= The bridegrooms father is talking to the bride.

32. //Nna + yawo a zewu be (e) ba yewo// = The Bride's mother is annoyed with the bridegroom.

Similarl derived words are:

33. Nda + (e) sa + ko = male person that chairs an occasion.

34. Nna + (e) sa + ko = female person that chairs an occasion.

35. //Mi shi bishe + (e) ba tsuwo// = I bought cock yesterday.

36. //Bishe + yiwo ge yi Kpa// = It is good to rear hen.

37. // Loko + (e)ba doku kin Nupe o// = Male hou=rses (stallions) are many in Nupe land.

38. //Doko + yiwo zo yi lele//+ A female horse is rare to see.

Similar derived words are:

39. Nanko + (e)ba = male cow

40. Nanko + yiwo = female cow

41. Gbangba + (e) ba = male duck

42. Gbangba + yiwo = female duck

43. Eshi (gi) + (e) ba = male dog

44. Eshi (gi) + yiwo = female dog

45. //Nupe + n + ci mi yi o// + I am a Nupe person.

46. //Lapai + ci ba mi //= I like lapai person.

47. //Lati + ci e dzo dzo be enu yi a //= A rural person doesn't joke with farming.

Similarly derived words are:

48. Dabban + ci = Dabban person

49. Doko + ” = Doko ”

50. Bata + ” = Bata ”

51. (A)gai + ” = Agaie ”

52. Mokwa + ” = Mokwa ”

53. Gulu + ” = Gulu ”

54. Lemu + ” = Lemu ”

55. Unku + ” = Unku ”

56. //Nupe + n +ci + zhi e wa yegba a// = Nupe people do not disrespect.

57. //Lapai + ci + zhi a cin a ni// = Lapai people have arrived.

58. //Patigi + ci + zhi da Bida o// = Patigi people are in Bida.

59. Bida + ci + zhi tu Gomina zuma a// = Bida people did not support the Governor.

Similar derived words are:

60. Bata + ci + zhi = Bata people

61. Lati + “ + ” = Lati ”

62. Lemu + ” + ” = Lemu ”

63. Unku + ” + ” = Unku ”

64. Mokwa + ” + ” = Mokwa ”

65. Dabban + ” + ” = Dabban ”

66. //Ega + ga + ci shani wu ci yi ndasako ya Bida//= The speaker at the occassion is Bida chairman.

67. //Bici + da + ci u suda yeshi // = A walker should fear might.

68. //Ede + lu ci zo yi leye gbani //= A cloth weaver is rare to see nowadays

69. //Enu + nu + cin dondo e ba ele//= Every farmer prays for rain.

Similar derived words are:

70. Eko + ce + ci = fighter or wrestler

71. Nuwa + gbin + ” = swimmer

72. Eya + pa + ” = Oarsman

73. Mato + pa + ” = Driver

74. Munge + ku + ” = Palm wine tapper

75. Ekpo + la + ” = Load carrier (human)

76. //Egi mi de eya shi + ba yina // = Mu son/daughter is fourty years old

77. //Etsu de doko shi + ta// + The king has sixty horses.

78. //A de za na gu eya kpa + u + tsun ta ti kin bo na// + Nobody can attain the age of one thousand years on earth.

Similar derived words are:

79. Shi + ni = eighty

80. Kpa + gunni = eight hundred

81. Kpa + u + ba = four hundred

82. Kpa + u + ta = six hundred

83. Shi + tswanyi = one hundred and twenty

84. Shi + twaba = one hundred and fourty

85. //cigba + gbere cigbe u yi o//=Tree root is medicinal.

86. //Emi + egu za payizhi yikere//= Ancient mud houses still remain.

87. //Evo + (e)je yi kashi//= The food plate or dish is unwashed.

88. //Dzakangizhi yebo ede + saku la dzo dzo//=children like plating with rag.

89. //Nupencizhi yebo eje + boci//= Nupe people like paste type of food.

90. //Zan do e la gwa to ena + cinkara a//= Nobody touches live coal.

91. //Nda + ce de enan dondo wu tsuwo a//= The hunter could not kill any game yesterday.

92. //Cigba = ba e ta a naka//=Tree cutting gives body pain.

93. //Fula + lu etu gwa u yi o//=cap weaving is a handicraft.

94. //Ze gi na de ewo gba + guwo//= The winner got the amount of money of twenty thousand (Naira).

95. //Nda mi e shi jekafa jika gba + eshi eyan dondo//= My father used to buy fourty thousand bags of rice every year.

96. // Nda sako de ewo fi Banki o ji gba + kpako// = The chairman has money in the Bank of about fourty thousand (Naira).

Similar derived words are:

97. Gba + arata = one hundred thousand

98. Gba + rudin = seventy thousand

99. Gba + gwegi = thirty thousand

100. Gba + gbanwo = sixty thousand

101. //Egba nna ji tia + nia ga ya ba tsozhi//= This rope is thinner than the other one.

102. //Lulu tia + nia + gi telazhi e la gu ede o//= Tailors use thinnest thread to sew cloth.

103. //Bida waci + saranyi ga ezhi nupenci na kena//= Bida is bigger than other Nupe towns.

104. //Emi etsun dondo ga yi waci + ko ezhi bo//= The house of every king is the biggest in town.

Similar derived words (gradable adjectives) are:

105.	to + to	to + to + ko
	(higher)	(highest)
106.	lu + ku	lu + ku + gi
	(more bitter)	(most bitter)
107.	ma + na	ma + na + gi
	(sweeter)	(sweetest)
108.	ba + ka	ba + ka + gi
	(more sour)	(most sour)

109. _____ para + ko
(widest)

110. _____ yisu + gi
(smallest)

111. //Wawa + zawangi e waye a//= A foolish person is not clever.

112. //Batatacin dondo gbogu + zawangi u yi o//= Every sick person is a weakling.

113. //Efe + zawangi e de ciwa ya zan dondo a//= A rascal person has no respect for anybody.

Similar drived words (denominal adjective) are:

114. Nana + zawangi = an ignorant person

115. Adya + zawangi = inactive person

116. Banza + zawangi = a stupid person

117. Lamgba + zawangi = an unhygienic person

A SAMPLE OF NUPE NEWS CAST ON NTA BIDA (4TH, APRIL, 2010)

Minister Labarizhi be egagazhi Prof. Dora Akunyili ga ukuma labarizhi a fe loye be ninsa e na a ga eye pa ku ga wurun yebozhi nini Nigeria o ganci na.

Minister, na ci fe jin jewafi u zhi eda na u go etun u dagwa o zo na, u ga, a cinga ga be ma a kezhe a ega ukuma labarizhi wa ye ebo ade ba lo etun a zhi wangi kendona u go yin a.

Prof. Akunyili ci ga a nima ya kpataki ya ukuma gbani, yin a u ga etunzhi na zhi ga ke gibo kpata na gumi be gwatso e, a ci a kezhe a ya etun worozhi be na, ebo sisa loye ye kin bo.

Minister na ji ukuma labarizhi ye ke u jin kpataki ga, u kezhe yi giyeko ya yegboro lozhi kpata nimi kin Nigeria o na, u ga, wun a zhe tile na muliki ya gbani ga etun kpata na zhi ga ke zhibo na gumi kendo a la u shibo na.

Aciga ga ma Minister laberizhi ya state, Mr. Labaran Maku ga wun gani be Akunyili a fi gwa na a ga kin Nigeria ti zuye nimi ji ji a zhi o be kin denzhi, to be atso be dozhi na. U ci ga a de kin dondo na a de yegboro lo ban be ukuma Labarizhi na zhi a ji shiri na a lotun a zhi na na.

TRANSLATION

The Minister of Information, Prof. Dora Akunyili, said that the Ministry would continue to actively checkmate spread of wrong information in the Nigerian media houses.

The Minister said this immediately she assumed office as a new information Minister. She also said that the Ministry of Information would be re-organized in order to make it properly functional as expected.

Prof. Akunyili said that the Ministry was happy with the new administration for embarking on the quick completion of the unfinished projects and to start new ones for the purpose of fast development of Nigeria.

The Minister who described the Ministry of Information as important ministry and as a key to moving the entire Nigeria forward, emphasised that it was necessary for the present administration to complete all the unfinished works as planned.

At the same time, Minister of State for Information, Mr. Labaran Maku, said that the he and Akunyili would work together as a team to make Nigeria proud in the performance of their duties both within and outside Nigeria. According to him, this was what every developed nation has, apart from having a ministry of Information that would execute their (ministers) duties.

A SAMPLE OF NUPE (BRIEF) NEWS BROADCAST ON BIDA FM RADIO (100.5KHZ)

Ena etu lo ci Dokto zhi ya kin babo a be eye ke a ga cia zuma yi la da etu ya gominati, tun da ga tswafo shi be guba ya etswa tswanyi ci ya eya na yi fi da a na.

To na de tsuwo ga ena nana gu eti zuma yi la da etu ya gominati o na, a ke zhe ya gominati efo eshi be nini, ke ka gan gominati wun ji ena a ga yewo na a na, a ke zhe ga cia zuma yi lada etu esibiti gominati o.

Dokto na zhi e wa be Gominati Taci ke vayi, be egwa tso, wu la u cia gbata ewo etswa woro yi wo ya a na.

TRANSLATION

The Medical Association of Nigerian Doctors had threatened to turn their back against government work (in hospitals), starting from 22nd, June 2010.

Even though, it was yesterday that this association met on withdrawal of service, the Doctors still gave government twenty one days (21) to do what would please them, if not they would turn their back against work in government hospitals.

The Doctors wanted the Federal Government, with immediate effect, to start paying them the new monthly salary.